

A DESCRIPTIVE STUDY OF THE SUPERVISORY MODEL USED IN A LARGE
METROPOLITAN SCHOOL SYSTEM-THE TRIAD SUPPORT TEACHER
MODEL OF BALTIMORE CITY, MARYLAND

by

Patricia Holmes Hall

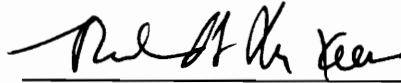
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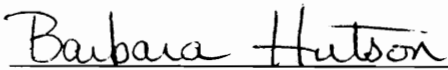
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(ABSTRACT)

Effective supervision can improve the quality of teaching and learning in the classroom. Researchers in educational theory agree that supervision exists for the primary purpose of improving instruction. Wiles defined supervision as "assistance in the development of better teaching-learning situations."

There is a pressing need in our school system to decide what to teach and how to teach it. along with the increase of possible content material there is the tremendous growth in number and type of technological tools and media. Excessive demands are made on school staff.

Supervisors are destined to play an essential role in deciding the nature and content of curriculum, in coordinating programs, in facilitating learning, fostering teacher progress, and selecting the school organizational

patterns which will facilitate improved instructional programs.

The professional literature of the past two decades is full of the theory of modern supervision. Terms such as democratic, team effort, mentor system, peer coaching, teacher-decision-making, and effective schools are lavishly used to show that the autocracy of the early twentieth century supervisor is no more.

It is apparent from a review of the literature that some theorists have strayed rather far from a workable concept of school supervision. Many supervisors are verbalizing various styles and terms while practicing either authoritarian control or the manipulation of staff to achieve their own goals.

This study is an attempt to address the major principles and characteristics which undergird effective supervision. The study will report teachers and supervisors' opinions of what is, and what should be as per a large metropolitan area.

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DEDICATION

This study is dedicated to my daughters, Carolynn Hall-Knowles, Carole Hall, my grandchildren, Carroll Hall and Shawna Hall, and to my dear friend, Bridget Dean. May they all be inspired to keep up their pursuit of higher education.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In 1974 Arthur Blumberg wrote that the most problematic part of the whole supervisory enterprise in the schools is the nature of the human relationships that exists between supervisors and teachers. In his book entitled Supervisors and Teachers: A Private Cold War, he characterizes the teachers as in a double bind. The teachers tend to agree that there is a definite need for supervision and evaluation while at the same time they consider the supervisor as a potential threat. In this book, an analogy is drawn between a school system and a feudal kingdom. Blumberg suggests "for Personnel from downtown," barriers are constructed around the school. For the most part this is not planned. More likely it is part of the mores of the sub-culture known as a school. New teachers are cued in by the old-timers, and the system of beliefs perpetuates itself. Supervisors, despite the fact that they have many valuable resources to offer teachers, tend to get treated as intruders. The teachers' game plan involves keeping things close to the vest, not revealing any weaknesses, and or so it seems, playing neither to win or lose, but for a draw!!

Many teachers today, upon reading Blumberg's characterization of the environment of supervision, state

firmly that things are the same today in their particular school environments (McKeen, 1991). Then, as well as now, the need to establish "productive" working relationships is crucial for supervisors. Then, as well as now, a great concern for many supervisors is how to get teachers to utilize supervisory resources.

This seems to be the case at this time despite the current reform movement in education that is focused on conditions in the workplace for teachers (Hall and McKeen, 1989). This movement, commonly referred to as "restructuring schools" is aimed at helping educators and policy makers think more generally about the organization of the whole school and to consider changes that will restructure schools from the ground up (Cohen, 1988).

The expansion of instructional supervision positions, growing controversy over the importance and character of supervision, and the ever-urgent demands of accountability, have failed to generate as much in-depth research of supervisory behavior as this writer had expected to find in the review of the literature. Many of the writings focused on the principal or assistant principal as supervisors (Wiles and Lovell, 1975). A large body of the writings related to instructional supervisory practices focused on

activities and programs, but not on the supervisor in particular.

Oliva (1976) identified instructional development, curriculum development, and teacher development as the special domains of instructional supervision. Harris (1975) took a more general approach. He identified the supervisors roles as developing curriculum, organizing for instruction, providing staff facilities and materials, providing in-service education, conducting staff orientation, public relations, and conducting instructional evaluation.

When this writer considered instructional supervision as the tasks, behaviors, and processes which fostered improved instruction; she expected to find studies in great quantities to coincide with her assumptions. However, most of what had been written about instructional supervision concentrated on the usefulness of activities. Activities considered useful were classroom observations, teacher-supervisor interviews, group dynamics, demonstration lessons, peer coaching, team decision-making, pre- and post-observational conferences, team planning and various in-service programs. There has been very little discussion of the effectiveness of these activities in different situations, with different problems, and with different personalities involved.

Charles Reavis (1976) espoused clinical supervision to foster teacher improvement. He defined clinical supervision as that supervision which fosters collegiality between the teacher and the supervisor; a meeting of equals wherein the supervisor uses specific data to help individual teachers analyze their own performance and monitor students' academic progress. However, there is very little written outside of the context of clinical supervision that speaks to the working relationships between supervisors and teachers.

Statement of Problem

The questions in need of answers are: Can the barriers created by a "we-they" gulf between supervisors and teachers be overcome? Can a school environment be established that will promote productive working relationships between supervisors and teachers so that teachers will more fully benefit from the supervisory resources?

The Baltimore City School System addressed this problem through implementation of "The Support Teachers Triad Model of Supervisory Services." It is a version of site based management where support teachers (supervisors) are assigned to specific schools to provide supervisory help and support to teachers. Their primary focus was instructional leadership with no responsibility for evaluation of teachers.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to conduct a descriptive study of the support teachers triad model and to obtain a measure of the perceptions of effectiveness of the support teachers. Perceptions were solicited from both teachers and support teachers. A major intent of this study was to identify what tasks performed by support teachers are noted as most effective? Which behaviors are noted as having positive effect on growth in teachers? And which behaviors can be dismissed as ineffectual?

Towards this end the following questions were posed:

1. Does the support teacher foster democratic, collaborative relationships between herself/himself and the classroom teacher?
2. Does the support teacher impart strategies which effectively improve the instructional program?
3. Is ample time allotted for the support of teachers?
4. Does the present support system model meet the needs of classroom teachers in their individual school situations?
5. Is the in-service training effective?
6. Which supervisory behaviors could be dismissed as being ineffective?
7. Would you modify the present support system?

8. Should each teacher, or groups of teachers, evaluate support teachers?

9. How many support teachers should be assigned to a school and where should the person/persons be based?

Significance of the Study

The aforementioned questions, among others, have been and are of great interest to teachers, administrators, and supervisors themselves. They are likewise of concern to college and university faculties responsible for educating future supervisors, and in some degree to the persons who are affected by the process of supervision--namely students, parents and other members of the community. Answers have been sought by various methods. These answers could prove helpful in clarifying the role of supervision and contribute to its improvement.

The participants in the study were elementary school teachers, pre-kindergarten to grade 5, and elementary support teachers of pre-kindergarten to grade 2, cluster I reading and language arts grades 3 to 5, and cluster II mathematics, science, and social studies grades 3 to 5 support teachers of Baltimore, Maryland.

This investigator decided to derive answers regarding the function of the supervisory staff (support teachers)

from two groups of persons. Elementary school teachers and elementary school support teachers.

Limitations and Assumptions

The scope of this study will be limited to the 286 teachers who represent the elementary school teachers of the Baltimore Public School System and 138 elementary support teachers who represent the supervisory staff of the elementary schools of the Baltimore Public School System. It is quite possible that the inclusion of more teachers from other schools would result in different sets of data. It is also possible that due to the profession, which by nature employs more females than males, responses were solicited more from one sex than the other. More responses from males would possibly result in different sets of data.

The study relied on self-description and opinions. It was assumed that the individuals responding to the survey opinionnaire provided accurate information. It was also assumed that:

1. individuals responding were knowledgeable and willing to provide information;
2. they understood the opinionnaire;
3. they did not subvert the process;
4. they were not harmed by the process;

5. by responding they were consenting to permit an analysis of the information.

Definition of Terms

1. Supervisor. "Supervisor," was used, in this study, as a generic term to include all whose unique or primary concern is instructional leadership. Supervisors may be called helping teachers, curriculum consultants, educational specialists, support teachers, or assistant principals. (MacKenzie, 1969).

2. Support teacher. "Support teacher," in this study, was used synonymously as supervisor.

3. Clustering. "Clustering," in this study, was defined as a group of two or more intermediate grade teachers who rescheduled their instructional day in order to allow each of the persons to instruct groups of intermediate grade students at different modules of time. The teacher may elect to teach only mathematics, social studies, science, health, safety and character education; in which case he/she would instruct in cluster II. The teacher may elect to teach only reading and language arts, in which case, he/she would instruct in cluster I.

4. Role, "Role," in this study, was used synonymously as duties outlined in the job description of a support

teacher in the Baltimore Public School System Position
Announcement #26-8.

- A. Participates in the development, implementation and monitoring of staff development activities for teachers of the assigned school(s).
- B. Provides ongoing technical instruction assistance and supervision to the instructional teams of the assigned school(s) in the specified area of their assignment.
- C. Models and/or demonstrates behaviors, techniques, strategies and skills.
- D. Assists teachers in the preparation of instructional units, and daily lesson plans.
- E. Participates in the development and dissemination of curricular materials and programs.
- F. Provides the building principal with continuous feedback on the instructional achievement of students.
- G. Maintains and submits accurate systematic records to the appropriate administrator.
- H. Provides diagnostic data to the principal and teacher via formal/informal observations.

- I. Works cooperatively with the classroom teacher to provide remediation and enrichment activities with the classroom setting.
- J. Assists and monitors long term substitutes to assure continuity in the instructional program during the absence of the regular duty.

Summary and Organization of this Study

This chapter has reviewed and presented the rationale for engaging in a study of the support system employed in Baltimore, Maryland. That rationale being: There have been numerous studies which focused on supervisory programs and activities, but few focused on supervisory behaviors which could be noted as most effective in improving the instructional program, or those behaviors which could be dismissed as being ineffectual in affecting positive growth in teachers.

Organization of the Study

Pertinent literature has been reviewed and summarized in Chapter 2. This study has been conducted by the survey methodology described in Chapter 3, using a survey opinionnaire to gather data. The results are presented in Chapter 4 and have been used to interpret "what is" in the area of instructional supervision in the Baltimore City

Public Schools. A discussion of these results with conclusions and recommendations are presented in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

Since the elementary school curriculum represents ideally the distillation of man and woman's most important experiences, ideals, attitudes and hopes, this hub of the educational institution demands more careful study and decision today than ever before. There is a pressing need in school systems to determine what to teach and how to teach it. Accompanying the increase of possible contents is the tremendous growth in number and type of instructional media, such as programmed learning materials, computers, instructional films, educational television, and many varied and sundry instructional textbooks. To cope with the excessive demands that are pressing the existing school structure, such organizational patterns as clustering, team teaching, ungraded units, remedial classes, gifted classes, enrichment classes, and advanced placement classes have been advocated and tried.

Supervision, then, seems destined to play an essential role in deciding the nature and content of the curriculum, in selecting the school organizational patterns and learning materials to facilitate teaching, and in monitoring the entire educational process. Effective coordination of the

total program, pre-kindergarten through grade six, has never been achieved in most large metropolitan school systems, although this is one of the most pressing needs in American public education today. An effective supervisory program is needed in the Baltimore Public School System to launch or coordinate this effort in this large metropolitan area.

This writer reviewed, studied and analyzed literature related to supervision of the instructional program and support services to teachers which dated from 1958 to 1990. The task of reviewing the literature related to supervision was most interesting and challenging. It presented many problems related to the complexity and scope of the practices currently in use, as well as reading, understanding, and analyzing instructional supervision as a major function which is based upon certain theoretical frames of reference.

These theoretical frames of references were employed in various writings about instructional supervision. Social-psychological theory has been drawn upon quite heavily to form the "human relations" view of supervisory behavior (Niles, 1967). Social systems theory has been drawn upon to form the basis for a contrasting view (Flanders, 1960). Communications theory has offered still another way of viewing supervisory behavior, with emphasis on self-analysis

and feedback techniques (Goldhammer, 1969). Psychiatric and learning theories offer still other ways of thinking about instructional supervision (Acheson & Gall, 1980; Blumberg, 1976; Cogan, 1972; Reavis, 1976; Sergiovanni, 1977; Simon, 1977).

Because supervision involves in some way the educational program of every child, there is no scarcity of literature on the subject in the broad sense. Many relevant facts were gleaned from all of the authors. The varying viewpoints were quite interesting.

All of the frames of reference offered promise for improving instruction through more efficient supervision. However, most of the views were more prescriptive in nature than descriptive. Current practice in supervision of instruction can be understood. However, in the absence of in-depth research, this writer noted a need for an attempt to piece together from various sources, a description of the instruction realities as they are operating in a large metropolitan school system, that of Baltimore City.

It was apparent from a review of the literature that the theorists postulated workable concepts of school supervision and many supervisors and administrators are verbalizing human relations and democracy and other popular

terms, while practicing either authoritarian control or manipulation of staff to achieve organizational goals.

What then, should be the major principles and characteristics of modern, effective supervision if the full potentialities of individuals and society are to be realized and are then translated into the most effective learning experiences for students?

The review of the literature helped to determine past and present thinking in the area of instructional supervision. This writer sought to find answers to questions concerning the nature and purposes of instructional supervision, roles and responsibilities of supervisors and the activities of supervisors based on the examination of published information.

Organization of this Review

The literature bases for this review consisted of five areas. These areas and the order in which they were discussed follows: (1) Clinical Supervisor, (2) Humanistic Supervisor, (3) Instructional Supervisor, (4) Roles and Responsibilities of Supervisors/Support Teachers, and (5) Role as Perceived by Classroom Teachers/Supervisors.

Clinical Supervision

The establishment and maintenance of satisfactory human relations among all staff members is primary. The worth of

each individual must be basic in the supervisor's philosophy. According to Cogan and Goldhammer (1969), Nelson and Reavis (1976-1978), and Sergiovanni (1976), the supervisory program will succeed to the extent that each person involved is considered as one who has a unique contribution to make to the educative process. The relationships among all personnel should be friendly, open, and informal to a great extent. Mutual trust and respect are essential, and the person in the supervisory role should set the tone. The school staff is a very influential group in today's society. It has the opportunity to develop and maintain a high level of personal interaction.

Collegial Relationships

Arthur Blumberg (1967) stated:

When supervisor and teacher interact in a supervisory conference, there should be broad aims of the situation:

1. To help the teacher maintain and enhance those parts of his teaching that are seen as productive.

2. To help the teacher change those aspects of his teaching that are in need of improvement.

Blumberg saw the supervisor in a dual role of a positive news carrier and helpmate, and a change agent.

Interpersonal relationships that would show the supervisor as a source of help must be established. This type of relationship is characterized by mutual respect and congruent communicative relationship which permits resources to be offered and used with a minimum of threat. The study revealed supervisors as viewing the results of their behaviors more positively than the teachers they served.

Blumberg (1976) stated:

If the supervisory relationship is to develop along good communicative, close interpersonal lines that he proposed, then the relationships had to be founded in trust, openness, warmth, and honest collaboration. He spoke of the essence of supervisory relationships as being no different from any other significant human relationship. He stated that unless the above factors were realized there would be no actuation of good supervision. Supervision must be seen as significant human relations, not as ritualistic, lock-step, matter-of-fact meetings.

Cogan (1973) made a distinction between general and clinical supervision. He defined supervision as supervisory activities that occur outside the

classroom and clinical supervision as the improvement of the teachers classroom instruction.

Jack Nelson (1974) made a study of collegial supervision which focused on the use of Cogan's cycles of supervision (a) Pre-observation conference, (b) classroom observation, (c) analysis and strategy and post-observation conference. Nelson concluded:

There was modest empirical evidence that training in collegial supervision can improve the attitudes and professional interdependence of the primary and middle grade teachers who receive training in it. The most favorable effects were strongest on the communication adequacy of the primary team.

The effects did spread throughout the staff.

Democratic collaboration between Supervisor and Classroom Teachers

In fostering collaboration, the supervisor has the responsibility for keeping the productiveness of the group uppermost on the staff's agenda. Group cohesiveness should be maintained. Fox and Faver (1984) identified four benefits that scientist perceived in working in collaboration with other scholars; pooled resources and division of labor, alleviation of academic isolation, sustained motivation through commitments to others, and

energy created through the interpersonal relationship to complete projects.

The selection of supervisors with a fundamental philosophy of positive human relationships is obviously essential to the implementation of sound supervisory practices. However, this writer admits that research is inadequate in the area of supervisory certification, evaluation, and standards.

David Berliner (1982) discussed the time that teachers spent actively engaged in setting goals and discussing them with supervisors was time well spent.

This writer perceived modern supervision as democratic, in the most enlightened sense, "Democracy" does not mean "laissez-faire," with each staff member proceeding as pleased him. Rather the term implied a dynamic, understanding, sensitive leadership role. Throughout the history of democratic institutions the importance of the leader has been emphasized. On a school staff different persons may assume the leadership function at various times, but real affirmative guidance is continually needed to focus attention on the improvement of instruction and the active involvement of all concerned staff members.

Humanistic Supervision

Rosenholtz (1985), in a paper describing effective schools, stated: "Organizational participants were motivated to remain in a setting and contribute to it in terms of their efforts, commitment, and involvement." She stated that "the contributions made by teachers and supervisors were vital and integrally related to institutional goals. However, involvement in the decision-making process was just as vital to the success of the organization as good human relations."

A healthy rapport should exist among staff members in a give-and-take atmosphere which is conducive to objective consideration of the educational theories and problems of the day and of the school. A cooperative and creative approach to topics of joint concern is basic. Ideally, no personality, including the supervisor, dominates the group, the considered judgments of all are perceived as valuable. Most decisions should be made by consensus after thorough research and adequate discussion of the area under study.

Shared Decision-making

Individuals should be included in basic policy planning, in studies of the instructional program, and in all fundamental changes which affect them or their position directly. This does not mean that the entire staff is

involved wholesale in every decision. However, the person in the supervisory position has the responsibility for deciding when and what individuals should be consulted. This writer perceived this as one of the most difficult tasks confronting the supervisor. This points up the need for optimum leadership ability in personnel assuming instructional leadership positions. There should not be token staff members giving consultation. There should be evidence of staff involvement being crucial and significant to the outcome of a given situation.

Bacharach, Bauer, and Shedd (1986) concluded that teachers were less satisfied and less committed to their careers when they experienced the following:

- They felt excluded from participating in decisionmaking.

- They were provided with insufficient resources to do their job.

The authors discussed human support as it related to advice feedback and assistance. They stated that about 50 percent of the teachers who participated in their study experienced some sort of problem with the quantity and quality of assistance from building-level administrators, staff specialists, or the custodian staff (Bacharach, Bauer and Shedd, pp. 21-22.)

Madeline Hunter stated that teachers' actions and their ability to make and implement decisions before, during and after instruction are all part of the process of increasing the probability of learning. She recommended preservice instruction for beginning teachers, in the area of effective decision-making (Hunter, 1980.)

Bauer, Bacharach, and Shedd discussed the need for quality and an adequate quantity of staff development opportunities for beginning teachers. They stressed the provision of opportunities for entry level teachers to constantly add to their core of knowledge through constant staff development and support for the continued education of all teachers (Bacharach, Bauer and Shedd, 1986.)

Peer coaching was discussed as a method to be used in restructuring the education organization. Hall (1988) discussed the improved collegiality among teachers for the improvement of the teaching profession. She advocated peer coaching on the premise that it created more professional working relationships among teachers and improved the environment. According to Hall, peer coaching appeared to have reduced isolation among the teachers, and provided them with the opportunity to learn while on the job (Hall, 1988). According to Hawley, Smylie, and Everston, in the National Governors' Association report Time for Results (1986),

teachers wish to have opportunities for professional growth and affiliation with their colleagues. Primarily, teachers indicated that they would like opportunities to observe one another (Goodlad, 1984; Bacharach, Bauer, and Shedd, 1986; Koppich, Gerritz, and Guthrie, 1986) and to learn from each other both formally and informally (Wu, 1987, Little, 1982, Feiman-Nemser and Floden, 1986; Johnson and Johnson, 1987, Bacharach et. al., 1986 Koppich et. al., 1986.)

According to McBay, in the Carnegie Corporation report, "Education That Works, An Action Plan for the Education of Minorities," teachers must be instrumental in the restructuring of the nations' schools and the curriculum in order to meet the needs of the minority youth in large inner city schools. The report was the end result of a 2-year effort called the "Quality Education for Minorities Project." The action plan calls for collaboration between local, state, and Federal educational agencies.

Characteristics of Humanistic Supervision

Abrell (1977) wrote of humanistic supervision. He postulated ten (10) characteristics of a humanistic supervisor. He or she must possess:

1. A belief that all human beings possess the power and potential for solving their own problems.

2. A belief that all "human beings" possess genuine freedom of creative choice and action, and are, within certain objective limits, the masters of their own destiny.

3. A belief that all human beings achieve the good life by harmoniously combining personal satisfactions and continuous self development with significant work and other activities that contribute to the welfare of those with whom one relates.

4. A commitment to democratic procedures when working with others.

5. A willingness to question others' and one's own basic assumptions and convictions.

6. A deep commitment and capacity to make others feel worthwhile, important, and uplifted.

7. A willingness and ability to establish warm and empathetic relationships with all persons, regardless of their racial, religious, ethnic, or educational backgrounds.

8. An ability to listen and a desire to utilize the experiences of others as a resource for planning and achieving goals.

9. An enthusiasm for and belief in supervision as a viable process for contributing to human growth and progress.

10. A commitment to upgrade oneself as a whole human being and the desire to carry on a continuing inquiry in the field of supervision.

Without benefit of positive collegial exchange of supervisory support and feedback, many beginning teachers in isolated work settings either defect or merely keep custodial order (Bredeson, Firth and Kasten, 1983).

The skill mastery of teachers is often constrained. Many teachers who need assistance never seek it.

Concepts of Instruction Supervision

A process

The review of the literature revealed a variety of attempts to define the boundaries of instructional supervision. One common thread that ran through most of the discussions was that the purpose of the behavior system was to improve instruction. In Harris' definition of instruction he implied that instruction supervision was directly related to teaching behavior, but only indirectly related to student behavior.

Most of the reviewed authors conceptualized instructional supervision as a process and/or a behavior system that exists to interact with teaching behavior for the purpose of improving the learning opportunities for students (Alfonso, Firth & Neville, 1975; Harris, 1975;

Lovell, 1977; Sergiovanni, 1976; Starratt, 1971). In viewing supervision as a process in which behavior is a significant part, Sergiovanni (1976) and Starratt (1971) indicated that all personnel who participated in supervisory behavior were ...supervisors at one time or another.

Other authors appeared to use a social system theory as a way of thinking about instructional supervision. They conceptualized it as a behavior system formally provided by the educational organization for the purpose of interacting with the teaching behavior system to facilitate the learning of students (Wiles & Lovell, 1975).

Within the framework of this definition, Wiles and Lovell (1975) suggested that instructional supervisory behavior may be a dimension of many roles. The critical factor that distinguished instructional supervisory behavior from other behavior is the nature and not the title of the position or role of the actor. Alfonso, Firth, and Neville (1975) took a similar position. Lucio and McNeil (1969) made a similar point: "We believe that supervision is itself a distributive function which holders of various positions discharge in different ways."

Burnham (1976) concluded that: "Supervision today is not the province of a particular person or a particular position, but it is a natural mode of behavior for all who

work and are a part of the human organization of the school."

A Service

Oliva (1976) conceived of supervision as service and help to teachers in an effort to improve instruction. Blumberg (1974) indicated that supervision was essentially the process of giving and receiving help to improve performance or resolve a problem that occurred between teachers and students. Harris (1977) indicated that improvement of instruction is the basic concept of supervision of instruction and has been for many years. He called for more emphasis on leadership for change that is uniquely instruction oriented. Burnham (1976) stated that supervision was and still is a process utilized by the organization to improve instruction.

Development of Goals

Lucio and McNeil (1969) took a more general view by defining the common dimension of supervisory behavior as the development of goals, operations for achieving goals, and evaluation of results with a specific reference to the improvement of instruction. Sergiovanni (1976) and Starratt (1971) took a contrasting position; they defined the domain of instruction supervision as a process to achieve school goals through the human organization. Thus, behavior on the

part of school personnel which is directed toward the achievement of school goals through other individuals was defined as supervisory whether directly, indirectly or remotely related to instructional improvement.

Most of the writers emphasized change as an important function of instructional supervision. Changes in objectives, programs and instruction were repeatedly emphasized as desired outcomes of instructional supervision.

Role and Responsibilities of the Supervision/Support Teacher

Direct Support

Most of the authors discussed the functions of support, service, and help for teachers and other educators. Cogan (1973), Goldhammer (1964), and Bellon, Huffman, Eaker, and Jones (1976) developed books built around the assumption of the need for a system of direct support to help teachers improve their performance in a particular classroom situation. The literature was filled with discussions on the importance and descriptions of pre-observation behavior, observation, analysis of teaching behavior, and post-observation behavior (Goldhammer, 1969; Eaker and Jones, 1976; Cogan, 1964; Blumberg, 1967; Flanders, 1960; Reavis, 1976-1978; and Serviovanni, 1976-1977).

Quality Control

Some writers emphasized the importance of quality control as an important function of instructional supervision. The monitoring, however, did not appear to be of the type to foster and maintain control, but rather a monitoring of the instructional programs of the teachers (Inabetti, 1968).

Peer Support

Madeline Hunter (1980) postulated making the teachers aware of their teaching through the supervisors instructing them in the use of a teacher appraisal instrument. Trained observers would use the instrument to identify teaching behaviors which would foster increased learning for the students, thus making teachers aware of their behaviors, especially the positive behaviors.

Glickman (1984-1985) recommended that teachers monitor and assist one another in a "buddy system," and through intervisitations.

Quality Leadership

A growing recognition of leadership for making schools more effective as a proper function of instructional supervision was apparent throughout the literature.

Alfonso, Firth, and Neville (1984-1985) recommended the usage of a supervisory mix of human, managerial, and technical skills to foster organizational goals.

Alfonso et. al., (1955) identified leadership behavior as an important component of supervision and discussed it in depth. Harris (1977) discussed the concept of instructional leadership as relatively new in 1977 and indicated that leadership involved the pursuit of change that was related to instruction.

Who then is a supervisor? How have the roles and responsibilities of instructional supervisors been prescribed in the professional literature and described in the research on practice?

It is possible to define the role of a position that an individual occupies as the behavior normally expected of the person in the position both by the individual and others with whom the individual works. When this writer inquired about the role of the instructional supervisor she wanted to know about where the supervisors should be based, engaged time, collaboration, collegiality, individualization strategies to meet the needs of low income students in impoverished areas, and just what were the expectations that both the supervisors and teachers have concerning the behaviors supervisors should manifest?

Supervisory Confusion of Role and Function

The review of the literature revealed considerable confusion and disagreement about the roles of supervisors. Part of the confusion dealt with the functions of the various positions occupied by persons called supervisors, support teachers, educational specialists, coordinators, curriculum directors, consultants, department heads, educational associate, assistant superintendent for curriculum, curriculum directors, and other educators. Naturally, the role of a particular position in a particular school system will be defined in a unique way according to the expectations of the other educators with whom the role occupant works. Therefore, it was predictable that supervisors working in the same and different school systems would have different roles, titles, and responsibilities. The authority structure for the role varies according to the responsibilities of the role occupant.

According to Wiles and Lovell (1975), Alphonso, Firth and Neville (1975), and Burnham (1976), individuals in organizations who participate in supervisory behavior serve a supervisory function, but individuals whose primary responsibility is to participate in instructional supervisory behavior can be thought of as supervisors. Positions, titles, and responsibilities of individuals whose

primary responsibilities are in instructional supervision vary considerably.

In light of the foregoing, it was not surprising to find various authors defining supervisors differently. Babcock (1965) discussed the need for a curriculum supervisor and the need to define the role because of ever-changing demands. He assumed that the instructional program and curriculum development were inseparable, that instructional supervision should be a service function rather than administrative and that the leadership responsibility for curriculum change should rest with the curriculum supervisor.

Shafer and MacKenzie (1965) identified two types of roles for curriculum leaders. The role of the generalist was defined as having broad functions with a position such as director of instruction. They used the example of a coordinator of child study. The difference did not seem to be a function of administration or service but rather of subject specialization, since administration was evident in both categories.

It appeared that Babcock and Shafer & MacKenzie were making a case for the need for the clarification of both the role and competence required to participate in the role.

Wiles and Lovell (1979) developed a concept of two kinds of positions for the supervisory staff. The position of coordinator was considered appropriate when there was a program to be managed. The position of consultant was used for those individuals whose primary responsibility was to provide support, help, and service to teachers and other instructional leaders.

Role as Perceived by Teachers/Supervisors

This writer noted scant studies which dealt with the instructional supervisors role, responsibilities, and activities as perceived by supervisors, teachers, and administrators.

Direct Support to Teachers

Puckett (1963) found that teachers desired more help from supervisors in the form of classroom visits, criticism, and assistance in the use and delivery of materials. Colbert's (1967) analysis of effective supervisory behavior as perceived by teachers indicated that supervisors were most effective when they assisted teachers with teaching techniques, demonstrated teaching techniques, offered constructive criticism, held conferences following observations of teaching, gave specific advice, and assisted teachers with evaluation of their teaching.

Democratic Cooperation

Palmer (1955) found that teachers and supervisors preferred cooperative, participatory, and democratic type supervision with more emphasis on demonstration teaching. Ross (1969) reported that supervisors in North Carolina spent more of their time in administrative type activities such as developing curriculum, coordinating and arranging for in-service education, organizing for instruction, and coordinating activities rather than in direct support of teacher activities such as visiting classrooms, conferring with teachers, doing demonstrations, and evaluating teachers.

Lovell and Phelps (1976) reported eighty-three percent of the teachers in the State of Tennessee reported that they received no observations by a general or special supervisor during the 1974-1975 school year. Eighty percent of the teachers reported no instructional conferences with a general supervisor, and eighty-four percent reported no instructional conferences with a special supervisor. More than two-thirds of the teachers reported that observations were not usually scheduled in advance, preceded by a conference, nor requested. They reported a lack of provision of needed services.

Tasks Categorization

Esposito, Smith and Burbach (1975) sought to determine if certain supervisory tasks could be classified according to certain dimensions of the role concept. They selected a pool of tasks from the literature and established four categories and labeled them as: (a) indirect service to teachers, (b) direct services to teachers, (c) administrator, and (d) evaluator.

The authors analysis revealed that the four categories could be subdivided into two distinct categories in broad terms. The final two categories were (a) helping role and (b) administrative role. These broad categories could have important implications for pre-service preparation of instructional supervisors.

Several authors considered evaluation as an appropriate task of instructional supervision. It appeared to be a task about which considerable disagreement was generated. It seemed possible to conclude that the tasks of supervisors were more related directly to helping, supporting, and providing services for teachers (Christiansen and Turner, 1976).

Carlton (1971) reported that teachers and principals perceived the actual role of supervisors as assisting with the development of programs for federal funding,

administrative duties, formulation of policy, in-service education, and textbook selection. He also reported that teachers and principals preferred that the supervisors plan and arrange for teacher visits to observe teaching, assist with instructional materials, assist new teachers, coordination of instruction, and observe in classrooms.

This writer noted the emphasis placed on the importance of the provision of direct support and services to help teachers improve their performance in working with students.

Summary

This writer found it helpful to conceptualize instructional supervision as a process or behavior system formally provided by the educational organization to improve instruction. The concept of improvement of instruction was used in a general way and may need clarification. It included: (a) direct psychological and technical support, service and help for teachers; (b) curriculum development, coordination, and evaluation; (c) organization for and development, coordination, evaluation, and monitoring of instruction; (d) the provision of facilities, materials and equipment; (e) development and evaluation of educational goals; (f) professional development of personnel; (g) provision of objective feedback of personnel performance;

and (h) the provision of feedback regarding the attainment of educational outcomes.

A crucial function of instructional supervision is the initiation and support of change for improvement. Societal educational expectations change, the needs of students change, teaching methods, materials, and equipment change, teachers change, and therefore, the educational program and the instructional process must change. Change requires leadership; and it is reasonable to expect the instructional behavior system to be the primary source of leadership for instructional change and improvement.

It is also important to note the maintenance and continuing support of ongoing programs and people as an important function of instructional supervision. The need for quality control was recognized as an important function of instructional supervision. Teachers not only need to have freedom and support in the process of creative problem solving, exploring new ideas, and implementing new approaches, but also need coordination and control within the framework of overall program objectives. One function of instructional leadership is to provide leadership to maintain balance in the support of organizational and human needs for freedom, creativeness, coordination, and conformity.

Studies of the expectations that teachers have for instructional supervisory services have indicated that teachers desire supportive and non-threatening services that are directly related to the improvement of their classroom performance. It was also found that teachers do not perceive that they are getting the services they need and often perceive supervisors as spending much of their time in central offices working on administrative tasks not directly related to the needs of teachers. There was also evidence that the direct service that teachers were receiving was ineffective according to certain criteria of effectiveness.

The literature revealed a need to emphasize the directing of support services toward fulfilling the needs of teachers and improving their performance. Clinical supervision was proposed as an effective approach for the delivery of direct support. There was a great deal of work evidenced in the study of pre-observation behavior, observation behavior, and post-observation behavior. However, the literature provided scant evidence that clinical supervision has made much impact on the practice of instructional supervision. Madeline Hunter has made inroads in this area with the effective schools model.

This writer noted confusion and disagreement about the role of the supervisor. This confusion may be at least

partly a function of the role concept. If the role is defined as the behavior normally expected of a person occupying a position and expected by others with whom the person interacts, then it is inevitable that instructional supervisors working in different or even the same organization will have different roles, titles, and responsibilities. Many problems can and do arise because of this. There is an urgent need to clarify the roles and responsibilities of persons occupying supervisory positions as they exist in educational organizations.

Even though it may be impossible or even undesirable to define a universal role for instructional supervisors, it is possible to conceptualize categories of their roles and responsibilities. In attempting to develop useful classifications, some writers recommended generalist type roles and specialist type roles (Christiansen and Turner, 1976; and Esposito, Smith and Burbach, 1975).

A promising approach for study was posited by Esposito and Smith (1975). In their approach, two broad categories of tasks were identified: (a) the helping role and (b) the administrator role.

This classification is very closely aligned with the support staff's triad model used in Baltimore, Maryland. Supportive instructional supervisors are expected to have

primary responsibility for assisting and providing services to teachers such as instructional conferences to improve teaching, observation and analysis of teaching, teaching demonstration lessons, securing supplies, materials, and equipment, and monitoring the attainment of goals.

This writer will focus on the supervisor as he/she endeavors to use current practices for the purpose of improving instruction.

Organization of the Study

In Chapter I the problem to be investigated was stated to be a descriptive study of the perceptions of the triad supervisory model used to deliver support services to elementary school teachers in the Baltimore City Public School system. In Chapter 2, the literature related to the problem has been reviewed to provide a background from which to launch the study.

In the next chapter, Chapter 3, the methodology used will be presented in detail. Using an opinionnaire survey methodology, an attempt has been made to collect baseline data on the delivery of support services to elementary school teachers and their perceptions of the services delivered to them. The data are analyzed in Chapter 4 through the use of appropriate statistics. Descriptive data describing the support teachers' and elementary school

teachers' perceptions have been tested for significance by Chi square. the interval data which dealt with percentages of time have been tested for significance by Chi square and cross tabs. A summary of the data is provided in Chapter 5 and the conclusions about the "Triad Supervisory Model" include suggestions for further study.

In the next chapter, Chapter 3, the methodology used in this study will be explained in the following sequence:

- A. Population
- B. Research design
- C. Survey methodology
- D. Treatment of data
- E. Data analysis techniques

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this section is to present information which pertains to the following: (1) the setting, (2) research subjects, (3) development of the instrument, (4) pilot testing of the instrument, (5) administration of the instrument, (6) data collection and (7) data treatment.

The Setting

The Baltimore City Public School System is comprised of 110 elementary schools, 33 middle schools, 14 senior high schools, 4 vocational technical senior high schools, 12 exceptional children's schools, and 1 school for the arts. There are five special centers, and one adult educational center.

The total student enrollment for the school system is 108,232. Four thousand six hundred sixty seven students are in the pre-kindergarten. Eight thousand, eight hundred forty three are in the kindergarten. Ninety four thousand, seven hundred twenty two are in grades 1 to 12.

There are approximately 1800 teachers of students from the pre-kindergarten to grade 5.

The Population and Sample

The logistics of acquiring the sample involved first meeting with the Assistant Superintendent for Elementary Education, and the Assistant Superintendent for Research and Planning, each of three Executive Directors, and each principal individually to secure their approval and participation. The next step was for the investigator to meet with the faculties of the selected schools to recruit their participation. Cooperation was very good. There was no need to involve additional schools because of refusal to participate.

The population of this study consisted of elementary school teachers and elementary school support teachers, pre-kindergarten to grade 6, in the Baltimore City Public Schools. The selection of elementary teachers was based on a table of random numbers.

The sampling procedure involved random selection of 20 elementary schools which employed at least 20 teachers. Eight classroom teachers of grades pre-kindergarten through grade 6 were randomly selected from each of the 20 schools. The characteristics of the classroom teachers are summarized in Table 3 Page 59.

In selecting the sample of support teachers, the investigator secured the list of school assignments and

staff rosters from the Assistant Superintendent of Elementary Education. One hundred thirty eight names and schools were listed. At the behest of the Assistant Superintendent, all of the population was selected as the sample due to the size of the group. Characteristics of the support teachers sample are summarized in Table 4, Page 60.

Survey Methodology

A review of the literature related to instructional supervision revealed a diversity of perceptions which may have stemmed from organizational complexity or lack of perspective. Many theoretical frames of references were noted as being employed in various writings about supervision. Many of these have been drawn upon quite heavily today to form the "human relations," "social psychological," "communications," and "learning theories" approaches to instructional supervision. However, most of the views were rather narrow and prescriptive in nature. To provide perspective, at least, the school operation should be the point of reference for studying the effectiveness of instructional supervision as a major function of the organization.

There were two parallel instruments used in this study. They were developed to identify the respondents' perceptions

of the effectiveness of the supervisory behaviors exhibited by the support teachers and their effects on teachers' performance. Personnel, both teachers and support staff, were asked to respond to separate opinionnaires which attempted to determine their perceptions of the behaviors of the support teacher in the performance of supervisory tasks.

Each opinionnaire was comprised of 203 questions which elicited 194 yes/no responses and nine open-ended responses. The respondents were asked to respond in earnest and to write comments, if they wished, on the opinionnaire. There were nine clusters of these questions, each of which pertained to a specific research question that was identified in chapter 1. For example, Research Question 1. Does the support teachers foster democratic, collaborative relationships between herself/himself and the classroom teacher? This question was addressed through the 11 survey items listed below.

- Does the support teacher foster democratic interaction?
- Do you collaborate on projects?
- Do you collaborate with teachers/support teachers?
- Do you collaborate with teachers/support teachers on teaching techniques?

- Do you collaboratively plan and implement behavior-modification programs?
- Do you collaboratively plan and implement timelines?
- Do you collaboratively plan and implement demonstration lessons?
- Do you collaboratively choose behavioral objectives?
- Do you collaboratively choose units of study?
- Do you collaboratively construct and exhibit a literate environment?
- Do you collaborate at all with teachers/support teachers?

Pretest of Instrument

A protocol of the opinionnaire was administered in small group settings at 17 different schools. Most principals allowed time for the teachers to meet with the investigator either a few minutes prior to or immediately after their regularly scheduled faculty meeting. Two principals specified that their teachers had to meet after school. The teachers were receptive and participated in the study. One principal elected to give the instrument to the teachers to be completed at their leisure. Because of the number of meetings required, holidays during which the schools were closed, and the need to meet on Wednesdays (system-designated day for staff-development or teachers

meetings), it took most of February, March, April, May, and June to administer and collect the completed opinionnaires.

In order to assess the validity and reliability of the instrument, two methods were used. First, 10 expert interraters were asked to review the opinionnaire, make corrections, delete or add information. One assistant superintendent of elementary education participated, along with three principals, three experienced teachers and three experienced support persons. Following an interrative session, the opinionnaires were revised taking the rater's suggestions into account.

Pilot Study

A pilot study was conducted using 30 elementary teachers and 30 elementary support persons to determine whether the writer was measuring what was to be measured. As a result of the suggestions and feedback made by the respondents, a few minor revisions were made in the format of the instruments and in the questions. To determine the consistency of the measurement over time, the test/retest method was used to assess reliability. Thirty elementary school teachers in another elementary school and 30 other support teachers were administered six questions from the opinionnaire. Seven/eight days later the test was readministered to the same group. The correlation

coefficients for the six major sections of the instrument can be found in Tables 1 and 2. Pages 49 and 50.

In order to determine the reliability of the two instruments, the Phi coefficient was used. According to Hinkle, Jurs, and Wierma (1979), "The Phi coefficient, which is a special case of the Pearson r , would determine the relationship between the variables which were of the discrete nominal nature." The formula for computing the Phi coefficient was:

$$\frac{BC - AD}{(A + B)(C + D)(A + C)(B + D)}$$

According to Bergman (1981):

"Although a correlation coefficient of 1.0 indicates a perfect relationship between two factors, a coefficient of .50 does not indicate 50 percent perfect relationship. The closer a correlation approaches to +1.00 or -1.00, the more significant it is. The more significant a correlation is, the more likely it is that the relationship would not occur by chance."

The test/retest situation had the advantage of requiring just one form of the test that was administered. It provided information about the instrument over time. This writer assessed the reliability of the "homemade" instruments before doing the actual study.

Table 1

Reliability of Teachers Opinionnaire of Perceptions of the Triad Support System Model.

(Test/retest after time lapse of 7/8 days.)

Variable Name	Variable Number	Phi Correlation Coefficient
Are you pleased with the present support system?	12	.96
Should your triad support team be based in your school?	26	.96
Does your support teacher give you evaluations?	73	.95
Is improving instruction important?	97	.49
Is your support teacher helpful to you?	13	.94
Should teachers evaluate support teachers?	177	.96

Table 2

Reliability of Support Teacher Opinionnaire of Perceptions
of the Triad Support System Model

(Test/retest after time lapse of 7/8 days.)

Variable Name	Variable Number	Phi Correlation Coefficient
Are you pleased with the present support system?	12	.96
Should your triad support team be based in your school?	28	.97
Do you evaluate teachers?	78	.94
Is improving instruction important?	97	.74
Are you helpful to teachers?	13	.49
Should teachers evaluate teachers?	177	.94

The data presented in Tables 1 and 2, Pages 49 and 50, provide the reliability coefficients obtained as per the pilot administration of the opinionnaire. Most test makers and researchers are satisfied if they obtain reliability coefficients of .90 and above but dissatisfied if they get coefficients below .70. (Ary Associates, 1972, p. 209). Reliability for the instrument was, therefore, established.

Planned Treatment of Data

The research questions in this study generally called for descriptive inquiry. Therefore, all of the data analyses presented are summarized in the form of descriptive statistics. In order to analyze the data, each question was categorized as per the nine categorical questions proposed to guide the investigation. The statistical techniques of chi square and cross tabs were employed to compare the relationship and to determine significance of differences among the two groups.

The Statpac Statistical Analysis Package (Wallenick, et. al., 1986) was utilized to test for statistical relationships between the categorized variables and the two groups. When a relationship between the variable and the groups was identified, the individual contingency tables were further examined to detect the significant cells. No

significant relationships were discussed, those cells with less than five were collapsed using the "Select If" option inherent in the Statpac program. By so doing, no permanent changes were made in the data file.

The data file was based upon records per respondent. It included item scores for each item. A running set of comparisons across items were made. This running set is often called a family of variables from which a single set of expected differences were generated. There were nine such families contained in the opinionnaire. Each of these families was thematic and pertained to a specific research question. For example, the theme for research question one was "democratic and collaborative relationships," the theme for question two was "instructional improvement." The probability that the family of variables would contain at least one type I error is called the "family wise" error rate (Howell, 1988). For any family with less than 20 items, one would be expected to be significant by chance alone. Therefore, if two or more comparisons are significant, the family wise differences are said to be significant. The chi squares were inspected to determine the two variables which reflected the most agreement, and the two variables which reflected the least agreement within the family of conclusions. Questions 3's family is based on

frequencies of activities or percentage of time rather than degree of agreement. Hence, an independent t-test was employed rather than the chi square statistic.

Summary

This chapter has presented and detailed the procedures followed in answering the questions raised in Chapter 1.

This study's population consisted of elementary school teachers and elementary school support teachers, pre-kindergarten to grade 5. The sample was selected from schools in the Baltimore metropolitan area. The number of subjects selected was based on a table of random numbers as pertained to the generalizeability of the research findings. (Krecjie and Morgan, Dec. 1960, pp. 607-610.)

The two parallel instruments used in this study were developed to identify respondents perceptions of the effectiveness of the supervisory behaviors exhibited by the support teachers and the effects on teachers' performance. It contains 189 descriptive statements and 14 time-related statements. Response categories were organized so as to elicit nominal data, primarily. The time-related statements elicited interval data. Content validity was established by experienced interraters; three elementary school principals, three experienced teachers, and three experienced support teachers served as the raters following the interrative

process, the opinionnaires were revised, taking the raters suggestions into account. Reliability was established by utilizing the test/retest method and calculated by using coefficient of reliability (Phi Coefficient).

CHAPTER IV

This chapter presents in narrative and, where appropriate, tabular form, the results of the analysis of the data. A general overview of the results are presented, followed by a description of the population and the sample, and the characteristics of the schools involved in the study. The remainder of this chapter deals with each research question separately along with the associated family of comparisons for each research question.

Response Rate

Out of 300 teachers, 288 responded. Out of 138 support teachers, all responded. In an effort to secure the responses of the remaining 12 respondents, classroom teachers, this investigator did the following:

1. Remitted another copy of the original opinionnaire with a self-addressed stamped envelope.

2. Telephoned the schools. Ten of the 12 respondents stated they would complete and return the second opinionnaire. Two respondents stated they were going to bring theirs to me.

3. Called to set up an interview time. (When 1 1/2 weeks had elapsed) none of the non-respondents could agree on a time, or location suitable for the interview to be given.

4. The return date of May 28, 1987, passed. The date was extended to the close of school; June 16, 1987.

After the close of school, the investigator dismissed the remaining 12 opinionnaires and noted them as non-responses. (No home addresses or phone numbers. (School Board Directive.)

For all of the families of comparisons, with the exception of question 3, each comparison was significant at the .05 level or below. For question number 3 the t-Test was used to analyze the data. There were three comparisons (#80, #87, and #89) that were not significant.

For each family of comparisons, except for those associated with research questions 8 and 9, the majority of the classroom teachers and the majority of the support teachers (supervisors) responded positively. However, the support teachers were significantly more positive than the classroom teachers for each comparison. That is, a greater majority of the support teachers (supervisors) responded yes in each case.

For research question 8, the majority of both groups responded no to each comparison in the family. For research question 9, the majority of the teachers responded no for each comparison in the family; while the support teachers (supervisor) responded yes for one of the comparisons.

Findings

The findings in this study are reported as they pertain to the nine questions stated in Chapter 1. The statistical data are presented in table format and inferences are discussed only to the extent necessary to answer the questions raised in the study. Summary, conclusions, implications and recommendations are presented in Chapter 5.

The nine questions asked in this study were:

1. Does the support teacher foster democratic, collaborative relationships between herself/himself and the classroom teacher?
2. Does the support teacher impart strategies which effectively improve the instructional program?
3. Is ample time allotted for the support of teachers?
4. Does the present support system model meet the needs of classroom teachers in their individual school situations?
5. Is the in-service training effective?
6. Which supervisory behaviors could be dismissed as being ineffective?
7. Would you modify the present support system?
8. Should each teacher, or groups of teachers, evaluate support teachers?

9. How many support teachers should be assigned to a school?

The Population

Elementary school teachers

There were 288 out of 300 responses to the opinionnaire. According to Krejcie (1960) this should yield a representative sample of the total (N = 1700) elementary school teachers population.

Background and experience.

A composite picture of the responding population (N = 288), shows a predominantly female population (95.5%). She is between 38 to 44 years of age (23.6%), she has been teaching approximately 13 to 18 years (21.5%), she has taught pre-kindergarten (31.9%), kindergarten (33.7%), grade 1 (35.1%), grade 2 (41%), grade 3 (44.1%), grade 4 (47.2%), grade 5 (43.4%), grade 6 (3.9%), and above grade 6 (13.5%). She is tenured, having taught approximately 13 to 18 years.

Elementary School Support Teachers

There were 138 responses to the opinionnaires. This number represents the entire population of elementary support teachers.

Background and experience.

A composite picture of the responding population (N = 138) shows a predominantly female population (92.8%), male

Table 3

Characteristics of the Sample: 288 Randomly Selected Teachers of Grades Pre-kindergarten through 5 from 20 Randomly Selected Elementary Schools. (There were 12 non-respondents.)

Demographic Variables	Number of Teachers	Percentage of Total No. of Respondents
N = 288		
<u>Number of Years of Teaching Experience</u>		
1-6	55	19.1
7-12	56	19.6
13-18	62	21.5
19-23	45	15.6
24-30	41	14.2
30 or more	28	9.7
No response	1	0.3
<u>Teaching Grade Level</u>		
Pre-kindergarten	98	34.0
Grades 3 to 5, math, science and social studies	89	33.7
Grades 3 to 5, reading and language arts	76	26.4
Special Education	25	8.7
<u>Age</u>		
20-25	35	12.2
26-31	57	19.8
32-37	51	17.7
38-44	68	23.6
45-51	45	15.5
52-57	19	6.6
58-63	12	4.2
64 and above	0	0.0
No response	1	0.3
<u>Sex</u>		
Male	13	4.5
Female	275	95.5
<u>Career Status</u>		
Tenured	256	88.9
Probationary	24	8.3
Provisional	8	2.8

Table 4

Characteristics of the Sample: 138 Support Teachers of Grade Pre-kindergarten through Grade 5 from the Entire Population of Support Teachers. (There were no non-respondents.)

Demographic Variables	Number of Support Teachers	Percentage of Total No. of Respondents
<u>Number of Years of Teaching Experience</u>		N = 138
1-6	11	8.0
7-12	24	17.4
13-18	35	25.4
19-23	24	17.4
24-30	26	18.8
30 or more	17	12.3
No response	1	0.7
<u>Support to Teachers of Grades:</u>		
Pre-kindergarten - Grade 2 all subjects	45	32.6
Grades 3 to 5, math, science and social studies	44	31.9
Grades 3 to 5, reading and language arts	39	28.3
Special Education	10	7.2
<u>Age</u>		
20-25	7	5.1
26-31	20	14.5
32-37	33	23.9
38-44	37	26.8
45-51	24	17.4
52-57	12	8.7
58-63	3	2.2
64 and above	0	0.0
No response	1	1.4
<u>Sex</u>		
Male	10	7.2
Female	128	92.8
<u>Career Status</u>		
Tenured	138	100.0
Probationary	0	0.0
Provisional	0	0.0

(7.2%). She is between 33 to 44 years of age (26.8%). She has been teaching approximately 13 to 18 years (25.4%). She has taught pre-kindergarten (21.0%), kindergarten (25.7%), grade 1 (31.9%), grade 2 (44.7%), grade 3 (51.4%), grade 4 (52.2%), grade 5 (46.4%), grade 6 (27.5%), and above grade 6 (13.8%). One hundred thirty eight of them were tenured teachers who were subsequently promoted to support teacher.

The data presented in Tables 3 and 4 provides background information relevant to this study. Table 3 illustrates the background information pertinent to elementary school teachers. Table 4 illustrates background information pertinent to elementary support teachers.

The data presented in Table 5 illustrates the characteristics of the 20 participating schools. The socioeconomic status was reported by the principals of the schools in terms of the numbers of students who paid for their lunch. Two schools were classified as having high socioeconomic status. The percentage of the students who paid for their lunch was equal to 71% or more of the total school population. Seven schools were classified as moderate in terms of socioeconomic status. The percentage of students who paid for lunch in these schools was equal to 36% to 70% of the school population. Eleven schools were

Table 5

Characteristics of Participating Schools

School	S.E.S*	Number of Teachers Pre-k-5	Number of Support Teachers	Number of Students
1	High	20	1	700
2	Low	24	3	840
3	Low	20	3	715
4	Low	21	3	740
5	Moderate	21	2	734
6	Moderate	23	2	802
7	Low	22	3	763
8	Moderate	25	2	875
9	Low	26	3	
10	Low	88	3 Based 2 Bi-weekly	3,046
11	Moderate	20	2	700
12	Low	25	3	872
13	Low	23	3	800
14	Moderate	22	2	770
15	Low	28	3	989
16	Moderate	26	2	900
17	High	20	1	700
18	Low	23	3	796
19	Low	21	3	729
20	Moderate	26	2	894

*Socioeconomic status is reported according to the percentage of students who paid for their lunch.

High - 71% or more students paid for lunch

Moderate - 36% to 70% of the students paid for lunch

Low - 35% or less of the students paid for lunch

classified as having low socioeconomic status. The percentage of the students who paid for lunch in these schools was equal to 35% or less of the student population.

Findings for Research Questions

For those comparisons in each family that were significantly different, the implications are for the most part that there existed a difference in the degree of agreement between teachers and support teachers. For those comparisons in each family that were not significantly different, the implications are that the teachers and support teachers were in very close agreement concerning those questions.

Question 1 - Does the support teacher foster democratic collaborative relationships between herself/himself and the classroom teacher? See Table 6.

For questions 125, 104, 100 and 160 there were no significant differences between percentages of agreement between teachers and support teachers. However, for question 160 only 63% of teachers and 62% of support teachers agreed with the question. For all other questions the percentage of teachers in agreement ranged from 63% to 96%. The percentage of support teachers in agreement ranged from 62% to 100%. The greatest differences in degree of agreement between teachers and support teachers were found

Table 6

Chi Square Values for Democratic Collaborative Relationships Among Support Teachers and Classroom Teachers - Question 1

Questions	Chi Squ.	%Tchrs.	%S/Tchrs.	Diff.	D.F.	Lev. of Sign. <05	
Collaboration with Beginning Tchrs	100	0.21	95	95	0	1	0.88
Hiring More Teaching Staff	160	.005	63	62	1	1	.00
Close Collaboration	104	3.107	96	99	3	1	0.07
Choosing Text and Materials	126	3.113	89	81	7	1	0.78
Close Collaboration	30	11.925	75	82	7	1	0.16
Literate Environment	125	16.176	91	99	8	1	0.00
Choose Units	124	8.57	80	92	12	1	0.00
Plan Timelines	121	15.565	84	98	14	1	0.00

Table 6. (Continued).

Chi Square Values for Democratic Collaborative Relationships Among Support Teachers and Classroom Teachers - Question 1

Questions	Chi Squ.	%Tchrs.	%S/Tchrs.	Diff.	D.F.	Lev. of Sign. <05	
Special Projects	117	15.773	80	95	15	1	0.00
Foster Democratic Interaction	72	19.332	83	99	16	1	0.00
General Collaboration	127	9.481	77	94	17	1	0.00
Behavior Modification	120	14.886	69	87	18	1	0.00
Collaborate on Projects	116	23.328	79	97	18	1	0.00
Behavior Objectives	123	20.844	76	95	19	1	0.00
Demonstrate Lessons	122	31.121	77	99	22	1	0.00
Teaching Techniques	119	36.361	77	100	23	1	0.00

for question 119 (77% for teachers and 100% for support teachers) and question 122 (77% for teachers and 99% for support teachers).

Question 2 - Does the support teacher impart strategies which effectively improve the instructional program? See Table 7.

For all comparisons, with the exception of question 69, teachers and support teachers agreed that the support teachers foster improved instruction. For question 69, the teachers were only 40% in agreement, while the support teachers reported agreement of 73%. This means that 60% of the teachers perceived that the support teachers behaved like supervisors. For all other questions the percentage of teachers in agreement ranged from 75% to 100%, while the percentage of support teachers in agreement ranged from 80% to 100%. For questions 54, 59, 53, 61, 65 and 98 there were no significant differences between teacher and support teachers with respect to degree of agreement. The greatest differences in agreement were found in question 44 (24%) and question 69 (33%).

Question 3 - Is ample time allotted for the support of teachers? See Table 8.

The t-Test for unmatched groups was used to determine if there was a difference between the mean scores of the two

Table 7

Chi Square Values for Strategies Which Improve Instruction - Question 2

Questions	Chi Squ.	% Tchrs	%S/Tchrs	Diff	D.F.	Lev. of Sign. <05	
Improving Student Achievement	98	.002	98	97	1	1	0.96
Pre & Post Conf.	65	.03	97	96	1	1	0.86
Demonst. Lssns	61	.239	99	98	1	1	0.62
Improve Instruc.	53	1.671	100	98	2	1	0.19
Gathering Books/ Materials	59	1.87	99	97	2	1	0.17
Teach Slow Lrnrs	54	2.673	98	95	3	1	0.10
Support Services	52	6.529	94	100	6	1	0.00
Scheduling	49	4.685	93	99	6	1	0.03
Confer w/Tchrs	48	5.143	93	99	6	1	0.00
Monitoring Tchrs Progress	106	9.086	93	100	7	1	0.00

Table 7. (Continued).

Chi Square Values for Strategies Which Improve Instruction - Question 2

Questions		Chi Squ.	% Tchrs	%S/Tchrs	Diff	D.F.	Lev. of Sign. <05
Feedback	74	4.914	89	80	9	1	0.02
Pre & Post Conf.	71	11.646	90	99	9	1	0.00
Gather Materials	16	15.429	86	99	13	1	0.00
Helpfulness	13	16.347	83	97	14	1	0.00
Coord. Curric.	43	19.552	86	100	14	1	0.00
Guidance	15	21.235	79	96	17	1	0.00
Improve Instruc.	39	21.897	81	98	17	1	0.00
Demonst Lssns	45	17.244	75	93	18	1	0.00
Create Literate Environment	47	23.571	81	99	18	1	0.00
Planning and Record Keeping	44	32.027	75	99	24	1	0.00
Supervision	69	39.286	40	73	33	1	0.00

Table 8

t-Test for Unmatched Groups - Question 3 P<.05

Questions	Number of Cases		Group Means		Diff. Between Means	Standard Deviation t	Observed Value	Level of Significance on a Two- Tailed Test
	Tchrs.	S/Tchrs.	Tchrs.	S/Tchrs.				
Time to reviewing records	288	138	31.4	12.1	19.3	2.76	6.97	.001
Time to rec. strategies and techniques	288	138	30.7	14.8	15.9	5.07	3.14	.01
Time to review lesson plans	288	138	30	15.2	14.8	2.70	5.48	.001
Time to model teaching techniques	288	138	28.8	14.	14.4	10.8	1.33	.20
Time to improve instruction	288	138	28.8	14.8	14	2.60	5.38	.001
Time to disseminate curriculum	288	138	28.8	14.5	14.3	6.74	2.11	.05
Time to time management	288	138	28.6	17.8	10.8	4.11	2.62	.01

Table 8. (Continued).

t-Test for Unmatched Groups - Question 3 P<.05

Questions	Number of Cases		Group Means		Diff. Between Means	Standard Deviation	Observed t Value	Level of Significance on a Two-Tailed Test	
	Tchrs.	S/Tchrs.	Tchrs.	S/Tchrs.					
Time to consult and facilitate for teachers	90	288	138	27.3	17.7	9.6	2.55	3.76	.001
Time to collaborate with teachers	91	288	138	26.6	20.9	5.7	2.58	2.21	.05
Time to develop curriculum	88	288	138	26.3	10	16.3	2.98	5.47	.001
Time to help instruct tchrs	89	288	138	26	12	14	10.8	1.33	.20
Time to help and inspire teachers	84	288	138	24.5	10.2	14.3	2.17	6.58	.001
Time to insure implementation of curriculum	85	288	138	24.4	10.5	13.9	2.17	6.39	.001
Time to direct instructional program	87	288	138	20	16	3.8	3.8	0.94	.50

groups. In order to reject the hypothesis that the teachers answered the 14 items the same as the support teachers, the obtained t-value must be larger than the tabled value, then the difference between the two groups means was statistically significant at the .05 level. The t-Test helped to account for two factors, group size and score variability.

Three of the questions tested were found non-significant, numbers 80, 87, and 89 because the obtained t-value was not larger than the tabled t-value at the .05 level.

The difference between the group mean score indicated that a large majority of the respondents perceived that not enough time was devoted to the task, 310 or 75% agreed that no time was devoted to the task.

The difference between the group mean score reviewing lesson plans ($X = 14.8$) indicated that a large majority of the respondents perceived that not enough time was devoted to the task, 316 or 76% agreed in their perception of no time being devoted to reviewing lesson plans.

The difference between the group mean score for recommending strategies about teaching ($X = 15.9$) indicated that a large majority of the respondents perceived that not enough time was devoted to the task (269 or 67.1%).

The difference between the means for model teaching ($X = 14.4$) indicated that a large majority of the respondents agreed in the perception of not enough time being allotted for the tasks.

The difference between the group mean score for improving instruction ($X = 14$) indicated that a moderate number of the respondents perceived that ample time was allotted to improving instruction. However, more classroom teachers were of this perception than support teachers (46% vs. 20%).

The difference between the group mean score for the dissemination of curriculum ($X = 14.3$) indicated that a large majority of the respondents perceived that not enough time was devoted to the dissemination of curriculum, 235 or 55.4% perceived that no time was devoted to the task.

The difference between the group mean score for time-management ($X = 10.8$) indicated that a large majority of the respondents perceived that not enough time was devoted to developing time-management skills (278 or 67%).

The difference between the group mean score for consulting with and facilitating for teachers ($X = 9.6$) indicated a large majority of the respondents perceived that not enough time was devoted to the task (341 or 82.0%).

The difference between the group mean score for collaborating with teachers ($X = 5.7$) indicated that a large majority of the respondents perceived that not enough time was devoted to the task (290 or 69.7%).

The difference between the group mean score for developing curriculum ($X = 16.3$) indicated that a large majority of the respondents perceived that not enough time was devoted to the task (268 or 64.4%).

The difference between the group mean score for inspiring teachers ($X = 14.3$) indicated that a large majority of the respondents perceived that not enough time was devoted to the task (162 or 39%). However, 126 or 30.3% perceived that 5 to 10% of time was allotted.

The difference between the group mean score for insuring curriculum implementation ($X = 13.9$) indicated that a large majority of the respondents perceived that not enough time was devoted to the task (239 or 58%). However, 113 or 27.2% perceived that 5 to 10% of time was allotted.

The majority of the teachers perceived that not enough time was devoted to the direct support of classroom teachers. Support teachers responses may be in light of tasks they actually perform. Imbalance in time devoted to various tasks was useful. Duties that often require the support teachers' attention, diminish the time that is

devoted to individual, in-the-classroom support services. Support teachers who are engaged in varied tasks which are administrative, etc., do not give teachers the support they need and want.

Question 4 - Does the present support system model meet the needs of classroom teachers in the individual school situations? See Table 9.

For all comparisons, a majority of the teachers and support teachers agreed that the support teachers met the individual needs of teachers in the teachers' individual schools. The percentage of teachers in agreement ranged from 78% to 98%. The percentage of support teachers in agreement ranged from 72% to 100%. The greatest difference in agreement was found in question 135 (24%), and no significant differences were found for questions 133, 184, 143 and 197.

Question 5 - Is the in-service training effective? See Table 10.

For all questions the percentage of teachers in agreement ranged from 58% to 99%. The percentage of support teachers in agreement ranged from 78% to 100%. The largest differences were found in question 42 (25%) and question 24 (20%). For questions 145, 17, 55, 147 and 88 there were no significant differences.

Table 9
Chi Square Values for Meeting Individual Needs of Teachers - Question 4

Questions	Chi Squ.	%Tchrs	%S/Tchrs	Diff.	D.F.	Lev. of Sign. <05
Awareness of Students	133	98	100	2	1	0.20
Individualizing Instructions	184	96	99	3	1	0.10
Choosing Objectives	143	95	91	4	1	0.11
More Individualized Support	197	94	99	5	1	0.08
Pragmatic Relative Curriculum	144	99	94	5	1	0.02
Knowledge of Subject Matter	138	96	90	6	1	0.01
Rapport with Student	149	88	79	9	1	0.01
S/Tchrs Decision Maker	159	88	98	10	1	0.00

Table 9. (Continued.)

Chi Square Values for Meeting Individual Needs of Teachers - Question 4

Questions	Chi Sq.	%Tchrs	%S/Tchrs	Diff.	D.F.	Lev. of Sign. <05	
Participation of Teachers	157	10.231	87	73	14	1	0.00
Adhering to Curriculum	146	14.381	82	96	14	1	0.00
Helpfulness of Support Tchrs.	13	16.347	83	97	14	1	0.00
Needing Support	35	16.226	78	94	16	1	0.00
Participation of S/Teachers	158	20.582	83	99	16	1	0.00
Being Innovative	14	20.934	80	97	17	1	0.00
Improve Instruc.	39	21.897	81	98	17	1	0.00
Preparing Objectives	135	46.902	91	72	24	1	0.00

Table 10

Chi Square Values for Effective In-Service Training - Question 5

Questions	Chi Squ.	%Tchrs.	%S/Tchrs.	Diff.	D.F.	Lev. of Sign.<05	
Planning and Record Keeping	58	.048	99	99	0	1	0.02
Ability to Use Materials & Equipment	147	.046	87	86	1	1	0.83
Providing In-Service Training	55	.341	99	100	1	1	0.55
Relate New Curriculum	17	1.116	93	89	4	1	0.29
In-Service Training	41	3.999	96	100	4	1	0.04
Implementing Curriculum	145	3.275	93	98	5	1	0.07
Feedback	74	4.914	89	80	9	1	0.02
Guidance	15	21.235	79	96	17	1	0.00

Table 10. (Continued).

Chi Square Values for Effective In-Service Training - Question 5

Questions	Chi Squ.	%Tchrs.	%S/Tchrs.	Diff.	D.F.	Lev. of Sign.<05	
Involving Teacher Decision	24	15.886	58	78	20	1	0.00
Strategizing	42	40.447	75	100	25	1	0.00

Question 6 - Which supervisory behaviors could be dismissed as being ineffective? See Table 11.

For questions 103, 110, 93, 73, 111, 95, and 31 there were no significant differences. For all other questions there were significant differences and for questions 28, 34, 69 and 94 the two groups were not in agreement. For question 101 the two groups both felt strongly there were not very many irrelevant meetings.

For all other questions, the percentage of teachers in agreement ranged from 17% to 95%. The percentage of support teachers in agreement ranged from 4% to 100%.

Question 7 - Would you modify the present support system? See Table 12.

For all comparisons with the exception of question 192, the teachers and support teachers agreed that they would modify the support system. For question 192, the teachers were only 47% in agreement, while the support teachers reported agreement of 80%. This means that 53% of the teachers perceived that the present support system should be modified.

For questions 115, 188, 190, and 172 there were no significant differences and for all other questions, the percentage of teachers in agreement ranged from 47% to 99%.

Table 11

Chi Square Values for Behaviors that Could be Dismissed
as Ineffective - Question 6

Questions	Chi Squ.	%Tchrs.	%S/Tchrs.	Diff.	D.F.	Lev. of Sign.<05
Coordinating Parent Mtgs	103	.002	56	57	1	0.96
Holding Classes	110	.048	75	76	1	0.82
Admin. Duty	93	.035	90	88	1	0.85
Evaluating Tchrs	73	.608	58	62	4	0.43
Formal Observation	111	1.093	75	80	5	0.29
Teaching Children	40	5.996	95	100	5	0.01
Cafeteria Duty	95	3.167	84	91	7	0.07
Informal Observations	46	5.609	92	99	7	0.01
Unannounced Visits	31	.43	61	52	9	0.51
Observing as Sprrt	62	11.891	92	80	12	0.00
Irrelevant Mtgs	101	11.702	17	4	13	0.00
Intrusive	19	8.71	72	57	15	0.00

Table 11. (Continued).

Chi Square Values for Behaviors that Could be Dismissed
as Ineffective - Question 6

Questions	Chi Squ.	%Tchrs.	%S/Tchrs.	Diff.	D.F.	Lev. of Sign.<05	
Test Coordinating	66	24.362	91	72	19	1	0.00
Formal Observation	70	15.661	66	45	21	1	0.00
Assist Beginning Teachers Only	28	22.706	27	51	24	1	0.00
Increasing Tchrs Workload	34	25.04	67	41	26	1	0.00
Assign to School	23	43.668	58	91	33	1	0.00
Do you give support tchrs run in the guise of support	69	40.383	39	73	34	1	0.00
S/Tchrs Teaching Slow Learners	99	61.823	89	55	34	1	0.00
Teaching Slow Learners	94	116.697	72	15	57	1	0.00

Table 12

Chi Square Values for Modifying the Present Support
System Model - Question 7

Questions	Chi Squ.	%Tchrs.	%S/Tchrs.	Diff.	D.F.	Lev. of Sign.<05	
More Democ. Interaction	172	.325	94	96	2	1	0.56
	190	1.87	99	97	2	1	0.17
Modify Support System	188	.587	90	93	3	1	0.44
Test Coordinate	115	1.054	57	53	4	1	05.90
Negotiate Clerical Work	171	2.119	57	49	8	1	0.14
Hire More S/Tchrs.	173	6.184	76	87	11	1	0.00
S/Tchrs. No Clerical Work	167	12.696	88	99	11	1	0.00
Too Few S/Tchrs.	21	6.542	72	84	12	1	0.00
Hire More Staff	193	13.65	81	95	14	1	0.00

Table 12. (Continued).

Chi Square Values for Modifying the Present Support System Model - Question 7

Questions	Chi Squ.	%Tchrs.	%S/Tchrs.	Diff.	D.F.	Lev. of Sign.<05	
S/Tchrs. Less Clerical	166	16.549	85	95	14	1	0.00
Strong S/Tchr. to Low Achieving Schools	189	41.455	98	78	20	1	0.00
S/Teachers Cover Too Many Schools?	23	43.688	59	91	32	1	0.00
Modify Timelines	192	39.831	47	80	33	1	0.00

The percentage of support teachers in agreement ranged from 49% to 99%.

Question 8 - Should each teacher, or groups of teachers evaluate the support teachers? See Table 13.

For all comparisons, with the exception of question 189, the teachers and support teachers agreed that each teacher or groups of teachers should evaluate the support teachers.

The percentage of teachers in agreement ranged from 51% to 93%. The percentage of support teachers in agreement ranged from 54% to 86%. For the most part, both groups reported low to moderate, agreement with the question and the teachers tended to be more in agreement with teachers evaluating support teachers. No significant differences were found for questions 186, 185, 177, 178 and 183.

Question 9 - How many support teachers should be assigned to a school? See Table 14.

For all comparisons, with the exception of question 26, the teachers and support teachers tended to agree. Their support was moderate for the most part and the percentage of teachers in agreement ranged from 54% to 91%. The percentage of support teachers in agreement ranged from 38% to 91%.

Table 13

Chi Square Values for Teachers or a Group of Teachers Evaluating
Support Teachers - Question 8

Questions	Chi Squ.	%Tchrs.	%S/Tchrs.	Diff.	D.F.	Lev. of Sign.<05	
S/Teachers Supervision	186	.128	67	65	2	1	0.72
Establish Criteria	185	0.156	51	54	3	1	0.69
Should Teachers Evaluate S/Teachers	177	.826	78	81	3	1	0.36
Can Teachers Evaluate Faster Self-Improvement?	178	.697	74	70	4	1	0.40
Universal Information	183	1.637	87	81	6	1	0.20
Principal Only	187	6.018	93	86	7	1	0.01
Facilitator Accountability Assist	182	13.921	74	56	18	1	0.00
Administrator	181	14.399	74	55	19	1	0.00

Table 13. (Continued).

Chi Square Values for Teachers or a Group of Teachers Evaluating Support Teachers - Question 8

Questions	Chi Squ.	%Tchrs.	%S/Tchrs.	Diff.	D.F.	Lev. of Sign.<05
Supply Feedback	179	14.399	74	55	19	1 0.00
Constructive Criticism	189	15.5	74	54	20	1 0.00

Table 14

Chi Square Values for the Number of Support Teachers, and Where They Should Be Based - Question 9

Questions	Chi Squ.	%Tchrs.	%S/Tchrs.	Diff.	D.F.	Lev. of Sign.<05	
1 S/Tchr. 1 School	25	.231	67	64	3	1	0.63
If based in 1 School You Get More Help	27	1.119	87	91	4	1	0.29
1 each School for Improvement	164	.701	71	66	5	1	0.40
1 S/Tchr. per School for 1 Year	169	1.464	71	65	6	1	0.22
2 S/Tchrs. for 2 Years	175	9.324	91	80	11	1	0.00
3 S/Tchrs. in Level IV School	174	5.55	72	83	11	1	0.01
Triad Team in Your School	26	8.653	54	38	16	1	0.00

However, for question 26, only 54% agreed with the question while only 38% of the support teachers were in agreement. There were no significant differences for questions 25, 27, 164 and 169.

Summary

Overall, the teachers and support teachers agreed that the Triad Support Team Model was helpful. They perceived democratic, collaborative support services which imparted strategies for the improvement of instruction. Discrepancies were noted in the responses gleaned from question 3. These responses, given in percentages, were not aligned with answers attained from questions posed which elicited "Yes" or "No" responses. There were positive relationships noted. There were differences among the two groups, to the extent to which they perceived the actual delivery or receipt of services.

Recommendations for the modification of the model were evidenced and information for the evaluation of support teachers was generated. These are presented in Chapter 5.

CHAPTER V
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS
FOR FURTHER STUDY

Introduction

Effective supervision of instruction can improve the quality of learning in the classroom. Modern supervision at its finest is both dynamic and democratic, reflecting the vitality of enlightened and informed leadership.

The primary objective of supervision must be to recognize the inherent value of each person, to the extent that the full potential of all will be realized. Supervision exists for the primary purpose of improving instruction. It should be aimed at the improvement of classroom instruction through the continual growth of all concerned -- the student, the teacher, the supervisor, the administrator, the parent, and other interested lay persons.

Restatement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to examine the support teachers, triad model of supervisory services in a large urban metropolitan school system (Baltimore, Maryland). In order to understand better the role and duties of the support teachers, and how they delivered supervisory services to classroom teachers, the following questions were used to guide the study.

Research Questions

1. Does the support teacher foster democratic, collaborative relationships between herself/himself and the classroom teacher?
2. Does the support teacher impart strategies which effectively improve the instruction program?
3. Is ample time allotted for the support of teachers?
4. Does the present support system model meet the needs of teachers in their individual school situations?
5. Is the in-service training effective?
6. Which supervisory behaviors could be dismissed as being ineffective?
7. Would you modify the present support system?
8. Should each teacher, or groups of teachers, evaluate support teachers?
9. How many support teachers should be assigned to a school, and where should the person/persons be based for effective instructional supervision?

This descriptive study was accomplished by establishing a data base of empirical information about the support teachers of Baltimore, Maryland.

Methodology of the Study

Survey methodology has been used to develop descriptive statistics about the backgrounds, democratic collaboration

between the support teachers and classroom teachers, the strategies that the support teachers use to effectively improve instruction, the time that the support teachers allot to teachers, meeting the individual needs of the teachers, the in-service training provided for classroom teachers, the supervision behaviors that could be dismissed as being ineffectual, the modification of the present support system, the evaluation of the support teachers by classroom teachers, and the assigning and base location of the support teachers. The Statpac--Statistical Analysis Package--for the IBM Programs has been used to analyze the data and to identify the relationships between the responding groups, the support teachers and the classroom teachers. Chi square and cross-tabs were used to analyze the relationships between the variables generated by the opinionnaire. This technique was used to test whether the relationships were independent of each other. In other words, did the observed frequencies in the cells deviate markedly from the expected frequencies if the two variables were not related to each other. The chi square distribution and its associated degrees of freedom were used to calculate the probability that the differences between the observed and theoretical frequencies occurred by chance. This measure of squared deviations between the observed and

theoretical numbers in terms of frequencies in categories or cells of a table served to determine whether the deviations were due to sampling error or some interdependence or correlation among the frequencies. It involved a comparison of the frequencies of the two responding groups, classroom teachers and support teachers, who answered with yes, no, or no response. Cells which evidenced less than five were collapsed. This was done by using the "Select If" option inherent in the Statpac program. By so doing no permanent changes were made in the data file. In order to make multiple comparisons, "Familywise Error Rate (FW)" was used to determine the probability that a family of conclusions would contain at least one Type I error.

The T-Test between independent groups was used to analyze question 3: Is Ample Time Devoted to Support of Teachers? The categories were recoded, so as to statistically attain the mean, standard deviation, and number for each group. The means were weighted for the teachers and the support teachers.

Results

The results of the study indicate that it is necessary to measure the effectiveness of the supervision which is provided to classroom teachers. The support teachers'

performance of their duties needs to be evaluated by the best method/s available.

There should be a comprehensive approach to the task of evaluating the support teachers; an approach by which the support teacher and the entire school program is evaluated.

Teachers, administrators, and supervisory personnel of the organization can and should work cooperatively to develop an assessment which will measure the effectiveness of the support services which are provided for teachers. A consideration for all areas of the program which effect the classroom teachers' progress as he/she endeavors to improve the instructional program.

In addition, the findings in this study are generally consistent ith the models espoused by Reavis, Blumberg, and Goldhammer (1969).

Research Question 1

Does the support teacher foster democratic, collaborative relationships between himself/herself and the classroom teacher?

Overall, teachers and support teachers agreed that the support teachers fostered democratic collaborative relationships between himself/herself and the classroom teacher. This perceived collaboration centered around the collaborative choosing of units of study, and any

collaboration between teachers and support teachers which transpired.

Collaboration and Democratic Relationships.

The supervisory program will succeed to the extent that each person involved is considered as one who has a unique contribution to make to the educative process. The relationships among all personnel should be friendly, open and informal to a great extent. Mutual trust and respect are essential, and the person in the supervisory role should set the tone (Cogan and Goldhammer, 1969, Nelson and Reavis, 1976-1978, Sergiovanni, 1976).

Even though collaboration is inherent in the support teacher's job-description, the teachers' responses indicated that a probable lock-step, ritualistic, matter-of-fact approach was prevalent (Blumberg, 1976). In the areas of collaborating on teaching techniques and planning and implementing demonstration lessons, there was wide disagreement. Within the family of comparisons, the support teachers perceived the fostering of democratic, collaborative relationships to greater degree than did teachers. These results were expected given the support teachers' job descriptions. The study results served to confirm the notion that the support teachers perceived

themselves as performing the tasks they were hired to perform.

Research Question 2

Does the support teacher impart strategies which effectively improve the instructional program?

Teachers and support teachers agreed, on average, that the support teacher imparted strategies which effectively improved the instructional program. The degree of agreement varied among the support teachers' and teachers' responses. Teachers and support teachers agreed that giving and receiving feedback has effectively improved the instructional program, as was conferring with one another. This suggests that a healthy rapport exists among the teachers and support teachers in a give-and-take atmosphere which is conducive to objective consideration of educational theories and practices as they relate to problems of the day and the school (Rosenholtz, 1985).

However, in the area of planning and record-keeping, there was evidence of the support teachers' probable responses to the fulfillment of their job description, and the teachers' responding to the actual receipt of the service. This emphasizes the point that individual teachers need individual attention and support. Planning and record-

keeping are an integral part of the day-to-day routine of a classroom.

The indications were that planning and record-keeping are important to teachers, and warrants more attention from the support teachers. Human support is related to advice, feedback, and assistance. Many teachers experience problems with quantity and quality of assistance from supervisors, administrators, or the custodial staff (Bacharach, Bauer, Shedd, 1986).

Research Question 3

Is ample time allotted for the support of teachers?

The support teacher respondents were aware of the tasks that they were required to perform as per their job description. However, they responded in light of what they actually were able to accomplish, perhaps due to time and location constraints. The teachers and support teachers perceived little time devoted to many of the supervisory endeavors posited in the instrument. However, there were discrepancies noted in the responses when there was reconciliation with responses to other variables which gleaned the same information.

The results indicated a lack of balance among the time devoted to the supervisory tasks which were assessed by the instrument. Imbalance in the following areas was noted:

1. Individual Teacher Conferences
2. Developing Time Management Skills
3. Collaborative Efforts
4. Consultation
5. Strategizing
6. Directing the Instructional Program
7. Planning/Record-Keeping
8. Face-to-Face Communication
9. In Classroom Time and Support Services

Research Question 4

Does the support system model meet the needs of teachers in their individual school situations?

The teachers, who were less likely to perceive the support teachers as improving instruction, evidenced this perception in their 83% positive response to variable B, which related to the helpfulness of support teachers. Conversely, the 97% response of the support teachers was predictable given their job description. Teachers and support teachers perceived pragmatic curriculum as an indicator of a successful support teacher. The indications were that the dissemination of curriculum that was pragmatic and relevant to students was a vehicle for individualizing services to teachers. McBay of the Carnegie Corporation Report, "Education That Works," stated that teachers and

supervisors must be instrumental in the restructuring of the nation's schools and the curriculum in order to meet the needs of the minority youth in large inner city schools.

The teachers and support teachers agreed that the support teachers' being involved in the decision-making process of curriculum development individualized services to teachers. This may be an indication of the teachers' perception of the support teacher as spokesperson for them, since their input into the curriculum decision-making process is quite limited. This indicated a measure of trust among the teachers of the support teacher. In many schools teachers are excluded from the decision-making process, which often fosters dissatisfaction and a feeling of exclusion (Bacherach, Bauer, and Shedd, 1986). The disproportionate response rate of the classroom teachers and the support teachers as regarded the innovations of the support teachers was not surprising. The item called for a self-report response, and to answer negatively would be discrepant with the implicit role of the support teachers. In the area of preparing objectives, the teachers indicated perceptions of individualization of services, however, the support teachers' 70% response may have indicated a more global perspective on the part of the support teachers.

Research Question 5

Is the in-service training effective?

Both teachers and support teachers agreed in their perceptions of the effectiveness of the in-service training. The most perceived agreement centered around the delivery and receipt of feedback, and the delivery and receipt of in-service training.

In fostering collaboration and giving feedback, the supervisor has the responsibility for keeping the productiveness of the teacher uppermost on his/her agenda. Group cohesiveness can be maintained. Pooled resources, division of tasks, alleviation of academic isolation, and sustained motivation can be fostered through commitments of the participants, and the energy created (Fox and Faver, 1984).

A crucial function of instructional supervision is the initiation and support of change for improvement. Change requires leadership and training. It is reasonable to expect the instructional behavior system to be the primary source of leadership for instructional change and improvement. It is also important to maintain and offer continuous support to ongoing programs and people in the form of in-service training.

Research Question 6

Which supervisory behaviors could be dismissed as being ineffective?

Wiles and Lovell (1979) developed a concept of two kinds of positions for the supervisory staff. The position of coordinator was considered appropriate when there was a program to be managed. The position of consultant was used for those individuals whose primary responsibility was to provide support, help, and service to teachers and other instructional leaders. Puckett (1963) found that teachers desired more help from supervisors in the form of classroom visits, constructive criticism, and assistance in the use and delivery of materials. Colbert (1965) deduced that effective supervisory behavior transpired when teachers were assisted with teaching through the demonstration of teaching techniques and through the receipt of constructive criticism.

The teachers and support teachers in the study indicated they would not want to terminate the support teachers' practice of informally observing lessons. Both groups perceived information observations as a viable support service.

The respondents indicated disagreement on the subject of the support teachers teaching slow-learning students.

The support teachers perceived the teaching of slow-learning students as a service which should be dismissed. Whereas, the teachers perceived the service as one which they found beneficial to them. The 83% or 29% of teachers who dissented perceived a need to dismiss the service. It is probable that the larger majority of teachers who assented, welcomed the supplemental instruction, or the "pulling out" of the slower-moving groups of students.

The teachers evidenced a split in their perception of receiving support/supervision. In contrast, a majority of the support teachers perceived the delivery of support/supervision. It was not noted whether there was a distinction made between support and supervision. Carlton (1971) reported that teachers and principals perceived the actual role of supervisors as assisting with the development of programs for federal funding, administrative duties, formulation of policy, in-service training, text book selection, curriculum development, and coordination of the instructional program. Although many persons perceive evaluation as a part of the supervision process, teachers do not. This is a task about which considerable disagreement is generated.

Teachers desire supportive non-threatening services which are directly related to the improvement of their

classroom performance. There are indications that teachers may not perceive that they are getting the services that they need.

Research Question 7

Would you modify the present support system model?

Teacher isolation results in a fragmented instructional program. Quite often, isolation is the reason that many schools show little or no improvement (Rosenholtz, 1984) (Glickman, 1984-1985). Adherence to a lock-stop mode of supervision, with little or no room for fostering creativity can produce the same effect. Change is an important function of instructional supervision. Changes in objectives, time lines, programs, techniques, and instruction should be emphasized as desired outcomes of effective supervision. Change requires leadership. It is reasonable to expect the instructional behavior system to be the primary source of the leadership, the change agents, who foster improved teacher performance.

In light of the above, this writer found it noteworthy that both teachers and support teachers perceived that they would not modify the time lines. Teachers have long decried that their creativity has been stifled due to close adherence to time lines. However, 53% of the respondents perceived that they would not modify them. This may be due

to the fact that teachers have become accustomed to using them as guidelines, after having used them for approximately 4 years. The responses may also reflect teachers' resistance to changing something with which they have become comfortable.

Both groups agreed in their perception of the support teacher providing services to teachers of too many schools. However, support teachers perceived this to a greater extent than did the teachers. This may be due to the fact that support teachers provide support services to at least three schools monthly, which may result in their provision of fragmented, inconsistent services to teachers of those schools.

Both teachers and support teachers evidenced agreement that the support teachers should not engage in clerical and administrative tasks. Time spent on such tasks is time that is not spent in the direct support of teachers, Oliva (1976) stressed the importance of supervision being used as a service to teachers to help them in their efforts to improve instruction. Blumberg (1974) indicated that supervision was essentially the process of giving and receiving help to improve performance or to resolve a problem that has occurred between teacher and students. Harris (1977)

indicated that the improvement of instruction is the basis for instructional supervision.

Research Question 8

Should each teacher, or groups of teachers, evaluate the support teachers?

Teachers and support teacher agreed in their perceptions that the school principal should not be the sole evaluator of the support teacher. The indications were that the principal was to be a part. Teachers know the tasks that the support teacher is actually performing and they could participate as teacher-evaluators. Many teachers may have responded in light of their actually not being involved in various decision-making tasks. Teachers and support teachers did not perceive that the teachers' evaluation could facilitate accountability to teachers. However, 74% of the teachers perceived that their evaluation of the support teachers could provide constructive criticism and important feedback to teachers. Nearly half of the support teachers perceived disagreement to the above.

Input in the form of evaluations of the support teachers by each teacher or by groups of teachers could improve the delivery of services provided by support teachers. Direct support and assistance would be noted and used in the process.

Research Question 9

How many support teachers should be assigned to a school and where should the person/persons be based?

If support teachers are to directly support teachers and individualize their services to them, then provisions should be made to align them more regularly to schools. It appears that support teachers, as opposed to teachers perceive the rectifying of the situation through basing the triad support team in one school. More than half of the teacher-respondents perceived that no support teacher should be based in a school on any basis. This may indicate that teachers are satisfied with the bi-weekly visits of the support team, or are reluctant to change.

Conclusions and Implications

The value of a study such as this is determined by the impact it may have in the area of support and supervisory models utilized in the public school systems. As supervisors/support persons interact with elementary school teachers throughout the country, that impact should be large. However, the intent of this study was to shed light on the triad support teachers supervisory model which is used in the Baltimore City Public School System, for this reason, this section will focus entirely upon that aspect.

A main implication is that there are major principles and characteristics of school supervision to which supervisors should adhere if the full potentialities of individuals and the school organization are to be realized, and then translated into the most effective learning experiences for students (Lucia, 1976).

Information is power. Utilizing the information obtained in this study, supervisory personnel can select the relevant information pertinent for his/her individual situation. An awareness of the opinion of others in the field and classroom teachers, should enable the supervisors/support teachers to provide more effective leadership and to promote improved instructional programs. This may well affect the status quo in the interactive relationships between the supervisory staff and the classroom teachers. The ensuing dialogue regarding this process will, one hopes, result in a critical appraisal of the supervisory practices in large metropolitan school systems.

Another implication of this study relates to the improvement of the instructional program. Supervisory behavior at its best can be among the most complex and demanding forms of educational leadership. The improvement of teaching through supervision poses problems that involve

fundamental changes in the individual teacher, and changes in the organizational context within the staff works. When supervisory endeavors involve long-range objectives and many people, the need for leadership that can stimulate and guide a complex set of changes is essential. Perhaps nothing challenges the supervisor more than those programs which seek fundamental changes which invariably generate resistance. Change engineering has become an important way of thinking about supervision in the fostering of improved instructional programs (Alfonso, Firth, and Neville, 1984-85).

A fourth implication deals with the importance of fostering democratic, collaborative relationships for the purpose of improving teaching and promoting student achievement. In light of this, supervision must be essentially oriented to changing teaching in ways that are perceived as improving. The effectiveness of this study in this instance is open to question. Many of the programs directed toward instructional change appear to be unrealistic about both the nature and the magnitude of the undertaking. Much emphasis is being given to the new curriculum writing, materials and activity development, and the retraining of classroom teachers in both subject matter and teaching methods. The results from many of these

instructional change efforts appear to be limited or disappointing. The establishment and maintenance of satisfactory human relations among all staff members is primary. The ultimate worth of each individual must be basic in the philosophy of a school system and its supervisory staff. The supervisory program will succeed only to the extent that each person involved is perceived as having a unique contribution to make in the educative process. Individuals should be included in basic policy planning, in studies of the instructional program, and in all fundamental changes which affect them or their position directly.

A fifth implication addresses time allotted to supervisory tasks. The support teachers are aware of their supervisory roles but are often short of the time needed to accomplish the various tasks. In the matter of time, individual support teachers must make basic decisions in the interest of improving instruction. In-service to teachers is more important than pursuing administrative duties or assuming cafeteria duty. Pursuit of supervisory tasks should take precedence over all others. Supervision of teachers is a serious matter. It must be considered important. Running analysis of the time spent on various

activities on a weekly basis would be sound practice (Bacharach, Bauer, Shedd, 1986).

A sixth implication deals with in-service training. This task is a very important one as regards the classroom teachers and the support teachers. It was seen as essential to the process of improving instruction. It is a uniquely human process which seeks to improve instruction by changing the performance of people. In-service education is distinctive in its exclusive concern for the way people perform in relation to the instruction program. Other curriculum and materials development tasks are concerned with things that guide or facilitate instruction-related performance. This study did not maintain a distinction operationally. People and things were interrelated. However, for clarity of thought and the enhancement of planning, in-service training was conceived as a task having as its purpose the changing of behavior of personnel in ways to improve instruction.

Another implication gleaned from the study is the fact that many of the changes perceived as needed to improve the model deal with ameliorating supervisory tasks which do not relate directly to the support of the teachers. The study adds substantially to the evidence available from varied and sundry sources that urges supervisory to become responsible

for developing supervisory programs that are individualized. Supervisory personnel need to know their teachers well and not assume that they all have the same entry-level skills or abilities (McBay, 1990).

Another important implication deals with the evaluation of the supervisory staff. The support teachers agreed that the classroom teachers should assist in the evaluation of the supervisory staff. However, the classroom teachers did not agree that they should evaluate the supervisory staff, although they reported that their attitudes would not interfere with a fair evaluation of the support staff. The study indicates a conflict. This may mean that the classroom teachers perceive that any input from them would be unacceptable by the administrative staff. The support staff, however, evidenced a sense of security in seeking the classroom teachers input. The respondents were all from the same city, and this might be a city-wide phenomenon. However, these findings should not be taken lightly.

This study indicated that support teachers, as opposed to classroom teachers were of the opinion that a triad (three support teachers) should be based in every elementary school. However, the classroom teachers' opinions reflected that they preferred that the support teachers not be based in the schools. However, a staff needs to be just large

enough to effectively educate the students. However, the myriad tasks of supervisory personnel appear never to be completely done. One cannot determine when it has been done well. Judging the adequacy of the supervisory staff is an uncertain process. Guidelines provided in terms of tasks to be accomplished, existing practices, and perceived inadequacies need to be followed. Financial resources and the availability of qualified personnel will influence the size and location of the support teachers.

Recommendations for Further Study

This study has examined the triad model of supervision used in the Baltimore City Public School System to support elementary school teachers. The results are based upon descriptive data of the collaborative efforts between support teachers and classroom teachers, strategies for improving instruction, time allotted to the support of teachers, individualization of support services, in-service training, ineffective supervisory behaviors, modifications to the model, evaluation of the support staff, and the number and base location of the support teachers. It is now important that a school-by-school or district-by-district study be made entailing detailed description of selected persons from the various schools subgroups.

Since the data indicate many inconsistencies in responses, especially among the classroom teachers regarding what connotes support and what is actually being provided, a study to determine the behaviors which foster interpersonal relationships within which effective supervision can occur should be undertaken.

In addition, since the styles and approaches of the support teachers are varied and impact upon their delivery of services to classroom teachers, a study should be undertaken to determine which style effects improved instruction.

In light of the number of different models of supervision which can be utilized, a study should be undertaken to determine teacher/support teacher preference of the model which will foster improved instruction.

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Appendix A

Letter to Participants

Dear Colleague:

The attached opinionnaire concerned with the effectiveness of the support system triad model is part of a study which is investigating teachers' and support teachers' perceptions of the model and how to improve it. The study is specifically concerned with determining the status of the triad model as it is currently operating within our elementary schools. The result of the study will help provide this investigator with information pertinent to the improvement of the support system and thus the services provided to teachers and students.

We are particularly desirous of obtaining your responses because your experience and interaction with support teachers will contribute significantly toward solving some of the problems we face in this important area of education.

The enclosed opinionnaire has been tested with a sampling of classroom teachers and support teachers. It has been revised in order to make it possible to obtain all necessary data while requiring a minimum of your time. When the opinionnaire was piloted, the average time required for

the teachers and support teachers to complete it was approximately nine (9) minutes.

It will be appreciated if you will complete the opinionnaire prior to June 16, 1987, and return it in the stamped self-addressed envelope enclosed. Other phases of this study cannot be carried out until I complete an analysis of the opinionnaire data. All suggestions of comments that you may have concerning any aspect of the support system triad model not covered in this opinionnaire are welcome.

I will be pleased to send you a summary of the opinionnaire results if you so desire.

Your anonymity is assured.

Thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Patricia Hall

Appendix B

Opinionnaire

Perception of the Effectiveness of the Triad Support System Conceptual Model, as Perceived by Elementary School Teachers and Elementary Support Teachers.

This opinionnaire has been prepared so that you can indicate your perceptions of how effective the procedures for teacher support have been; and whether or not you feel the instructional program has been improved as a result of the implementation of this model.

In completing the opinionnaire, please follow these directions.

1. Carefully read each question.
2. Answer yes or no to each question.
3. Several questions require you to circle the response.
4. Consider each item independently.
5. Refold the opinionnaire and insert it in the self-addressed envelope. Please return it by May 27, 1987.

1. How many years have you taught public school?
 1. 1 to 6 years
 2. 7 to 12 years
 3. 13 to 18 years
 4. 19 to 23 years
 5. 24 to 30 years
 6. 30 or more years
 7. no response
2. Have you taught pre-kindergarten?
yes no
3. Have you taught kindergarten?
yes no

4. Have you taught first grade?
yes no
5. Have you taught grade two?
yes no
6. Have you taught grade three?
yes no
7. Have you taught grade four?
yes no
8. Have you taught grade five?
yes no
9. Have you taught grade six?
yes no
10. Have you taught above grade six?
yes no
11. What subjects do you support/teach now?
1. pre-kng to 2 all
2. 3 to 6 math science social
3. 3 to 6 reading language art
4. Special Education
12. Are you pleased with the present support system?
yes no
13. Is the support teacher helpful to teachers?
yes no
14. Is the support teacher innovative?
yes no
15. Does the support teacher give guidance?
yes no
16. Does the support teacher save time in gathering materials?
yes no
17. Does the support teacher relate new curriculum?
yes no
18. does the support teacher annoy teachers?
yes no
19. Is the support teacher intrusive?
yes no
20. Does the support teacher give teachers ample time?
yes no
21. Are there two few support teachers?
yes no
22. Is the support teacher a liaison between school and central office?
yes no
23. Does the support teacher cover too many schools?
yes no
24. Are you involved in decision-making?
yes no

25. Should one support teacher be based in your school?
yes no
26. Should the triad team be based in your school?
yes no
27. If based in school, could you give/get more help?
yes no
28. Should support teacher assist beginning teachers only?
yes no
29. Are support services consistent?
yes no
30. Do you collaborate closely on projects?
yes no
31. Do you make/receive unannounced visits?
yes no
32. Is communication effective?
yes no
33. Do you give/receive on-going feedback?
yes no
34. Do you have more work to do with teachers/support teachers?
yes no
35. Do Teachers need support teachers?
yes no
36. Are you tenured?
yes no
37. Are you probationary?
yes no
38. Are you provisional?
yes no
39. Do support teachers improve instruction?
yes no
40. Do you teach children?
yes no
41. Do you give/get in-service training?
yes no
42. Does the support teacher strategize for teachers?
yes no
43. Does the support teacher coordinate curriculum?
yes no
44. Do you give/get help in planning and recordkeeping?
yes no
45. Does the support teacher demonstrate lessons?
yes no
46. Does the support teacher informally observe lessons?
yes no
47. Does the support teacher create a literate environment?
yes no

48. Does the support teacher confer with teachers?
yes no
49. Does the support teacher do scheduling?
yes no
50. Does the support teacher hold parent meetings?
yes no
51. Does the support teacher test children?
yes no
52. Do you give/receive support service?
yes no
53. Is improving instruction a support service?
yes no
54. Is teaching slow-learning a support service?
yes no
55. Is providing in-service training a support service?
yes no
56. Is demonstrating new strategies a support service?
yes no
57. Is coordinating curriculum development a support service?
yes no
58. Is assisting with planning and recordkeeping a service?
yes no
59. Is gathering books and materials a support service?
yes no
60. Is working collaboratively with teachers a support service?
yes no
61. Is demonstrating lessons a support service?
yes no
62. Is observing lessons a support service?
yes no
63. Is monitoring the instructional program a support service?
yes no
64. Is establishing a literate environment a support service?
yes no
65. Are pre/post conferences support services?
yes no
66. Are test coordinator and testing children support services?
yes no
67. Is scheduling a support service?
yes no
68. Is coordinating parent involvement a support service?
yes no

69. Do you give/receive support/supervision?
 yes no
70. Does the support teacher observe teachers formally?
 yes no
71. Does the support teacher hold pre/post conferences with
 teachers?
 yes no
72. Does the support teacher foster democratic interaction?
 yes no
73. Does the support teacher evaluate teachers?
 yes no
74. Do you give/receive feedback?
 yes no
75. Does the support teacher monitor teachers progress?
 yes no
76. Do teachers trust support teachers?
 yes no
77. What percentage of time should be devoted to improving
 instruction?
 1. 0-5%
 2. 10-15%
 3. 20-25%
 4. 30-35%
 5. 40-45%
 6. 50-55%
 7. 60-65%
 8. 70-75%
 9. 80-85%
 10. 90-95%
 11. 95-100%
78. Does the support teacher assist in making a literate
 environment?
 yes no
79. What percentage of time should be devoted to
 disseminate curriculum?
 1. 0-5%
 2. 10-15%
 3. 20-25%
 4. 30-35%
 5. 40-45%
 6. 50-55%
 7. 60-65%
 8. 70-75%
 9. 80-85%
 10. 90-95%
 11. 95-100%

80. what percentage of time should be devoted to model-teaching?

1. 0-5%
2. 10-15%
3. 20-25%
4. 30-35%
5. 40-45%
6. 50-55%
7. 60-65%
8. 70-75%
9. 80-85%
10. 90-95%
11. 95-100%

81. What percentage of time should be devoted to reviewing plans?

1. 0-5%
2. 10-15%
3. 20-25%
4. 30-35%
5. 40-45%
6. 50-55%
7. 60-65%
8. 70-75%
9. 80-85%
10. 90-95%
11. 95-100%

82. What percentage of time should be devoted to reviewing records?

1. 0-5%
2. 10-15%
3. 20-25%
4. 30-35%
5. 40-45%
6. 50-55%
7. 60-65%
8. 70-75%
9. 80-85%
10. 90-95%
11. 95-100%

83. What percentage of time should be devoted to time management?

1. 0-5%
2. 10-15%
3. 20-25%
4. 30-35%
5. 40-45%
6. 50-55%
7. 60-65%

- 8. 70-75%
- 9. 80-85%
- 10. 90-95%
- 11. 95-100%

84. What percentage of time should be devoted to helping and inspiring teachers?

- 1. 0-5%
- 2. 10-15%
- 3. 20-25%
- 4. 30-35%
- 5. 40-45%
- 6. 50-55%
- 7. 60-65%
- 8. 70-75%
- 9. 80-85%
- 10. 90-95%
- 11. 95-100%

85. What percent of time should be devoted to insuring curriculum implementation?

- 1. 0-5%
- 2. 10-15%
- 3. 20-25%
- 4. 30-35%
- 5. 40-45%
- 6. 50-55%
- 7. 60-65%
- 8. 70-75%
- 9. 80-85%
- 10. 90-95%
- 11. 95-100%

86. What percent of time should be devoted in recommending strategies about teaching?

- 1. 0-5%
- 2. 10-15%
- 3. 20-25%
- 4. 30-35%
- 5. 40-45%
- 6. 50-55%
- 7. 60-65%
- 8. 70-75%
- 9. 80-85%
- 10. 90-95%
- 11. 95-100%

87. What percent of time should be devoted to directing the instructional program?

- 1. 0-5%
- 2. 10-15%
- 3. 20-25%

4. 30-35%
5. 40-45%
6. 50-55%
7. 60-65%
8. 70-75%
9. 80-85%
10. 90-95%
11. 95-100%

88. What percent of time should be devoted to developing curriculum?

1. 0-5%
2. 10-15%
3. 20-25%
4. 30-35%
5. 40-45%
6. 50-55%
7. 60-65%
8. 70-75%
9. 80-85%
10. 90-95%
11. 95-100%

89. What percent of time should be devoted to help instruct teachers?

1. 0-5%
2. 10-15%
3. 20-25%
4. 30-35%
5. 40-45%
6. 50-55%
7. 60-65%
8. 70-75%
9. 80-85%
10. 90-95%
11. 95-100%

90. What percent of time should be devoted to consulting and facilitating for teachers?

1. 0-5%
2. 10-15%
3. 20-25%
4. 30-35%
5. 40-45%
6. 50-55%
7. 60-65%
8. 70-75%
9. 80-85%
10. 90-95%
11. 95-100%

91. What percent of time should be devoted to collaborating with teachers?
1. 0-5%
 2. 10-15%
 3. 20-25%
 4. 30-35%
 5. 40-45%
 6. 50-55%
 7. 60-65%
 8. 70-75%
 9. 80-85%
 10. 90-95%
 11. 95-100%
92. Should support teachers evaluate teachers?
yes no
93. Should support teachers assume administrative duties?
yes no
94. Should support teachers teach slow learners?
yes no
95. Should support teachers assume cafeteria duty?
yes no
96. Should support teachers volunteer for other tasks?
yes no
97. Is improving instruction important?
yes no
1. 0-5%
 2. 10-15%
 3. 20-25%
 4. 30-35%
 5. 40-45%
 6. 50-55%
 7. 60-65%
 8. 70-75%
 9. 80-85%
 10. 90-95%
 11. 95-100%
98. Is improving student achievement important?
yes no
99. Is the support teacher's teaching slow-learners important?
yes no
100. Is collaborating with beginning teachers important?
yes no
101. Is holding irrelevant meetings important?
yes no
102. Is inventorying books and materials important?
yes no

103. Is coordinating parents meetings important?
 yes no
104. Should support teachers collaborate closely with
 teachers?
 yes no
105. Should support teachers cooperatively plan with
 teachers?
 yes no
106. Should support teachers monitor teachers' progress?
 yes no
107. Should support teachers take children on trips?
 yes no
108. Should the support teacher coordinate contests and
 fairs?
 yes no
109. Should the support teacher decorate halls or
 auditorium?
 yes no
110. Should support teachers hold classes?
 yes no
111. Should support teachers informally/formally observe
 teachers?
 yes no
112. Should support teachers give ample time to teachers?
 yes no
113. Should support teachers be liaison between school and
 central office?
 yes no
114. Should support teacher do redundant clerical work?
 yes no
115. Should support teachers be test coordinators?
 yes no
116. Do support teachers collaborate with teachers on
 projects?
 yes no
117. Do support teachers collaborate with teachers on
 special projects?
 yes no
118. Does the support teacher collaborate and plan science
 experiments?
 yes no
119. Does the support teacher collaborate on teaching
 techniques?
 yes no
120. Does the support teacher collaboratively plan and
 implement behavior modification programs?
 yes no

121. Does the support teacher collaboratively plan and implement time lines?
 yes no
122. Does the support teacher collaboratively plan, demonstrate and implement lessons?
 yes no
123. Does the support teacher collaboratively choose behavior objectives?
 yes no
124. Does the support teacher collaboratively choose units of study?
 yes no
125. Does the support teacher collaborate for constructing a literate environment?
 yes no
126. Does the support teacher collaboratively choose texts and materials?
 yes no
127. Does the support teacher collaborate with teachers at all?
 yes no
128. Is commitment to organize a predictor of a successful support teacher?
 yes no
129. Is management and planning daily lessons a predictor of a successful support teacher?
 yes no
130. Is motivating students a predictor of a successful support teacher?
 yes no
131. Is ten months achievement a predictor of a successful support teacher?
 yes no
132. Is monitoring students' achievement a predictor of a successful support teacher?
 yes no
133. Is awareness of students needs a predictor of a successful teacher?
 yes no
134. Is individualizing instruction a predictor of a successful support teacher?
 yes no
135. Is preparing objectives a predictor of a successful support teacher?
 yes no
136. Is preparing lessons a predictor of a successful teacher?
 yes no

137. Is time management a predictor of a successful support teacher?
 yes no
138. Is knowledge of subjects a predictor of a successful teacher?
 yes no
139. Is knowledge of subjects a predictor of a successful teacher?
 yes no
140. Is rapport with students a predictor of a successful support teacher?
 yes no
141. Is attention to students' needs a predictor of a successful support teacher?
 yes no
142. Is knowing curriculum content a predictor of a successful support teacher?
 yes no
143. Is choosing objectives a predictor of a successful support teacher?
 yes no
144. Is pragmatic curriculum a predictor of a successful support teacher?
 yes no
145. Is teacher training in the implementation of curriculum a predictor of a successful support teacher?
 yes no
146. Is adhering to curriculum a predictor of a successful support teacher?
 yes no
147. Is ability to use materials and equipment a predictor of a successful support teacher?
 yes no
148. Is support teacher participation in decision-making a predictor of curriculum?
 yes no
149. Is rapport with students a predictor of a successful support teacher?
 yes no
150. Is attention to students needs a predictor of a successful curriculum?
 yes no
151. Is knowing curriculum content a predictor of a successful curriculum?
 yes no
152. is choosing objectives a predictor of a successful curriculum?
 yes no

153. Is curriculum that is relevant to society a predictor of successful curriculum?
 yes no
154. Is the support teacher implementation of the curriculum a predictor of a successful curriculum?
 yes no
155. Is curriculum content a predictor of a successful curriculum?
 yes no
156. Is access to material a predictor of successful curriculum?
 yes no
157. Is teachers participation a predictor of successful curriculum?
 yes no
158. Is support teacher participation a predictor of successful curriculum?
 yes no
159. Is support teacher making decisions a predictor of successful curriculum?
 yes no
160. Is hiring more staff a predictor of successful curriculum?
 yes no
161. Is developing sound curriculum a predictor of successful curriculum?
 yes no
162. Is pleasing the community a predictor of a successful curriculum?
 yes no
163. Is reasonable time frame a predictor of a successful curriculum?
 yes no
164. Would you recommend basing one support teacher in each school for improvement of instruction?
 yes no
165. Would you recommend that support teachers give more time to teachers?
 yes no
166. Would you recommend that support teachers do less clerical work?
 yes no
167. Would you recommend that support teachers do no administrative work?
 yes no
168. Would you recommend that support teachers do less clerical work?
 yes no

169. Would you recommend one support teacher per school for two years?
 yes no
170. Should the support teacher teach slow-learners?
 yes no
171. Would you recommend negotiating clerical support for the support teacher?
 yes no
172. Would you recommend more democratic interaction?
 yes no
173. Would you hire more support teachers?
 yes no
174. Would you assign three support teachers to a level three school?
 yes no
175. Would you assign two support teachers for two years?
 yes no
176. I would make no recommendations?
 yes no
177. Should teachers evaluate support teachers?
 yes no
178. Can teachers' evaluations help support teachers improve themselves?
 yes no
179. Can teachers' evaluation supply important feedback to support teachers?
 yes no
180. Can teachers' evaluations supply constructive criticism to support teachers?
 yes no
181. Can teachers' evaluation assist the administrator in evaluating support teachers?
 yes no
182. Can teachers' evaluation facilitate accountability for support teachers?
 yes no
183. Do teachers have access to universal information about support teachers?
 yes no
184. Would teachers' attitudes hamper fair evaluation of support teachers?
 yes no
185. Should criteria be established to assist teacher in evaluating support teachers?
 yes no
186. Should the support teachers' supervisor be the only evaluator?
 yes no

187. Should the principal evaluate the support teachers only?
 yes no
188. Would you modify the present support system?
 yes no
189. Would you assign strong support teachers to low-achieving schools?
 yes no
190. Would you insure the use of democratic interaction?
 yes no
191. Would you want support teachers to teach slow-learners?
 yes no
192. Would you modify time lines?
 yes no
193. Would you hire more staff?
 yes no
194. Would you provide support teachers with consultants?
 yes no
195. Would you base two support teachers per school?
 yes no
196. Would you abolish the time lines?
 yes no
197. Would you provide for more individualized support services per school?
 yes no
198. Would you foster creativity?
 yes no
199. Would you want support teachers on call?
 yes no
200. I would make no modification?
 yes no
201. What is your age?
 1 = 20 to 25
 2 = 26 to 31
 3 = 32 to 37
 4 = 38 to 44
 5 = 45 to 51
 6 = 52 to 57
 7 = 58 to 63
 8 = 64 and above
 9 = n.r.
202. What is your sex?
 1 = male
 2 = female
203. What is your job title?
 1 = Teacher
 2 = Support Teacher

ECIA CHAPTER I/SCE - PUBLIC - ELEMENTARY

JOB DESCRIPTION

ELEMENTARY EDUCATION DIVISION - SUPPORT TEACHER

I. FUNCTION

Under the direction of the curriculum supervisor and in cooperation with the Elementary Education Division educational specialists, assists teachers of children at the assigned schools in the implementation of the instruction program.

II. DUTIES

- Plans and develops strategies for classroom teachers to raise the achievement levels of students.
- Plans cooperatively with teachers and other appropriate personnel in all matters pertaining to the curriculum.
- Works with individual and/or teams of teachers at the assigned schools to:
 - Plan and schedule the daily program
 - Demonstrate procedures to improve instruction techniques
 - Teach small groups of students in the classroom in order to increase teacher competency
 - Diagnose needs of students
 - Gather appropriate commercial materials and prepare instructional materials for students
 - Train teachers in recordkeeping
 - Assist in establishing appropriate learning environments
 - Provide remedial and enrichment instruction to designated students
 - Assist with the coordination of schoolwide activities such as:

-Dramatic Reading Festival	-Science Fair
-Math Bee	-Language Fair
- Assists parents, teachers and Home-School-Community staff in developing an effective parent involvement component.

- Assists in promoting positive relationships in schools.
- Plans and conducts, staff development sessions for teachers and other instructional personnel.
- Assists the Elementary Education Division staff in revising the curriculum.
- Monitors the adjustment and achievement of students in the individual school classes designated for support services.
- Provides feedback to the principal of his/her assigned school(s) and Elementary Education Division staff.
- Maintains records necessary for establishing the accountability of staff.

VITA

PATRICIA HOLMES HALL
1224 N. Bentalou Street
Baltimore, Maryland 21216

Personal Data:

Date of Birth	October 18, 1935
Place of Birth	Baltimore, Maryland

Education:

Ed.D. (candidate)	Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University Blacksburg, Virginia Major: Curriculum and Instruction Minor: Family Life and Child Development
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M.A.	Loyola College at Baltimore Baltimore, Maryland Major: Education Cognate: Specific Learning Disabilities and Reading
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B.A.	Coppin State College Baltimore, Maryland Major: Elementary Education Minor: Early Childhood Education
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Experience:

1980-Present	Support Teacher/Master Teacher Chapter I Facilitator Baltimore Public Schools
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1975-1980	Educational Specialist Special Education Baltimore Public Schools
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1970-1974	Senior Teacher Edgewood Elementary Baltimore Public Schools
1968-1970	Specific Learning Disabilities Resource Teacher Edgewood Elementary Baltimore Public Schools
1959--1967	Taught Elementary Grades Kindergarten to grade 6 Baltimore Public Schools

Professional Organizations:

- Public School Teachers Association
- Orton Society
- Delta Sigma Theta
- Baltimore Teachers Union
- Parent Teachers Organization, #36