

Council of Professors of Instructional Supervision

Annual Meeting 2005

October 28-30

Athens, Georgia

“Reflections of the Past, Visions for the Future”



hosted by:

The University of Georgia

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

At the Georgia Center for Continuing Education

Welcome Message from Zach Kelehear, COPIS President

It is an honor and a pleasure to welcome you to the 2005 Fall Conference of the Council of Professors of Instructional Supervision. Drawing on the important traditions of 30 years, COPIS is especially delighted to return to the University of Georgia. When we consider the intersection of many COPIS members with the University of Georgia, it seems especially fitting that we return to Athens to consider our conference theme: "Reflections of the Past; Visions for the Future."

On behalf of the entire organization, I want to give special thanks to Sally Zepeda from UGA who has served loyally and tirelessly as our Conference Chair. Helen Hazi from West Virginia also deserves a note of thanks as she adroitly guided the process of proposal submissions and reviews. Thank you to Ed Pajak from Johns Hopkins for managing the Blumberg Scholarship submissions and selections. And finally, thank you to Daisy Arredondo Rucinski, R. Stewart Mayers, Susan Sullivan, Jim Kahrs, and Sheila Kahrs for the important work you did with Sally in pulling this program together.

I am glad you have joined us in Athens for conversations about instructional supervision. By taking time to listen to our collective stories, we at once celebrate our history as an organization, while we begin to get a glimpse of future directions. Can there be any higher compliment that we pay each other than to attend to our stories? I think not. So, relax, have another cup of coffee, and join the COPIS family as we continue to draw on our history in considering our future.

Sincerely,

Zach

An Invitation ...

Remembering my first COPIS meeting with my mentor Noreen Garman in 1981 in Pittsburgh, I was in awe of the many established supervision scholars, “young turks,” “divas,” and “newbies” of the day. And in my early years in COPIS, I would try out ideas, knowing that I would receive the support and questioning in a safe harbor where they could be nurtured until seaworthy.

I was reading recently *An Island Out of Time: A Memoir of Smith Island in the Chesapeake* by Tom Horton, who writes about how its islanders walk or “prog” along the water’s edge in search of treasure brought in by the tides. Propping is “to poke at a hole or log; forage, prowl, wander about” (p. 68) and to “[s]top and squat by water’s edge, like some shaman divining the future; to gaze and dream, in guileless propitiation of some inarticulate bond here between islander and island” (p. 67). I like to think that COPIS is about propping for those ideas that are both familiar and new that help us think (and re-think) about the field of supervision.

We invite you to let this document be your estuary into some of the best of COPIS and to prog in search of seeds, driftwood, flotsam and treasure brought in on the current, unearthed from the past, or washed ashore from a recent storm. Patience and a discerning eye are requisites to the bounty awaiting.

Best wishes in your discoveries,

Helen M. Hazi, Ph.D.
A COPIS “tweener,” between founder and newbie
Professor of Educational Leadership
West Virginia University
2005 COPIS Program Chair

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Sheila Kahrs, Haymon-Morris Middle School, Winder, Georgia
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Helen Hazi
R. Stewart Mayers
Marc Ginsberg

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Zach Kelehear, University of South Carolina
Daisy Arredondo Rucinski, Seattle University
Susan Sullivan, The College of Staten Island, CUNY
Sally J. Zepeda, University of Georgia

COPIS Homepage

www.copis.org

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Conference Overview

The Council of Professors of Instructional Supervision
Fall Conference—2005
The University of Georgia
Georgia Center for Continuing Education

Reflections of the Past, Visions for the Future

Conference Overview

**Friday
October 28, 2005**

6:00-6:30	Reception and cash bar; Registration The University of Georgia Center for Continuing Education	
6:30-9:00	Opening Remarks	Zach Kelehear President COPIS
	Welcome to the University of Georgia	Karen E. Watkins Associate Dean for Research, Technology, and External Affairs— College of Education, University of Georgia
	Dinner	
	Arthur Blumberg Scholarship Awards	Ed Pajak Arthur Blumberg Scholarship Award Chair
	Keynote Speaker	Introduction: Sally Zepeda, COPIS 2005 Conference Chair

Karen E. Watkins

*Sculpting the Learning Organization: Lessons in the
Art and Science of Systemic Change*

Closing Comments	
Burning Questions for the Weekend	Zach Kelehear

Shuttle Return to the Holiday Inn Express

**Saturday
October 29, 2005**

- 7:00 a.m. Shuttle from the Holiday Inn Express to the University of Georgia Center for Continuing Education
- 7:15-8:00 Breakfast
- 8:15-9:10: A Conversation with Noreen B. Garman, JoVictoria Nicholson-Goodman, and John Smyth
- 9:20-10:35: A Conversation with Joyce Killian, Diane Yendol-Hoppey, and Jennifer Jacobs
- 10:35-10:45 Refreshment Break – 2nd Floor Concourse
- 10:45-11:45: A Conversation with Duncan Waite, Jeffrey Glanz, and Jose Acosta-Ramos
- 12-1:00 Lunch and Conversation as Critical Friends with Carl Glickman
- 1:00-1:15 Reflections on the Morning by R. Stewart Mayers and Kelly Causey
- 1:20-2:35 A Conversation with Helen M. Hazi & Daisy Arredondo Rucinski, Brenda Schulz, and Susan Sullivan
- 2:45-3:30 A Conversation with Aisha Wood-Jackson and Angela Gregory
- 3:30 – 3:45 Refreshment Break – 2nd Floor Concourse
- 3:45-4:00 Reflections on the Day by Patricia E. Holland and Brenda Schulz
- 4:10 Shuttle Return to the Holiday Inn Express
- 6:45 Shuttle to Dinner at Trumps of Athens
- 9:00 Shuttle returns to the Holiday Inn Express

**Sunday
October 30, 2005
Agenda**

- 7:00 a.m. Shuttle from the Holiday Inn Express to the University of Georgia Center for Continuing Education
- 7:15-8:00 Breakfast
- 8:00-8:30 Reflections on Friday and Saturday
- 8:30-8:45 Steve Gordon: Standards for Instructional Supervision: Initial Proposals from Scholars in the Field, Invitation to All for Continuing Dialogue"
- 8:45-10:15 Dialogue/Discussions Zach Kelehear

Burning Questions for the COPIS Organization

{**Theme:** Is supervision a field of practice, a field of research, or some combination?}

1. Should there be a relationship between ASCD and COPIS?
 - A. If yes, then what is the relationship between ASCD and COPIS?
 1. Should there be a meeting in the spring ASCD Conference?
 2. Are there other ways to sustain and develop the relationship?
 3. Other considerations?
 - B. If no, then should COPIS align with another professional organization?
 1. AERA Supervision SIG?
 2. UCEA?
 3. Should we eliminate the spring meeting?
 4. Other possibilities?
2. If we decide to move away from the ASCD spring conference, how should we proceed regarding a constitutional change?

10:15 – 10:30 Refreshment Break – 2nd Floor Concourse

10:30-11:30 Business Meeting

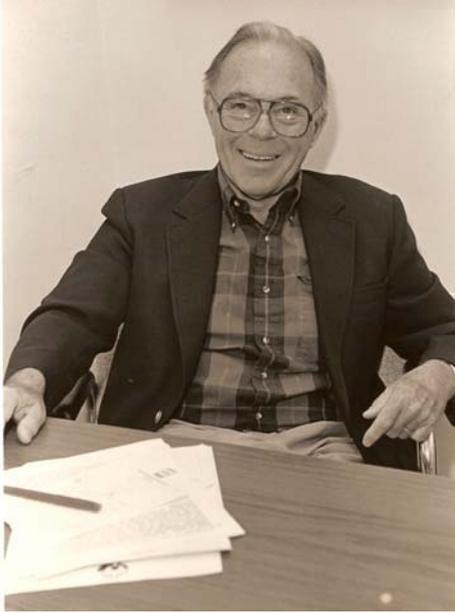
Zach Kelehear, COPIS President,

Karen S. Wetherill, COPIS Secretary/Treasurer,

1. Call to Order
2. Approval of Minutes Karen Wetherill
3. Secretary/Treasurer Report Karen Wetherill
4. Membership Report Susan Sullivan
 - a. Directory updates
 - b. New Members
5. Site Committee Report
6. Nominations Committee
7. Website Update
8. New Business Next Year's Conference
Location

Shuttle Return to the Holiday Inn Express or departure from the Georgia Center for Continuing Education to Hartsfield-Jackson International Airport via Triple A Shuttle.

The History of the Arthur Blumberg Award



Arthur Blumberg mentored a generation of graduate students and authored numerous textbooks in the fields of organizational psychology, school administration and, of course, school supervision. He is a pioneer in the application of group dynamics to school and corporate environments. He published innumerable articles and seven books, including: *The Effective Principal: Perspectives on School Leadership*; *The Unwritten Curriculum: Things Learned But Not Taught in School*; *School Administration as Craft: Foundations of Practice*; *The School Superintendent: Living with Conflict*; *Supervisors and Teachers: A Private Cold War*; *Learning and Change in Groups*; and *Sensitivity Training: Processes, Problems and Applications*.

Arthur Blumberg, c. 1990.

A long-time member of COPIS, who rarely missed one of these annual meetings in the fall, Arthur might best be described as a critical friend who would raise difficult and sometimes uncomfortable questions during our group's free-ranging discussions. He was always careful about the feelings of individuals and took a personal interest in each and every COPIS member. Many people have mentioned to me that they especially remember him for welcoming them to our group when they attended one of our meetings for the very first time.

After his retirement in 1990, Arthur devoted himself to writing, study, and travel, including extended stays in London and Israel. He was passionate about philosophy and Judaic thought. Always eager for stimulating discussion, he was an active member of Torah study groups at Temple Society of Concord in Syracuse. He wrote several essays on contemporary Jewish life, and, together with his wife Phyllis, conducted a study of the experience of Jewish Americans during the second half of the 20th Century. He was devoted to his family, and was happiest when he was able to spend time with his grandchildren and tending his garden.

The *Arthur Blumberg Scholarship* fund was initiated in 2004. The purpose of the fund is to preserve Arthur Blumberg's memory by helping to defray travel costs for doctoral students who present papers at the annual fall COPIS conference. The award recognizes those students whose work most clearly contributes to high quality scholarship in the field of instructional supervision. The award is competitive and no more than three awards will be presented in any single year. A committee of COPIS members that includes the annual meeting program chair is appointed each year by the president of COPIS to select the students who receive the award and also determine the number and size of the stipend that will be awarded.

The recipients of the Arthur Blumberg Scholarship for 2005 are Jennifer Jacobs and Aisha Wood-Jackson. Their major professor is Diane Yendol-Hoppey, who is an assistant professor at the University of Florida. Congratulations to them all!

The 2005 Recipients of the Arthur Blumberg Scholarship Award

Jennifer Jacobs

Jennifer Jacobs is a doctoral student in the School of Teaching and Learning at the University of Florida. Prior to coming to Florida, she attended George Mason University in an innovative, cohort-based masters program entitled *Initiatives in Educational Transformation* as she taught elementary school in Fairfax County, Virginia. Jennifer's education career began at The Pennsylvania State University where she was in the first graduating class of the nationally recognized Professional Development School work currently directed by Jim Nolan. During this early phase of her career, Jennifer engaged in multiple teacher inquiry efforts, presented at national conferences, and engaged in teacher leadership activities. Jennifer's current doctoral work builds on this foundation of experiences by committing to studying the area of supervision for social justice. As a result, she has developed a framework based on the literature and her own action research for intentionally and systematically infusing coaching for social justice into the reflective coaching cycle. Her study explores how to develop supervisors armed with the tools to coach for social justice.

Aisha Wood-Jackson

Aisha Wood-Jackson is a doctoral candidate in the School of Teaching and Learning at the University of Florida, where she also received her Master's Degree. Prior to beginning her graduate studies, She taught first grade in Broward County, Florida. Aisha earned her Bachelor's of Arts in Education, magnum cum laude, at Flagler College in St. Augustine, Florida. Since arriving at the University of Florida, Aisha has led the work of a cohort of doctoral students working in professional development schools, presented at both state and national conferences, infused a programmatic focus on technology integration, and led teachers in professional development around teacher inquiry. Aisha's current research focuses on using the coaching cycle to enhance technology integration with a particular ear toward the types of discourse that occur between the coach and the coached as one infuses new technology based pedagogy into one's daily practice. In addition to her focus on coaching and technology integration, Aisha utilizes a strong critical lens in her research.

Dr. Diane Yendol-Hoppey at the School of Teaching and Learning at the University of Florida serves as the major professor to both Jennifer Jacobs and Aisha Wood-Jackson.

Biographic Sketch of Karen E. Watkins, 2005
COPIS Keynote Speaker

Dr. Karen E. Watkins is the Associate Dean for Research, Technology, and External Affairs and Professor of Human Resource and Organizational Development in the College of Education at The University of Georgia. Previously, Dr. Watkins was an Associate Professor of Educational Administration at The University of Texas at Austin where she directed the graduate program in Adult and Human Resource Development Leadership. Research foci for Dr. Watkins have been in the areas of human resource and organizational development. Watkins is the author or co-author of over 70 articles and chapters, and 6 books. Watkins and Marsick also developed and validated the organizational survey, *Dimensions of the Learning Organization*, which was the focus of a recent issue of *Advances in Developing Human Resources* entitled “Making Learning Count: Demonstrating the Value of A Learning Culture.” She has consulted with numerous businesses and industries. She was voted Scholar of the Year by the Academy of Human Resource Development; served as president of the Academy of Human Resource Development from 1994-1996; was named a distinguished graduate by The University of Texas at Austin, Community College Leadership Program; and was inducted into the International Adult and Continuing Education Hall of Fame in 2003.

COPIS 2005 — Council of Professors of Instructional Supervision
Saturday October 28, 2005

- 8:15-9:10 A Conversation with Noreen B. Garman, JoVictoria Nicholson-Goodman, and John Smyth
- Noreen B. Garman, University of Pittsburgh, and JoVictoria Nicholson-Goodman, The Pennsylvania State University – Harrisburg, *“It’s Research-Based.” A Supervisory Ploy for Controlling the Teacher’s Practice?*
- John Smyth, Roy F. and Joann Cole Mitte Endowed Chair in School Improvement, Texas State University-San Marcos, *New Direction in Supervision? When Teachers Give Students Power Over their Learning*
- 9:20-10:35 A Conversation with Joyce Killian, Diane Yendol-Hoppey, and Jennifer Jacobs
- Joyce Killian, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, *Preparing and Sustaining Exemplary Mentor Teachers for their Roles as Instructional Supervisors*
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- Duncan Waite, Texas State University-San Marcos, *Whither Supervision?*
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- Across the Void: Preparing Thoughtful Educational Leaders for Today’s Schools*

- 1:00-1:15 Reflections on the Morning by R. Stewart Mayers, Southeastern Oklahoma State University, and Kelly Causey, Bibb County Schools, Macon, Georgia
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- Helen M. Hazi, West Virginia University and Daisy Arredondo Rucinski, Seattle University, *Refocusing on the Ritual of Teacher Evaluation: Implications for the Future of Supervision*
- Brenda Schulz, Forsyth County Schools, Cumming, Georgia, *Teacher Professionalism, High-Stakes Environments: Implications for Working with Teachers*
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- Angela Gregory, University of Florida, *Conceptions of Data Driven Instruction: How can teacher inquiry make a difference?*
- 3:45-4:00 Reflections on the Day by Patricia E. Holland, University of Houston, and Brenda Schulz, Forsyth County Schools, Cumming, Georgia.

**Rhetorical Implications of Imposing a *Spectacle-Surveillance* Paradigm on
Knowledge in the Public Interest:
Views of "*It's Research-Based*" in Practitioner Narratives**

Noreen B. Garman, Ph.D.

University of Pittsburgh

and

JoVictoria Nicholson-Goodman, Ph.D.

The Pennsylvania State University - Harrisburg

Introduction

Educational researchers, historically, have struggled to ground their inquiry in science-like methods with the belief that their scientific approaches will not only yield convincing findings, but also will provide legitimacy for their generalizations (Garman, 1999). The issue of generalization is crucial for educational research, yet the science associated with educational research is complex, the languages tricky, and the findings often too partial to warrant firm generalizations (Berliner, 2000). The research reports (especially on classrooms and school sites) are based on inference and deduction and the generalizations tend to be rich in caveats and qualifiers. There is a large gap between what is known from one site and the experiences of another. To administrators and policy makers it might seem that these kinds of discrepancies sow seeds of skepticism--even a distrust of "scientific research."

In reality, the opposite seems to obtain. The No Child Left Behind initiative includes a provision which connects funding to "best practices that are scientifically generated" (No Child Left Behind, 2002). According to *Education Week* (January 30, 2002), the phrase "scientifically based research" appears more than one hundred times in the document. This iffy, imprecise inquiry presents grave new responsibilities for educational researchers. It presumes that such researchers can

make generalizations from one site (context) to another with near infallibility--not only to inform policy and allocate resources, but also to determine the way in which a teacher should practice. In effect it posits a *crystal ball*.

The research/practice claims of legitimacy, however, are not new. For several years practitioners have been challenged to ground their work in what has come to be called "research-based practices." The term has taken on the illusion of infallibility. (Contrast the notion of a practice that is "guided by research," which is perhaps more cumbersome as a reference, but more precise as a descriptor.) Furthermore, the research community has done little to help practitioners understand the ways in which research might guide practice. To proclaim an educational technique or program as research-based is sufficient enough to legitimize it. Thus, "research-based" has found its way to the center of practitioners' vernacular language (Garman, 1986; Hazi & Garman, 1988; Garman & Hazi, 1988).

"Research-based" has not only found its way to the center of practitioners' vernacular language, but also to public vernacular in general, and to a variety of languages prominent in the public domain. Thus the vernacular sense of "research-based" as a validating claim engulfs not just the rhetoric through which public policy and political projects are portrayed and advanced. It is also the way in which television commercials for a multitude of more or less frivolous products and programs are framed and in which consumerist seduction is enacted. The public sphere, it might be argued, has been saturated with this kind of 'validation,' to the point where it becomes difficult to tell what is real and what is not, what should be valued and what lacks merit. The validating claim has taken on its own life, irrespective of reason or reality.

We offer that this results in a non-critical public acceptance of the use of the descriptor "research-based" as indicating the sanction of 'true' science, an unquestioning acceptance that collides with practitioners' understandings of what this descriptor might actually indicate. We further offer that the entire scenario presents a dilemma for encouraging and advancing practitioners' use of *any* kind of research, since "research-based" becomes, under such circumstances, little more than a rhetorical device for wielding power and/or enacting seduction. Of course, our concern here is largely with the effects on the uses made of education research by practitioners. Nevertheless, since applicability, generalizability, and overall apprehension of what research means and what it is for are complex questions to begin with, we see this as a profound element in the relationship between research and practitioner use.

Another component complicates this 'crystal ball' scenario. Vinson and Ross (2003) have argued that a *spectacle-surveillance* paradigm has been imposed on knowledge in the public interest, and that this paradigm, in fact, betrays that interest. They see the creation of the *spectacle* of failing schools, unqualified teachers, and underachieving students as a means to foster negative public opinion and to move public will to support *surveillance* through standardization and efficiency programs, the epitome of which is No Child Left Behind. Porter (1999) supports the notion that standardization and efficiency movements (which, of course, served as forerunners of No Child Left Behind) have more to do with global market ideologies deriving from neo-liberal economic policies than with support for improving public schooling in the United Kingdom and in the United States. Nevertheless, the arguments that are made for these initiatives are made in the name of both equity and excellence, an interesting rhetorical turn that should give education researchers pause for thought. Our focus

here is on the perceptions practitioners have of the use of the phrase "research-based" and on the potential effects varying perceptions may produce for application of research findings and for the future relevance of research to practice.

Studying “It’s Research-based” as a Rhetorical Device

This paper derives from inquiries as part of the Rhetorical Interpretation Research Study conducted at the University of Pittsburgh and is described in two conference papers (Garman, et al, 2004; Goodman and Garman, 2004). The interpretive study explored the rhetorical tendencies and consequences of the use of “research-based” as a professional descriptor. A group of colleagues inquired about the ways in which administrators in a supervisory capacity understood “research-based” and whether they used it as a truth claim or as a rhetorical device. We also asked teachers to tell us how they understood the term. We used social cartography as one way to conceptually portray the various responses from participants (Goodman & Garman, 2004 and also see Appendix A) as well as to describe and interpret their perspectives. And, although the significance of an interpretive study doesn’t depend on frequency counts, we noticed that a number of teachers spoke, in one way or another, of being manipulated by their administrators’ use of the research-based claim. Interesting, also, was that we heard administrators admit that they often used the term to convince teachers to agree with their positions or arguments. For this paper we used our conversations with practitioners to probe for theoretic explanations.

Theoretic discourses on language

The theoretic discourses we draw from include rhetoric theories (Sills & Jensen, 1992; Barthes, 1989; Shumway, 1989; Foucault, 1972) and language game theory (Lyotard, 1984). Rhetoric focuses on the uses of language, and, in the classic sense, looks at how language might influence the thought and conduct of an audience.

In current discourses, however, there is a renewed emphasis on language and power as two different aspects of the same phenomenon, an emphasis that recognizes that language is not simply an instrument for describing events, but is itself a part of events, shaping their meaning. We are therefore directed as well to Lyotard's language game theory. Barthes and Foucault are especially significant in that they remind us of the "unparalleled awareness of the protean powers of language to construct alternative realities " (Sills & Jensen, 1992, p. 8). Shumway (1989), in his philosophical analysis, says, "Foucault can return rhetoric to its earlier sense as a form of persuasion and thus of power. Conversely, Foucault's characterizations of bodies of knowledge as discursive formulations or discursive practices identifies them with their embodiment in language rather than as mere ideas" (p. 160).

Barthes posits that the rhetorical message "is not only what it says but also the way in which it is fabricated " (p. 85). It is not, therefore, simply *content* that formulates the message, but also the positioning of the *subject* relative to the content. The way the rhetorical message is 'fabricated' involves a notion especially relevant to our discussion here and concerns a particular form of speech (the *rhetorical shortcut*) that reflects more specifically our concerns about speech as power.

To consider how 'speech-acts' contribute to the formulation of the message, we turn to Barthes' notion of 'rhetorical shortcuts,' a construct that is relevant to what concerns us here. Barthes articulates the wielding of "speech as an activity, a free labor" (p. 151) arising out of specific circumstances. Barthes notes the use of "'wild' speech, based on 'invention,' consequently encountering quite naturally the 'finds' of form, rhetorical shortcuts, the delights of formula, in short *felicity of expression*," which "logically assumed the form of *inscription*" (p. 151). This particular version of the speech-act is a form reflecting the assumption and use of the power of language,

"its active use" (p. 151). Our main concern here is with this 'wild' speech in the hands of those who hold power, and who exercise its use through persuasive or coercive rhetoric as represented by the *rhetorical shortcut*. Barthes also acknowledges the use of "functionalist speech" to wield power, particularly the "watchwords of a previous technocracy" (p. 151). Those technocratic 'watchwords' are also of significance here since they 'partner' with the privileged speech regime of scientific discourse.

Liotard (1984) provides yet another way of seeing the privilege accorded to scientific discourse, a way of seeing that we feel obliged to acknowledge. Arguing that "the language game of science desires its statements to be true, but does not have the resources to legitimate their truth on its own" (p. 28), Lyotard therefore offers that

It is recognized that the conditions of truth, in other words, the rules of the game of science, are immanent in that game, that they can only be established within the bonds of a debate that is already scientific in nature, and that there is no other proof that the rules are good than the consensus extended to them by the experts. (p. 29)

Liotard does not fail to note that science as language game derives its power and sustains its very existence by virtue of the fact that "[t]he state spends large amounts of money to enable science to pass itself off as an epic: the State's own credibility is based on that epic, which it uses to obtain the public consent its decision makers need" (p. 28). In Lyotard, "[t]he question of the State becomes intimately entwined with that of scientific knowledge" (pp. 30-31).

We are naturally concerned here as well, then, with the *conditions* under which 'truth claims' operate and with the role of *enforced* consensus as it is mandated by the No Child Left Behind Act through its call for a strict adherence to "scientifically-based" research. Our focus, however, is on the *response* to this

mandate reflected in our conversations with practitioners reacting to what some of them see as persuasive or coercive manipulation of the phrase, "It's research-based." As we ponder these responses, we explore "research-based" as a rhetorical shortcut in a context where the conversations reveal the understanding of some that 'the language game of science' is in play, and that trust in the 'experts' may be questioned.

In the earlier inquiries we found the framework developed by Garman and Holland (1995) useful in interpreting our conversations with practitioners, which, for the purposes of the research, were written in text narratives. Their three perspectives, which they call "rhetorical turns," were drawn from the implicit responses in the texts of reform reports. Garman and Holland name these rhetorical turns the *sacred*, the *skeptical*, and the *cynical*:

The sacred turn is represented in the voices of those who accept and believe the official version... The skeptical turn is reflected in those who are obligated to question the official doctrine. The cynical turn is heard through those who disbelieve or disparage the doctrine. Thus, the sacred is characterized by faith, the skeptical by doubt, and the cynical by distrust. (p. 102)

Sacred, Skeptical and Cynical Perspectives

From our beginning conversations, we noted that most administrators and teachers often seem to think about research from a rhetorical turn that reflects a *sacred* perspective; that is, they've reported that they tend to accept, without question, what researchers propose as "true and accurate" generalizations about "best practices." When asked if they might cite specific research and findings that they refer to, virtually none of our participants could do so. Their responses to research might be characterized as *indoctrination*.

This is not to suggest that all participants responded the same way. On the contrary, their expressed attitudes about the research-based claims are quite varied. Some administrators tended to rely on the tenets of the No Child Left Behind initiative as doctrine for their claims. Others were clear that when they used "research-based," it was with teachers that "really needed to be doing better by kids," as one administrator stated. Some pointed out that they have no other incentives to get teachers to change their habits. One principal said of his superintendent (who defended a *research-based* curriculum to parents), "I suppose he has to justify the money he spent on the reading program." Thus, on the one hand, our participants seem to accept research on faith, and, on the other hand, they seem to use *research-based* as a rhetorical shortcut to persuade teachers and parents to accept their positions.

Although we talked with teachers who said what they do is *research-based*, none could cite the specifics of the research. Some could name whom they believed to be the researcher(s), or at least authors, of their school innovations. Most teachers, however, were either skeptical or cynical in their responses. Those whom we characterize as skeptics reflected a doubting attitude, questioning the authority and validity of the research claims. Still, these few skeptics were willing to acknowledge (as one said), that "a method that's supported by research is worth trying." Another said, "I can adapt the program to what I do best and see what happens. I don't have to take it as gospel."

Many teachers, however, talked in cynical ways about their experiences and feelings. These responses reflected distrust and resentment. They spoke a lot about loss of control over their work. One admitted, "when the principal said I should follow his prescriptions because they were proven by research, I felt like what I did

was no good." Others spoke with conviction about the fact that teaching was more than general research techniques. Teaching was also art. Our fear, from the initial conversations, is that the teachers' cynicism breeds deep feelings of loss of control and a sense of victimization. The use of *research-based* as a rhetorical vehicle diminishes not only the teacher's efficacy, but also the efficacy of good research findings as well.

The research results in this study echo a previous study that explored issues of scientism reflected in supervisory practice (Hazi & Garman, 1988). The No Child Left Behind mandates have heightened the possibilities of the misuse of research findings. Administrators run the risk of facing teacher cynicism related to the claims of researchers, especially if they use "It's research-based" as a rhetorical shortcut to persuade or coerce teachers, and at the same time know little about the research they espouse.

Our intent in this paper is not to dissuade practitioners from paying attention to good research on practice. On the contrary, we hope to encourage educators to help each other recognize the uses and limitations, and also the abuses, of good research. After collecting sixty-two responses, we saw that they lent themselves well to Garman & Holland's (1995) framework due to issues of trust, which may have derived at least in part from issues of use (Coburn, Honig & Stein, 2004). These researchers considered issues of use of evidence by administrators. Although issues of use are particularly enlightening as a backdrop for our inquiry into rhetorical tendencies and perceptual responses, we focused on interpreting the meaning(s) of the text formed by the responses. A closer reading of the text led us to desire a more nuanced level of conceptual understanding that could fully reflect, additionally, an apparent dichotomy between practitioners' vision as an *experiential* text, on the one hand, and the discovery claim of research as a *theoretic* text, on the other. To attain

this understanding, we used social cartography (as noted above), a comparative methodology specifically cultivated to portray difference and diversity (and their interrelations) in contested terrain. (see Appendix A).

Conclusion

The problem as we see it here is threefold. First, we need to examine critically the ways in which "research" is constrained in its definition, compromised in its communication, and turned into *spectacle* for ideological market purposes by current policy agendas (e.g., No Child Left Behind). Second, there are serious issues related to the use and misuse of educational research by special interest groups and others who are empowered by the current system, but not necessarily committed to the betterment of public education. Finally, as we have pointed out here, the privileging of a particular rhetorical shortcut -- "*It's research-based*" -- over meaningful communication about good research and what it has to teach us is particularly problematic. More work needs to be done to accommodate the relationship between practitioners and their lived experiences in the classroom. More work needs to be done that considers the authenticity of the space of skepticism, and even cynicism, in relation to historical trends in education reform. Finally, more work needs to be done to move practitioners to a space where research is public and is constructed and communicated for the public good. In short, there must be an accountability system for educational researchers that rises above the privileging of scientific discourse on its own terms. Such a system needs to be able to reach out to engage publicly, and for the public good, with those who are truly concerned with the betterment of educational practice and of public and practitioner understanding

We conclude that there *are* implications for the appropriate use of research. We believe that the text of practitioner responses to "*It's research-based*" leads in a

number of directions simultaneously. On the one hand, there are those who accept, believe, or have confidence in "scientifically-based" research. On the other hand, there are those who deny, defy, and refute any assigned meaning-attachment to research, except for a reading of the attachment that signals their own victimization. Finally, there are those who are open (albeit critical) and teachable, given appropriate demonstration of the effectiveness of a particular practice based on research. We favor the *skeptical* rhetorical turn, and see the need for expanding the interconnections of the *experiential* text with the *theoretical* text. We continue to be concerned about the appropriation of research (of *all* kinds) by practitioners, and work to bring the worlds of practitioner vision and discovery claim closer to one another.

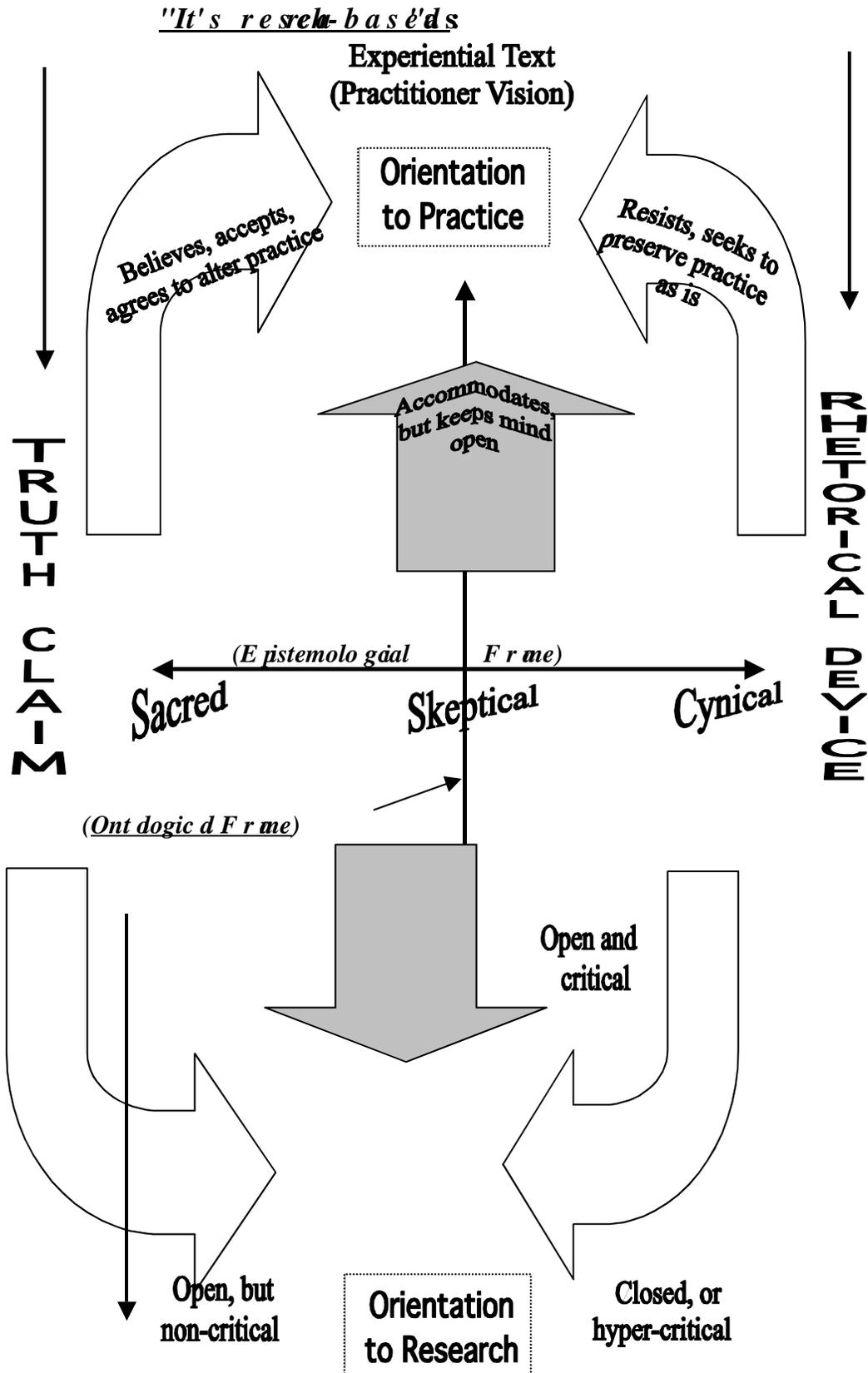
Further, we appreciate the theoretic text informing our own work (rhetorical theory and language game theory) in helping us to discern not only the power implications of scientific discourse, but also the contrasting role of 'speech acts.' We value the understanding that only by de-privileging our own text, only by applying the 'writer's modesty,' can we expect to get closer to a range of possibilities for this narrative inquiry as we work to bring research to bear on practice, and practitioner vision to bear on research efforts. Our hope is that work of this nature may contribute to building a more 'caring community' that involves an interwoven sphere within which practitioners and researchers could combine their work for authentically 'improved' practice.

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**New Direction *for* Supervision: When Teachers Give Students
Power Over their Learning**

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and
Flinders University**

**Paper to the annual meeting of the Council of Professors of Instructional
Supervision, University of Georgia, Athens, GA ., November 11-13, 2005**

New Direction *for* Supervision: When Teachers Give Students Power Over their Learning

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Introduction

Public schools around the world are struggling and are in deep and possibly terminal trouble. They are being threatened in an unprecedented way by carefully orchestrated and undisclosed government agenda to privatize them. By manufacturing impossibly high standards, targets and benchmarks, and threatening punitive measures and sanctions for non-achievement, large numbers of under-resourced and demoralized schools are likely to collapse. The corporate sector which already has unfettered access will be allowed to deal the final blow, along with a complicit media who have long been hostile to the notion of independent public education. Such measures open the way for governments to continue to play on the insecurities of an already fearful public who have been thoroughly sold on the alleged merits that “private is the only way to go” – notwithstanding that the cost of educating a student will more than double, as we have seen from the recent Minnesota experience of Edison Inc.

This is a scary scenario to say the least in any democracy, but it will happen shortly and with dire consequences unless we do something to reclaim the perilous situation our public schools find themselves in. The broader question of which the issue I am raising is a part, is the claustrophobic nature of contemporary culture and how this is closing down spaces in our public schools. It was well put by Berger (2002) (and I am indebted to Michael Fielding for drawing this passage to my attention):

The culture in which we live is perhaps the most claustrophobic that has ever existed; in the culture of globalisation. . . there is no glimpse of an *elsewhere*, of an *otherwise*. . . The first step towards building an alternative world has to be a refusal of the world picture implanted in our minds. . . Another space is vitally necessary (p. 214).

As Fielding (2005) so eloquently puts it in the editorial to an issue of journal he was editing, we need to take seriously Berger's suggestion that "the act of resistance means not only refusing to accept the absurdity of the world picture offered to us, but denouncing it" (Berger, 2002, p. 214). But as Fielding (2005) argues, creating a more fulfilling future means being connected to a knowledge of and engagement with the continuities of the past; in other words, in order to create a different world of teaching and learning from the grotesque and deformed one we are having imposed upon us, we need to interrogate the present and argue for what is being lost from the past, in order to reclaim it.

If schools are to be *saved*, or as Fielding (2005) puts it, if we are to create "a vibrant sense of hope", then schools will have to be rescued from within, and that will mean organizing the resources, teachers, parents, communities and students. The focus for the reclamation will have to be around what schools can do for students, and this will mean elevating a concern for students to a level of priority we have not seen for quite some time.

I can think of several cogent reasons why instructional supervision, and by implication instructional supervisors, will be crucial in this reclamation:

1. they have a central concern with teaching and learning in schools;
2. they work with teachers and students in classrooms;
3. they are (or ought to be) concerned about relationships between teachers and students;
4. they have an instructional leadership role in schools;
5. they have access to the ideas with which to construct an alternative to the current dominant, flawed and impoverished one holding sway around high stakes testing;
6. because they do not have a policy-driven role, they have some space (or wriggle room) in which to construct an alternative; and
7. in many cases they have a historical memory of the way the world of teaching and learning used to be.

My Argument for the Basis of a New Direction for Supervision

My argument is a fairly straight-forward one (not necessarily the same as saying it is simple to implement) – the revolution that has to occur in schools is not around structures, governance, school choice, management, administration, or even subject matter or the length of the school day or year, important as some of these might be.

The kind of dramatic and revolutionary change that will be required is around creating the political will and imagination necessary to stand up for the relational essence of what schools are about.

What this means practically speaking, is asking for (indeed, demanding) answers to the question of how schooling is acting to improve the life chances of every kid – not just those already advantaged by home background, race or social class.

What needs to be confronted, argued for and demanded of policy makers, is an answer to the question:

How is this (what we are doing here, or being required to do) improving the learning and life chances of this student (which is not the same as achievement, test scores, or rankings on some kind of scale)?

Unless we can ascertain the answers to this question from our own practices or evidence from other sources, then we should have the moral courage to use our professional judgement as educators to desist immediately, and stop doing what we are doing.

The reason I am coming at the issue from this vantage point is that I am absolutely outraged at the extent to which current policy directions are damaging and excluding so many students from a meaningful educational experience at school. The statistical evidence on this is appalling. In this country “only about 68% of all students who enter ninth grade will graduate ‘on time’ with regular diplomas in 12th grade” (Orfield, 2004), and for poor students and students of color, completion rates are absolutely scandalous. This is not to mention the meaningless, boring, and irrelevant school experiences served up to vast numbers of students to the point that it is estimated that in the U.S. “the number of disengaged students may exceed two thirds of the high school population” (Cothran & Ennis, 2000, p. 106). None of this is meant as a criticism of countless highly committed, dedicated and competent teachers who are working under unimaginably difficult and hostile conditions in firing the imaginations of young people. There are countless numbers of these, and I have been privileged in my visits to the U.S. in the past two years to see only a few of them. What I am making here is a desperate call to find ways of moving “beyond prescriptive pedagogy” (Solomon, 1995) being so universally and depressingly imposed on schools.

The kind of questions that need to be actively foregrounded and that should be animating supervisors in the attempt to reclaim teaching, are questions that have a specific focus. In the context of their supervisory work, supervisors need to be asking teachers, in the contexts in which they work, for evidence of:

- how is what is going on in this teaching context connecting with the life experiences, aspirations and expectations of these students?
- how is learning a happy, enjoyable and enlivening experience for these students?
- how is teaching enlarging or expanding the cultural map for the most excluded or marginalized students in this setting?
- how is the school creating a context for bonding students and creating a feeling of belongingness and attachment to the school?
- how are students being encouraged and made to feel comfortable in speaking out in challenging the status quo?
- how are parents being brought into meaningful partnerships in the education of their children?
- how is successful learning being recognized and celebrated here?
- how is the school working to expand its place in creating a wider and more vibrant 'public sphere'?
- how is leadership distributed in a way that acknowledges multiple sources of expertise?
- how are decisions made in an informed way rather than as a consequence of knee-jerk reactions to sectional vested interests?
- how do students get to have meaningful ownership of their learning?
- how is the wider debate about the culture of teaching being sustained here?
- how are students' imaginations about 'big ideas' being fired and kept alive here?
- what is it that makes teaching a creative, satisfying and rewarding activity in this context?

These are crucial questions that any reinvention of teaching will seriously have to grapple with. They will only be able to be meaningfully answered by fully involving those responsible for instructional supervision in schools. They are also questions that bring with them some4 significant research challenges (see Smyth, 2004a; Smyth, 2006)

The Relational School: A Central Idea for Reinventing Schools and Supervision

What I want to propose is nothing short of a reinvention of teaching – something that goes considerably beyond what is currently involved under the official diminished rubric of ‘school reform’. The notion of reinvention conjures up for me, notions of rediscovery and rejuvenation, and the excitement that comes with the creativity and passion necessary to recapture a project that has fallen into a state of disrepair.

Meier (1992) captured the pervasiveness and the depth of what is involved in reinventing teaching around something as crucial as working with young adolescents, when she said: "Teachers need to relearn what it means to be good in-school practitioners" (p. 594), in ways that go beyond assuming knowledge or reliance upon habit:

We can change teaching only by changing the environment in which teaching takes place. Teaching can only be changed by reinventing the institutions within which teaching takes place – schools. Reinvention has to be done by those who will be stuck in the reinvented schools. it cannot be force fed – not to teachers, nor to parents and children (p. 600)

If teachers are not able to join in leading such changes, the changes will not take place. Politicians and policymakers at all levels may institute vast new legislated reforms; but without the understanding, support, and input of teachers, they will end up in the same dead end as . . . past reforms . . . For all the big brave talk, they will be rhetorical and cosmetic, and after a time they will wither away (p. 594)

The changes needed are not changes in the solo acts teachers perform inside their classrooms. . . We are talking about creating a very different school culture, a new set of relationships and ideas (p. 599)

What is at stake here is something as fundamental, as courageous and as passionate as re-thinking and re-working the institution of schooling if we are to get it right for young people – and surely if supervision is to have any continuing relevance at all in schooling, that has to embrace how to recreate schools that are more humane learning communities. We have to start from the premise that schools are fundamentally relational in nature.

Let me share with you why I think this is such a crucial mission.

One of the most consistent themes that keeps surfacing from my own research over the past decade on what is required to keep kids in schools, switched on, tuned in, and learning in meaningful ways, is what some might regard as the old-fashioned (even out-moded) word “relationships” (Smyth & Hattam, et. al, 2004; Smyth & Hattam, 2001; Smyth & Hattam, 2002; Smyth, 2003; Smyth, McInerney & Hattam, 2003; Smyth, 2004b; Smyth, 2005a; Smyth, 2005b; Smyth & McInerney, 2006a). The evidence on this is incontrovertible – when young people cannot, or do not, form a relationship in school with an adult or with their peers, then they disconnect, disengage, and ‘dropout’ of school (National Research Council, 2004). If we could get a concerted educational policy focus on relationships in schooling, away from destructive forms of testing, this would be the single most important factor that would turn around improved learning in schools. Yet there appears to be a total deafness to this idea in school reform and policy making circles – indeed, what is occurring at the moment is heading in exactly the reverse direction and is having the effect of deeply damaging educative relationships (Smyth, 2003).

If we want compelling research evidence for moving in this direction, then we need go no further than the year long intensive and participatory study of four urban/suburban schools in Southern California conducted by the Claremont Graduate School over a decade ago (Poplin & Weres, 1992). This study of four predominantly Hispanic and multi-cultural schools amassed 24,000 pages of transcripts of interviews and focus group discussions with students, teachers, parents, school administrators, community groups and ancillary staff in these schools, along with field notes of classroom observations and a wide range of other school activities over a 12 month period. The intent of the study was to engage the schools in participatory dialogue about the issues facing them, in a context in which the majority of the people within the schools had never spoken with one another before except in superficial ways. Entitled *Voices from the Inside: A Report on Schooling from Inside the Classroom* (Poplin & Weres, 1992) this document is in my view the most significant published document to emerge on U.S. education in the last 50 years, including reports like *A Nation at Risk*, and the swathe of the blue-ribbon commissions and private foundation reports that have followed it. And yet despite its best selling status (it sold over 50,000 copies), few people seem to have heard of it, let alone politicians and education systems acting on it. I wonder why? It seems that whacky ideas have no trouble getting up, without any evidentiary base to them. What happened to evidence-based education policy?

If what was attempted in the four schools in the Claremont study were made possible for all schools in the U.S, the bulk of the problems so deeply disfiguring U.S. schools at the moment, might have a chance of being resolved – that is to say, if government were genuine about supporting schools so they could improve learning. But that’s a big

ask—and it seems that governments in this country and around the world are not seriously committed to improving learning, so much as they are about mouthing the rhetoric, while going about wreaking hurricane Katrina-type damage on schools, and then blaming schools, teachers and students. What we have at the moment educationally speaking, is a deep-seated “failure of political imagination” (Ignatieff, 2005, p. 16)—rather than a case of failing schools.

Creating trusting and respectful relationships in schools and classrooms is the indispensable and single most crucial element to learning, and much of what is going on at the moment in policy terms is actively destroying the relational basis of teaching and learning; for example:

- assuming that people in schools are not to be trusted, and creating the metaphorical equivalent of walled and gated educational communities in schools with intrusive forms of surveillance (read high stakes testing);
- being distrustful of teacher autonomy and teachers’ capacities to exercise professional judgement to make decisions, and instead treating teachers in degrading and demeaning ways by scripting what they do. Programs like Slavins’s “Success for All” for disadvantaged students, is a classic example of a recipe for degraded learning for poor students;
- assuming that the way to improve schools is by using stimulus-response cattle prods like NCLB that use standards and then impose harsh penalties upon schools and communities that cannot meet impossibly high standards through no fault of their own;
- stigmatizing and labelling schools that have been systematically cut loose from and deprived of equitably provided central resourcing, by placing them in derogatory categories that further humiliate them—for example, under NCLB, labelling a school “persistently dangerous” if it has more than “three mandatory expulsions per thousand students in three years” (Levy, 2005);
- having teachers compete against one another in contrived ways through performance pay and career ladders, destroys the collegial basis of how ‘good’ teaching occurs; and
- believing that the way to improve schools in difficult circumstances, is through exposing them to the gross distortion and disfigurement of ‘market forces’—though school choice, vouchers, and ultimately privatizing them.

Taken collectively, this ensemble of supposed remedies can only be regarded as a crude form of barbarism of the most primitive kind, and it is literally gouging the heart and soul out of teaching and learning.

A Way Forward

Notwithstanding the monumental difficulties involved we have little alternative than to go back to the essence of what lies at the center of learning – which is to say relationships, even if this means developing the courage to work against the tide of official policy directions – possibly even working beneath the radar, if necessary (for an example, see Smyth & McInerney, 2006b).

When I talk about the crucial importance of placing relationships at the center of learning, and of making this a project for a new direction in supervision, I mean relationships in a multi-faceted sense:

- relationships to students
- relationships to teaching colleagues
- relationships to the culture of the school
- relationships to parents and community
- relationships to ideas.

But it is the first of these I want to concentrate on here for a few moments, even though it is clearly related to relationships with colleagues, school culture, parents and community, and ideas.

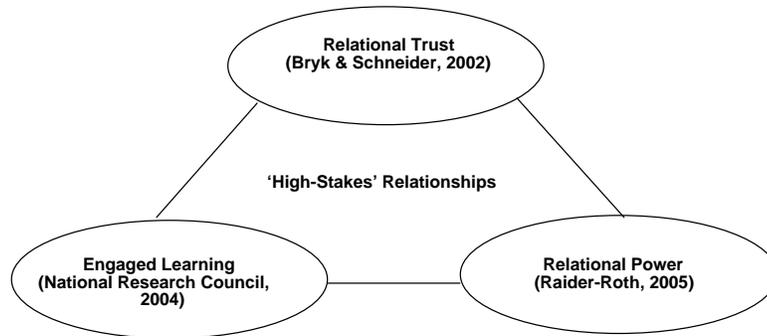
Assuming that I am not a long way wide of the mark here in respect of the damage being done to schools and learning, then the crucial follow-on question has to be:

what would it look like if we reinvented schools around notions like relationships, respect, trust and care?

While we may have had a brief period of exploring the notion of supervision as trying to increase teachers' ownership of learning, that project is far from complete and we have a long way to go before it is an established feature of schools. We can ill-afford to wait for completion on this one. To make schools fairer, more inclusive, and socially just places we have to move to involve students themselves in more significant ownership of their learning. Teacher ownership of teaching needs to proceed in concert with student ownership of learning, otherwise we get another unfortunate and damaging hierarchy being perpetuated.

If we are to be really serious about engaging students in learning, then we will have to pursue high-stakes relationships.

What then, do a set of respectful relationships look like that amount to divesting some degree of real and meaningful ownership of learning to students? While I don't have time to elaborate here, in skeletal form it looks like this:



If I can conclude on an optimistic note. The basis of the shift in direction I am arguing for is an acknowledgement of a number of guiding relational principles for instructional supervision that ought to underpin what constitutes teaching, namely that:

- teaching has to actively acknowledge and respect the aspirations, experiences, cultures and family backgrounds of students;
- teaching has to be an active and identity affirming process for students, rather than a passive transmission or delivery process that produces oppositional identities for students;
- teaching has to start from the position that students have something worthwhile to say about what they would like to learn, how they would like to learn it, and with whom;
- teaching has to take seriously the views of students about what kind of knowledge they see as being relevant to the kind of futures they want to construct;
- teaching needs to provide the crucial scaffolding for student learning, but in ways that allow students spaces for their ideas and interests;
- teaching needs to provide students with ways of owning their behavior and learning about the consequences of their actions on their learning;
- teaching needs to occur in ways in which teachers get to know and respect their students, and students get to know and respect their teachers;
- teaching has to endorse authentic forms of assessment that describe student growth and development, not synthetic modes of assessment that traumatize and rank and rate students in competitive ways to be used as commodities and pawns in some insidious and destructive game of international economic competitiveness; but at the same time—

- teaching needs to be rigorous and challenging in engaging young minds with important ideas and issues.

If we can begin what I am suggesting here then we may have made a small step in countering the distressing comment from a high school student in the Claremont study, who when asked what was the problem with schooling, replied:

This place hurts my spirit (p. 11)

In the process we might just have also begun to turn around the situation of the principal of the school, who when hearing of this comment, said:

Yes, my spirit is hurt too, when I have to do things I don't believe in (Poplin & Weeres, 1992, p. 23).

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Preparing and Sustaining Exemplary Mentor Teachers
For their Roles as Instructional Supervisors

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We know relatively little about what thoughtful mentors try to teach novices, how they make their knowledge accessible, and how they think about their mentoring in context Feiman-Nemser, 2001,18

Introduction

Almost thirty years ago two student teaching supervisors did a simple study in which they asked student teachers about “the role of significant others during the student teaching experience” (Karmos and Jacko, 1977). Student teachers overwhelmingly identified their cooperating teachers as the “most significant other.” That study remained for years one of the most cited research articles on the supervision of field experience students, its durability deriving at least in part from the discomfort the finding caused for many teacher educators. Teacher educators have at least the illusion of control over what happens in the campus-based portion of preservice teacher preparation. We design the teacher education coursework and field experiences, and we hire those who will teach and supervise in those sequences. But quality control with regard to cooperating teachers? NCATE unit standards (2002) describe *target* clinical faculty, both higher education and school faculty, as “licensed in the fields they teach or supervise . . . master teachers well recognized for their competence in their field.” In reality, many institutions’ requirements for cooperating teachers are no more rigorous than a combination of tenure and approval from a district administrator. A student’s assignment to the person who will become the most significant other in her professional development becomes, then, little more than the luck of the draw.

The solution to this quality control issue would seem obvious: be clear about what the preparation of cooperating teachers should be and then require it. And in the years since Karmos and Jacko’s study, many have called for such mandates (Killian & McIntyre, 1986; McIntyre, Byrd, & Foxx, 1996; Wilkins, 1996; Wang, 2000; Odell & Huling, 2000; NCATE, 2001 and

2002). NCATE standards for PDS partnerships and units make it clear that preparation is important. *Target* clinical faculty are described as “accomplished school professionals who are jointly selected and prepared for their roles as mentors and supervisors and demonstrate the skills, knowledge and dispositions of highly accomplished professionals” (NCATE, 2002). *At standard* PDS partners are described as those who “participate in professional development activities to prepare for their new roles,” while *leading* partnerships “provide ongoing professional development for PDS partners on a regular basis” (NCATE, 2001). These recommendations, while clear about the need for preparation, leave the “what” and “how to” of preparation to the individual institutions, consistent with the NCATE philosophy that institutional practices need to be congruent with their conceptual frameworks.

Even with longstanding consensus that mentor preparation is essential, most cooperating teachers still do not receive systematic formal preparation for their roles. Ramanathan and Wilkins-Canter (2001) surveyed midwestern institutions and found that most universities have not made training a requirement, and that when the preparation is voluntary, most teachers do not seek it out. These authors speculate on the bottom line: universities need cooperating teachers to make their field experiences successful and that makes them reluctant to require the training.

How dire a problem it is that so many cooperating teachers lack formal preparation? To address that issue, there is another important question to ask first: Does formal preparation make a difference in the quality of supervision during field experiences? The purpose of this paper is to share and discuss findings about the practices that prepare and sustain mentor teachers for their roles as instructional supervisors. The subjects are eleven cooperating teachers within a half hour radius of a large Midwestern university. Interviews and other data sources reveal a

broad range of influences, formal and informal, that have prepared them for their roles as mentors and instructional supervisors.

A Personal Perspective

For almost all of my 24 years in higher education, I have been involved in the preparation of teachers for their roles as mentors and in research on the effectiveness of that preparation. I chair the Teacher Leadership Specialty Area and teach a course in the Observation and Analysis of instruction, which many local teachers and principals have taken. I have also been actively engaged in two longstanding PDS partnerships. For the past seven years, I have helped to coordinate delivery of a summer mentoring workshop based on a model developed at Ohio University (Murray & Hillkirk, 1998). We have trained over a hundred teachers, administrators, and SIUC-affiliated teacher educators for their roles in working with preservice teachers and Teaching Fellows. Three essential tools were the core of these workshops: the Consultancy Protocol, which provides a timed framework for a critical discussion of a lesson plan, unit or classroom dilemma; Reflective Observational Coaching, which provides teachers with a simple structure to follow when they observe and conference with their mentees; and Collaborative Action Research, which provides a structure for teachers to follow as they plan an action research project.

For my sabbatical leave in Fall '04 I proposed that I would research the level of implementation of the summer Mentor Training Workshops in the supervisory practices of local cooperating teachers. But because I have been involved in many other mentor preparation initiatives over the years, I did not restrict my study to questions about tool use. Instead, I designed my research to gain a broad view of the preparation, practices and perceptions of teacher mentors.

Methodology

Over the Fall '04 and Spring '05 semesters I solicited participation of all cooperating teachers who were assigned full semester elementary education student teachers in three PDS sites near the university. Eight of the nine eligible chose to participate. All of these teachers had been trained in the summer mentoring workshops and had also been influenced by a variety of other experiences. Data from this study allowed me to examine the extent to which the teachers implemented the tools and techniques they learned in that workshop, as well as the extent to which they implemented other practices which they perceived as valuable. For potential contrast, I also asked all four elementary cooperating teachers from a non-PDS site to participate. These teachers had not attended the mentoring workshops, but they too had experienced numerous influences on their supervisory practices. Three of the four agreed to participate, giving me a total of eleven cooperating teacher/student teacher pairs across four sites.

Data were collected from open-ended interviews with the eleven cooperating teachers and student teachers as well as student teachers' weekly journals and time logs. At midterm and end of semester, I conducted interviews about the following: (1) the experiences and preparation that cooperating teachers characterize as influential in their mentoring practices; (2) the feedback and conferencing practices that these teachers use in their day-to-day supervision of student teachers and their rationales for these practices; (3) the perception of both the teachers and their student teachers about the efficacy of selected supervisory practices; (4) cooperating teachers' beliefs about how teachers need to be prepared and supported for their roles as mentors.

Research interviews were transcribed and mailed to participants for verification and the opportunity to add additional comments. Data were also triangulated with informal interviews

with the university supervisors who place and supervise all levels of field experience students at the research sites.

Data analysis involved identifying themes within each subsection of the interview questions. Emergent themes from interviews were compared and contrasted with evidence from other data sources. Themes with substantial support from multiple data sources were then compared and contrasted with findings reported in earlier research and recommendations for the preparation and practices of cooperating teachers as instructional supervisors.

Findings

Certain foreshadowed questions influenced the design and implementation of this research study, given my roles in the supervisory preparation of many of the cooperating teachers who served as subjects. One was whether the summer workshop training that the PDS teachers had received had made a difference in their supervisory practices and whether they had continued to use the tools that they had learned and practiced in those workshops. A corollary question was whether the “trained” PDS cooperating teachers functioned differently and/or more effectively than their non workshop trained counterparts in other districts. Preliminary data analysis suggests that a simple answer to both questions is “no.” The richness of qualitative data, however, allows for the examination of more complex questions and answers. In particular, looking at the practices and supervisory platforms of highly effective cooperating teachers helps to illuminate how they differ from their less effective counterparts.

Over the course of the research, I saw the semester play out for eleven pairs of cooperating teachers/student teachers in many different ways. At one end there was the student whose placement had to be moved because of a personality conflict with the cooperating teacher; neither really got past the damage that the change and the buildup to it inflicted. At the other end

was a non traditional student whose performance from the start was more like that of a highly qualified veteran; her cooperating teacher directed much of her energy into learning from her. There were strong student teachers placed with not-so-strong cooperating teachers, though the reverse was more often the case. In fact it was in the most challenging situations that the strengths of the cooperating teachers stood out.

In the remainder of this section I will describe several characteristics that I found common to all of the highly effective teachers in this study. Then I will illustrate with examples from my research the characteristic that came across as most compelling. In the next section, I will separate the sample into “highly effective” and “less effective” categories and present a table displaying the influences on supervisory practices cited by the cooperating teachers.

Characteristics of Highly Effective Cooperating Teachers

On basic quality issues my data was consistent across sites and cooperating teachers: all took their jobs seriously; all made a good faith effort to comply with university requirements, and all worked closely with the university supervisors. Consistent with the literature on effective cooperating teacher feedback (Ramanathan & Wilkins-Canter, 2001), the cooperating teachers in this study provided regular and frequent feedback. They used both written and oral forms, though short oral feedback dominated. Feedback peaked at midterm when the three-way conference with the university supervisor was imminent. It also was more frequent when student teachers took on new subjects or responsibilities or taught their units. Some of the cooperating teachers, however, stood out. These *highly effective* teachers revealed these additional characteristics:

(1) While all the cooperating teachers in this study used strategies to keep their student teachers focused on student achievement, *highly effective* cooperating teachers were less

concerned than other teachers with having their student teachers duplicate their practices. They rarely provided solutions for their mentees, opting instead to nudge them toward independent problem solving. Interviews with student teachers provided evidence that they were not always comfortable with what they perceived early on as a lack of direction. A common early semester comment was, “I wish she would just tell me what she wants me to do,” though such concerns diminished as the student teachers grew to appreciate their autonomy.

(2) Weekly teaching logs from student teachers with *highly effective* cooperating teachers revealed that they had higher percentages of actual teaching time than did less effective pairs. Much of this seems attributable to the fact that the effective pairs work as *teams* rather than *turn-takers*. A side effect of this teaming was that on those occasions where the student teacher made a serious content error or was struggling with a management issue, the cooperating teacher could intervene inconspicuously. Reflecting later on such interventions, the student teachers expressed relief rather than a sense of having been undermined. As this cooperating teacher put it, “I haven’t had to intervene often, but I have on occasion. I said something like, ‘Mrs. Able, let’s do this lesson together.’ I took the lead and we worked it through together.” (GC1, interview).

(3) Finally and most significantly, *highly effective* cooperating teachers were adept at providing corrective, objective feedback before problems escalated, a situation which proved the most challenging and unresolvable for the less successful pairs in this study. The exemplary supervisors could articulate how and why they resolved these issues at early stages, while the latter preferred to avoid them. This meant that there were few surprises at midterm and final, even when ratings were low. Earlier research on cooperating teacher feedback revealed that a major concern for cooperating teachers was how to offer constructive criticism (Ramanathan & Wilkins-Canter, 2001). These findings indicated that cooperating teachers had not been trained

to handle the subtle and difficult aspects of evaluation. The highly effective teachers in the present study did not find giving negative comments easy, but they had learned to do it and used those skills when they needed to, as the following examples illustrate.

When asked near the end of the semester about content and frequency of feedback, 4th grade teacher Ginny first gave some background about her student teacher: she had 3 jobs and a class in addition to student teaching. She was also going through a divorce and frequently came to school sleep deprived, which affected her performance. On one occasion she did not show up for science fair and had given no notice. Then Ginny talked about feedback: “When she started to slip a little, I had to increase the frequency. Normally it would get shorter. Ours became more awkward. When she was in her takeover, it seemed to be too much. She was not as independent as she should have been, and would ask me at the last minute what to do. . . . Problems with a student teacher’s performance create a dilemma about the grade. You know you’re affecting someone’s life, but you need to be honest.” (C3, Interview)

By contrast this less effective kindergarten teacher struggled with the need to provide feedback: “Other than the midterm, nothing was written down. Around the midterm we used the form recommended by the university supervisory, but we did it orally. Later I thought I should have filled in the form. [The researcher asked why.] She has become so familiar with me. Our relationship is so collegial. Sometimes when you get into that kind of relationship, doing a formal evaluation doesn’t feel comfortable. [Researcher asked her if she meant a judgmental kind of evaluation.] Yes. Maybe I shouldn’t get so close that I can’t give that kind of feedback.” Later, when asked what kind of questions her ST raises, “She really doesn’t ask questions a lot. She set her goals early on and she has achieved them” (TC1, Interview). My own impression from interviews with the student teacher and my review of her weekly logs was that she had

learned the cooperating teacher's routines early on, performed them competently but without reflection, and made very little growth as a professional during her student teaching semester.

The Preparation of Exemplary Mentors

What makes the difference between the highly effective cooperating teachers and the less effective ones? I am still seeking answers to that as I prepare for another round of interviews and data collection this semester, but the composite chart below suggests some possibilities.

Influences on Supervisory Practices Cited by Cooperating Teachers

Teacher ID	PDS Site	Mentor Wrkshp.	Other Skills Wrkshp.	TL Degree or Other Related Degree	Center Coord. Infl.	Peer Infl.	Syst. Obs. Course	Other
C3	X	X		TL	X	X	X	
GC1	X	X	X	CI, SPED, EAHE	X			1,2,3*
U3	X	X	X	TL	X	X	X	
U4	X	X	X	TL	X	X	X	
U1	X	X		TL		X	X	4*
TC3			X	RLS, esp writing	X		X	5*
TC2				Counselor Ed	X	X		

Highly Effective

C1	X	X	X		X	X		
U2	X	X	X		X			
C2	X	X			X			
TC1				Gifted & Talented	X			6*

Less Effective

1. communication skills workshops
2. philosophy of education developed in EAHE courses
3. participant/presenter in many university sponsored workshops
4. NBPTS process
5. experience with earlier field experience students
6. changes in university requirements for student teaching

Conclusions

A major goal of my original research was to investigate whether the summer mentor training workshops into which we have invested so much time and energy had had an impact on in the supervision of our field experience students. When I asked trained teachers about the use of individual tools they learned in those workshops, they reported that they were not using them, at least not as they had been taught. This teacher's comment was typical of those who reported "nonuse," but who had in fact adapted the tools and used them in some form:

I have timed her transitions and shared that with her, but I haven't written anything down. It seems we use a lot of what we learned in the workshop, but not the whole tool in the original sequence. . . . The consultancy protocol I have internalized so I think I use it when I approach discussion of planning and presentation. I use the critique questions and try to get her actively involved in questioning. (C3, Interview)

Many other trained workshop teachers reported that they did not use the Reflective Observational Coaching Tool taught in the workshop, but they did use an observational form provided by the university supervisor which had an almost identical purpose.

When asked whether the cooperating teachers should be required to be trained for those roles, almost all said that the training should be mandatory. Two said that the training should be available but not mandatory because some new teachers with young children would not be able to attend. When I pointed out the contradiction between low implementation among past participants and requiring the workshop for new participants, their responses indicated that with adequate support and some released time, they would like to get back to using the tools. These comments were typical.

Time issues really affect the use of tools, esp. action research. We would need released time during the day if we were really going to apply these. I used several tools with Teaching Fellows but it's because we get special planning time when we have fellows that allowed this to happen. (C3, Interview)

It would be good if we had someone [like the district mentor] to remind us what tools we could be using. It's not that the tools aren't valuable, but when you get busy, you lapse back into the same old routines (C1, Interview)

We should be meeting after school. You lose it when you haven't used the tools in a while. Just knowing others are using them, and who to go to would help. When we were doing them together, we talked about it. Now we don't. (U3, Interview)

Thus, training without sustained followup resulted in low levels of implementation, and time was the major impediment to ongoing meetings. Still, the question remains about whether, even with sustained post workshop support, trained teachers would be highly effective mentors. The chart on the previous page suggests that workshop training is not as strongly associated with *highly effective* supervisory practices as are some other influences. What the highly effective cooperating teachers had in common was that they had had some deep form of preparation for their roles and could articulate the philosophy behind their practices. This preparation most often took the form of a master's degree in a supervision-related area like Teacher Leadership, Educational Administration or Counselor Education. Also common to five of the seven highly effective mentors was completion of CI 508, Systematic Observation and Analysis of Instruction. This is a standard 3 hour graduate course. The required text is Acheson and Gall (2003), but the course uses a wide variety of additional resources including the vintage *Another Set of Eyes* tapes and the Boyan and Copeland supervisory communication simulations as well as the more recent

ASCD *Observation and Feedback* videos and handouts. Even the two highly effective mentors who did not take CI 508 had covered some components of this course in their coursework in Educational Administration and Counselor Education.

I'd like to conclude with a quote from Sharon Feiman-Nemser (2001) which can serve as a discussion starter for the questions raised by my research and by the broader issues of how we prepare and sustain mentors for preservice and novice teachers.

Much of the language of beginning teacher support and assistance comes from the literature on clinical supervision (e.g., Cogan, 1973; Glickman, 1985; Goldhammer, 1969) and coaching (e.g., Joyce & Showers, 1985). Although these sources provide valuable models, perspectives, and strategies, they are often represented as technologies to apply or patterns of action to follow rather than as a set of ideas from which a variety of actions could be generated. Focused on reflective conversation and targeted feedback, they do not consider how mentor teachers can use their own practice as a site for novices' learning. By fusing of values, theory, and action Pete Frazer's [the master teacher she had studied] formulations differ from the procedural, morally neutral vocabulary of scripting, pattern analysis, conferencing, coaching, and feedback. (19)

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Lessons learned from a longitudinal study of professional learning communities within a context
of high stakes accountability

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Abstract

This paper outlines what the external documenter and program coordinator learned about the cultivation of professional learning communities (PLCs) within a context of high stakes accountability after collaboratively reflecting on four years of study. The nature of this PLC work consisted of a blending of National School Reform Faculty (NSRF) structures which emphasized critical friends groups (CFGs), a movement toward collaborative inquiry as the centerpiece of the PLC work initiated by the Collaborative Inquiry and Development Group (CID), and an on-going effort by “insiders” to shape these structures to fit the local context. Qualitative analysis of program documents, artifacts, and yearly reports revealed three assertions we believe could inform others engaged in this work. First, within this system’s effort to infuse learning communities targeted at improving student learning, the work of professional learning communities moved from “multiple and contended” to “singular and shared.” Second, when inquiry became the vehicle for teacher collaboration within a PLC, the process utilized, participation, size and focus of the question mattered. Third, after four years of collaborative study, teachers reported an escalated sense of satisfaction with their own professional learning yet changes in student learning related to PLC collaboration remain elusive. The paper concludes with suggestions and implications for “jump-starting” PLC work and raises questions about further research.

Professional learning communities (PLCs) provide a context for teachers to engage in reflective educational discourse centered around student and teacher learning (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002). The current literature regarding professional learning communities suggests that these collaborative efforts have the power to change how teachers view themselves professionally (Little, 2003), how they understand the responsibilities of and possibilities for their work, how they relate to their colleagues and other stakeholders, and how they engage with students in their teaching practices (Dufour & Eaker, 1998; Lieberman & Wood, 2003; McLaughlin & Talbert, 2001; Senge et al., 2000; Wenger, 1998; Wenger et al., 2002). Additionally, Mitchell and Sackney (2001) in their studies of learning communities argue that “school people are central to questions of educational practice, change, and improvement; they are the ones charged with the tasks of identifying and confronting the problems and mysteries of professional practices” (p.1). Given the current emphasis of standards-based reform and high stakes accountability, systems targeting this type of change recognize that reflective educational discourse by “school people” must become a part of the school’s culture (Dunne & Honts, 1998; Lieberman, 1995) in order to deepen student learning and improve teacher pedagogical practices.

With the introduction of No Child Left Behind (2001) paired with state accountability pressures, the current context of high stakes is spreading quickly across the nation and the on-set of this policy is reshaping the work of educators. States and school systems are clamoring to identify possible actions to address these policy challenges within their schools. Varying responses to these policy initiatives are emerging. Some school systems are electing to mandate curriculum that “better” prepares students for the state test. Fewer systems are recognizing the short-sightedness of mandated curriculum and the importance of authentically engaging teachers in the response to these accountability challenges. Still other systems are trying to do both,

mandate curriculum while at the same time encouraging teachers to engage in professional learning communities (PLCs). Florida is one state leading the way in both the infusion of high stakes accountability related to curriculum and instruction while simultaneously calling for professional learning communities through state policy (1.1.6 Florida Department of Education). As a result of these parallel initiatives, educators working in Florida schools can offer lessons related to the realities of these initiatives for children and teachers.

Given four years of PLC study within a large Florida school system, we wondered what new insights we have into the infusion of professional learning community's within a context of high stakes accountability? This study reports what we learned by studying the work of PLCs in the third scenario, where a school system both mandates much of its curriculum while at the same time encourages teacher participation in professional learning communities as a tool for helping schools respond to accountability pressures.

Background

This study of the Broward County learning communities is a part of a larger study supported by the Lucent Foundation of four school districts representing geographically and demographically diverse contexts within the United States. Other contexts included Albuquerque, NM; Lancaster, PA; and Seattle, WA. The larger research project resulted from a Lucent Foundation Grant acquired by Dr. Betty Lou Whitford, director of NCREST, located at Teachers College. This grant later moved with Dr. Whitford to the University of Southern Maine and became a project of the Collaborative Inquiry and Development Group.

The Broward County Public School System (BCPSS) is one of the largest school systems in the United States with over 260,000 students and over 200 schools. As one of the fastest growing districts in the nation, the district possesses a unique combination of urban and suburban

students. The diversity of students represents over 150 countries and 57 languages. This large school system is faced with many challenges in meeting the diverse needs of students and as a result a vast and highly bureaucratic organizational structure exists.

In order to understand the emerging stories of the PLC work, an understanding of the intense accountability that Broward County teachers faced each day is essential. In line with many other states, Florida legislated the “A Plus” school improvement program to measure school effectiveness through the Florida Comprehensive Assessment Test (FCAT). Florida’s high stakes testing model, linking students’ test scores to school funding and pupil advancement has affected school policies and practices in ways unforeseen by policymakers (George, 2003).

As a result of the accountability movement, the FCAT test has become a pivotal factor in making educational policy decisions at the state, district, and school level. Most teachers in this context felt tremendous pressure to teach the FCAT content which in turn has significantly influenced curriculum and teacher decision-making. The teachers described the test as "hanging over their heads." The influence test results have on the future of Broward County teachers and students made the FCAT a high stress test that affected the morale of the school.

Morale has gone down more this year because of the FCAT. There is more stress and anxiety. FCAT makes good teachers feel that they are not worthy. I think that

the whole accountability push is to get rid of bad teachers. Unfortunately, it is having the opposite effect. (Interview, 2001)

Several teachers spoke of how the test stress affected them, their teaching, and their students.

I was one of those people who became very stressed by [FCAT]. I think I sacrificed some of the creativity and warmth that I would have used; I got very business-like, and I may have made some of the kids stressed and tense.

(Interview, 2001)

This study began with the infusion of learning communities into the smallest zone within the Broward County Public School System (BCPSS). This zone consisted of one high school, and four feeder schools. This zone was selected, in part, because it had a history of work with the Coalition of Essential Schools (CES, 2005), a reform initiative consistent with many of the PLC's conceptual underpinnings. During the first year, each school within the zone established one or more PLC groups consisting of 10-15 voluntary members per group and these groups met one to three hours each month throughout the year. During years two and three, the number of PLCs expanded within each school and by the end of year three each of the five schools within the Innovation Zone claimed 90-100% participation. By year three, only 36% of the PLC participants defined their monthly participation as mandated, most of the PLCs possessed the same internal coach, and membership remained steady throughout the entire life of the PLC. The PLC internal coaches were school-based volunteers who were trained by external NSRF coaches who possessed experience engaging professional educators in dialogue and reflection. Overtime, the internal coaches' pool expanded to include new coaches each year and the external coach gradually withdrew from his role. Eventually, the external coach was replaced by the

HRD PLC program director who then worked directly with school-based coaches and principals to move the work more deeply into the system.

Upon the completion of the first three years of the Lucent funded PLC work, the BCPSS Human Resource Department (HRD) began disseminating the PLC work to other zones within the county. This local effort was timely as it paralleled the state's new initiative to mandate PLC into the state's call for job-embedded professional development:

Learning communities are small groups of faculty who meet regularly to study more effective learning and teaching practices. These groups are considered learning communities if they identify new programs or topics to investigate, gather research and studies on new approaches, and share their findings, or implement and study the effectiveness of new practices and share these results with other faculty in the school.

(1.1.6 Florida Department of Education)

The movement to other zones began with the development of schools considered "ready" for PLC work. These conditions included: 1) a principal who understands and supports job-embedded professional development, 2) schools with an interest in participating, and 3) schools with an identified area of need.

This study examined professional learning community activities over a four-year period which consisted of a blending of National School Reform Faculty (NSRF) structures which emphasized critical friends groups (CFGs), a movement toward collaborative inquiry as the centerpiece of the PLC work, and an on-going effort to shape these elements to fit the local context. Learning communities were initially defined by NSRF as small groups of educators within the school collaboratively involved in improving their teaching practices. Early in the development effort, teachers described PLC work as:

People coming together, helping each other with their work by listening and presenting their perspectives. To make this possible, members have learned procedures to keep dialogue nonjudgmental and respectful. Two heads are better than one in generating self improvement is the premise. (Interview, 12-2002)

An LC is a forum for teachers and administrators to meet where the walls of isolation that are so prevalent in most schools are broken down. It allows the sharing of ideas and support for common work and goals. (Interview, 10-2002)

Recognizing that teachers needed to move beyond creating a collaborative and safe culture to infusing a shared focus and acquiring a set of shared tools for systematic study, collaborative inquiry was introduced as a unifying component for PLC work. Collaborative inquiry required systematic and intentional study of a shared question using the inquiry cycle (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993; Dana & Yendol-Silva, 2003). Once PLC groups were able to integrate the NSRF and the inquiry focus, the collaborative inquiry work was shaped to support the local context. The study recognizes the importance of understanding the essential conditions that facilitate PLC work as well as the tensions associated with enacting professional learning communities within an context of intense educational accountability.

Methods

Using an across-case analysis (Merriam, 1998), this four-year qualitative study provides insight into PLC development across the Broward County schools beginning within one zone and then expanding the PLC work to other zones within the county. The questions driving this study included: 1) How are practitioners defining PLC work, 2) What conditions facilitate PLC work, and 3) How do practitioners capture the impact of their PLC work on student learning?

In my role as external documenter and to some extent participant observer of the learning community efforts, I was afforded the opportunity for prolonged engagement as I visited with the participants approximately four times each year. During these visits, I informally and formally interviewed zone administrators, HRD personnel, internal PLC coaches, teachers, principals, and the external coach. Data was also gathered through on-going email conversations with key participants, field notes maintained during the researcher's school visits, and meeting *Reflections* provided by the individual PLCs. In addition, locally generated PLC documents, district documents, external coach documents, and funder documents served as data for this study. Triangulation (Patton, 2002) occurred through both formative and summative sense-making of the participants.

As I sorted through this data, I explored the unfolding of this reform initiative using Wenger's (1998) four dimensions- identity, meaning, community, and practice- as lenses for the analysis and tools for paying deliberate attention to the impacts of institutional policy and accountability on the LC work. Drawing on Bronfenbrenner (1979), I also used four contextual lenses to identify themes at the: state level, zone level, school level, PLC group level, and individual classroom level. Data analysis consisted of many readings and rereadings of data throughout the data collection process to identify emerging themes and categories (Patton, 2002). After identifying these emerging themes, I shared the themes and deliberated with the district PLC program coordinator to craft the "lesson learned" about PLC work within Broward County.

Findings

The following three assertions, described in Table 1, emerged from our collaborative analysis and our naming of these assertions drew on examples of both successful and unsuccessful PLC efforts within the county.

Assertion One: While all along the PLCs targeted improving student learning, the work of PLCs moved from “multiple and contended” to “singular and shared.”

The infusion of this collaborative form of teacher learning into Broward County’s HRD work, led us to witness how practitioners struggled to define PLC activity. The definition was critical given the immediate confusion existing between the *work of a committee* and the *work of a professional learning community*. In analyzing various groups’ activities, a variety of categories emerged that differentiated “committee” work as focused on decision making surrounding a specific dilemma from “learning community” work guided by a shared inquiry which guides an on-going, reflection-oriented effort to change teacher practice and student learning. The distinction, between the equally essential work of committees and learning communities, became a part of the training offered to principals, coaches, and participants alike. A further exploration of this distinction is provided in Table 2.

In other groups, PLCs worked primarily on creating a safe environment and enhancing morale. Creating a safe environment focused on building a trusted professional community and highlighted the teachers’ voiced need for safety and support as they worked within a context characterized by intense accountability pressures. This trust and support, in many ways, provided the foundation for the development of professional learning communities. Simultaneously, other PLC work emerged that focused on morale boosting. In most cases, PLC participants indicated that the intensity and stress associated with the current high stakes testing movement in Florida substantially lowered morale and placed teachers in a survival mode. The PLCs served a central role in countering that deflated feeling associated with low morale.

Although the safety and morale goals of PLC work were essential to enhancing teacher job satisfaction, focusing on only these types of activities left many teachers and administrators

wondering how this collaborative and time intensive work could more deeply influence teacher and student learning. As a result, the work of PLCs shifted towards cultivating professional dialogue around the use of protocols (NSRF, 2005). When protocols became the centerpiece of the work, professional conversations began to thrive around isolated topics but these groups did not appear to have a shared focus and sometimes lost energy.

As the PLC groups experimented with the protocols, they continued to wonder how the work would move beyond supporting and developing teachers' dialogue and practice to supporting and developing students within the teachers' classrooms. This need to document student learning shifted the focus towards cultivating a problem solving and innovation stance targeted at collaborative inquiry that could document any impact on student learning.

In sum, throughout the study, each of these activities seemed to be considered PLC work and as a result, the work was defined *in multiple ways* and often contended among participants. Eventually, the HRD PLC director defined PLC work as teacher collaboration that addresses the following guiding question:

How do we create/support learning communities that are sufficiently powerful to produce change in both educator practice and student learning?

As a result of these multiple perspectives and this guiding question that focused their on-going work, the Broward PLC's defined their work using the characteristics noted in Table 3. These characteristics clarified the unique work of PLCs for future participants and set the work apart from the work of committees.

Assertion Two: When inquiry becomes the vehicle of teacher collaboration within a PDC, the process utilized, participation obtained, and the size/focus of the question matters.

The Broward work, uncovered a variety of conditions- the process, the participants, and the question- that influenced the PLC work. First, collaborative inquiry became the process that ultimately proved influential in responding to the HRD program director's guiding question. Table 4 outlines the cycle of inquiry that unfolded in PLCs focused on making deliberate changes in classroom practice paired with a tool for documenting those changes. As indicated earlier, PLCs that focused only on safety, morale, protocols, and committee work, never reached the goal of enacting changes in professional practice that could be captured in learning gains for students. Each PLC varied in its maturation and many PLCs never reached the collaborative inquiry goal.

In addition to the specification of a process that matters, participants mattered. Essential to the work of a PLC was a supportive principal, a strong internal coach, PLC members who were interested in job-embedded professional development, and an external critical friend. The principal's knowledge and understanding of the meaning of PLC work was essential. Without this understanding, principals often asked PLCs to engage in committee work or failed to provide adequate time for PLC collaboration. Additionally, the internal coach needed to have a clear understanding of the PLC work as well as be skilled in both facilitation and organization. Without these qualities, the PLC work often never reached the collaborative inquiry goal, lost focus, or failed to make timely progress. The motivation and interest level of the PLC participants were equally as important. When participants understood the PLC work, had passion for the shared question, and possessed a positive disposition toward job-embedded learning, the PLC group thrived. Finally, some form of external pressure needed to be present to provoke questioning within the individual PLCs. Initially this external pressure came from the external coach. However, once the external coach removed himself from direct interaction with

the individual PLCs, the pressure often came from the HRD project director, the principal, or the outside documenter.

Finally, the size and the focus of the inquiry question mattered. Substantial effort was made to help PLCs generate a question that was within their sphere of influence, shared, and focused on a school need. Table 5 offers an outline for inquiry question development by making a distinction between broad, guiding, and narrow questions. This typology emerged from ongoing frustration experienced by groups as they tried to state, study, and capture changes in teacher and student learning. Additionally, the typology helped the groups link their individual questions together to create a synergy in the overarching area noted in the broad question. The broad question offered the members a shared area of need. This typology, in combination with knowledgeable participants and the collaborative inquiry process mattered and these characteristics were present in PLCs focused on changing teacher practice and student learning.

Assertion Three: After four years of collaborative study, teachers reported an escalated sense of satisfaction with their own professional learning yet changes in student learning related to PLC collaboration remain elusive.

During the last four years in Broward, researchers and practitioners sought to capture the impact of their PLC work on student learning. To the researchers, specific changes in teacher learning were captured using a self-report questionnaire as well as qualitative data collected in PLC meetings. These data types served useful in crafting stories of teacher growth and narratives about teacher's perceptions of the changes for children. However, no data was identified or collected by the researcher that could explicitly identify changes in children's learning resulting from the teacher's participation in the PLC.

A number of reasons contribute to this dilemma. First, identifying specific practices that changed as a result of PLC work appeared difficult due to the time lag between discussion of idea and systematic implementation. Additionally, isolating the impact of the participants' work from other on-going school and classroom level changes, was not possible without denying children within the school access to the powerful pedagogy they were exploring. As a result, the practitioners had to rely on their inquiry and related classroom data to identify changes in children's learning. As indicated, even after 4 years of systematic study, the researchers were still too far away from the classroom teacher to capture clear ties between PLC work, teacher learning, and changes for students. The four years of study only skimmed the surface capturing the process but missing the mark of student learning.

Discussion: Questions I am pondering

- *Does the system have a mechanism in place to engage administrators in learning community experiences that push them beyond understanding the concept to knowing the work?*
- *How can a system provide both pressure and support around the learning community work?*
- *Should PLCs be fixed solidly on educational improvements explicitly linked to school achievement goals?*
- *How can we ensure critical reflection, careful observation, attention to diversity, and dialogue within these groups?*
- *How can we document the kinds of changes for students that result for PLC work?*

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Table 1. Lessons learned for PLC development

PLC Assertions	
<p><i>Assertion One:</i> Within a single district effort to infuse learning communities targeted at improving student learning, the focus and activities of professional learning communities became multiple and contended.</p>	<p><i>Shared understanding matters-</i> <i>Examples:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> Social gathering/support network that facilitates innovation of practice <input type="checkbox"/> Shared reading group (ex. book clubs, text-based discussions) that leads to new knowledge and new action <input type="checkbox"/> Collaborative inquiry into own practice <p><i>Non-examples:</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> Shared decision-making (ex. district, school & grade-level committees) <input type="checkbox"/> Curriculum development (ex. units) <input type="checkbox"/> Collaborative inquiry into others' practice
<p><i>Assertion Two:</i> When inquiry becomes the vehicle of teacher collaboration within a PDC, process, participation, size, and focus matters.</p>	<p><i>Process matters-</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> Building trust <input type="checkbox"/> Defining a shared question contributes to trust <input type="checkbox"/> Following cycle <input type="checkbox"/> Sharing data broadly <p><i>Participants matter-</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> Requires principal support <input type="checkbox"/> Requires skilled internal coaches <input type="checkbox"/> Requires teachers who recognize power of the process <input type="checkbox"/> Requires a critical friend/external coach <p><i>Size of question matters-</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> Doable <input type="checkbox"/> Measurable <p><i>Focus matters-</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> Academic needs of school <input type="checkbox"/> Teacher passion for question
<p><i>Assertion Three:</i> After four years of collaboration and study, teachers report an escalated sense of satisfaction with their own professional learning yet changes in student learning related to PLC collaboration remain elusive.</p>	<p><i>Teacher learning-</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> Teachers appreciate job-embedded nature of learning <input type="checkbox"/> Teachers appreciate opportunity for collegiality <input type="checkbox"/> Group accountability drives cycle <p><i>Student learning-</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <input type="checkbox"/> Enhanced data and assessment literacy needed to document student learning

Table 2. Distinguishing school committees from PLCs

CATEGORY	COMMITTEE	LEARNING COMMUNITY	BOTH
Purpose	Specific dilemma to be solved	Shared area of inquiry guides purpose	Results driven /Focus on improvement
Duration	Ends when purpose is reached	On-going cycle of self-study	Identified purpose
Focus	Concern for teacher participation in resolution	Concern for member changes in practice	Action focused
Process	Decision-oriented	Reflection-oriented	Shared need
Leadership	Designated Leader/Chairperson	Facilitator/Shared responsibility	Direction
Tone	Formal	Informal	Dialogue
Use of Data	Focus on identified need	Focus on student data	Documentation
Roles	Constant roles	Shifting roles	Emphasize role of teacher
Structure	Meeting structure determined by tradition or leaders/businesslike	Meeting structure determined by members/sharing	Both have an agenda
Membership	Hierarchy	Team-based	Definite membership
Goals	Specific goals- Definitive/concrete	Goals evolve-Inquiry based	Exploration of goals
Time	Specific time period	On-going	Scheduled meetings
Feeling	“Worker Bees”	Ownership	Teacher participation
Individual/Group	Consensus needed	Individual voice encouraged	Collaborative
Time	Meet as needed	Continuous	Job-embedded

Table 3: Defining characteristics of a learning community

Defining Questions	Illustration
Is the group characterized by a sense of trust and safety?	Group works toward creating a culture characterized by safety and trust by developing shared norms of agreed upon expectations for behaving and operating. This includes creating a context for risk-taking and conflict exploration.
Does the PLC possess a problem posing and problem solving culture?	Group feels comfortable raising problems of practice and is skilled in their ability to collaboratively problem solve. This creates an inquiry stance in the way the group members conceptualize their work.
Does the PLC address a “shared” focus based on a “shared need?”	Group uses multiple types of data to work together to develop a collaborative inquiry related to a shared school need.
Is there passion associated with the question?	Group members believe that the question is important and relevant as well as feel a sense of passion and commitment to the question.
Does your learning community embrace diverse thinking?	Group seeks out diversity of opinion around questions and takes explicit steps to avoid “group think.”
Is the PLC’s work systematic, intentional, and inquiry-based?	Group continually collects and analyzes relevant data to drive decisions and take actions to accomplish the goals. The inquiry process assures continuous improvement with an emphasis on documenting change.
Is the PLC’s work collaborative?	Based on research, group collaborates on curriculum, instruction, and assessment directly related to the established goals and focus. There is ongoing problem solving on how to address student needs beyond individual classrooms.
Does the PLC member make changes in their personal practice?	Group members document and share the changes in their professional practice.
Does the PLC work have the potential to influence school improvement? Are the changes and the processes made public in some way?	The group’s questions ties to overarching school improvement goals. Group members examine student work, teacher practice, and classroom data with appropriate tools including protocols and data analysis instruments. Modeling and peer coaching are evident. Evidence exists that critical feedback is used to improve teacher practice.
Is the question/focus of the PLC within your “sphere of influence?”	Group selects a collaborative inquiry question that they can have the necessary “say-so” in to make the necessary changes and study those changes.
Does the PLC work tie to student learning? How?	Group selects an inquiry question that connects to student learning and can provide a rationale for this work.

Table 4. Cycle of collaborative inquiry for PLC work – Graphic omitted; contact author for more information

QuickTime™ and a
TIFF (LZW) decompressor
are needed to see this picture.

Table 5: Stages to identifying an inquiry question that matters
 Drawn from Broward County PLC work under the direction of Terry Campanella

Level of Question	Description	Example
Broad questions	Emerges from an overall school goal	“How can we improve student reading?”
Guiding questions	Anchors a group in shared inquiry	“How can we improve student’s reading comprehension?”
	Form the basis for long-range action plans	
Narrow questions	Personalized and specific Relate back to the broader questions	“How can I improve my student’s sense of language structure?”
	<i>Evolves</i> Specifically ties to your students’ learning/your teaching practice	

*Coaching the coaches: Cultivating the knowledge, skills, and attributes
needed to coach for social justice*

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Objectives

The purpose of my dissertation research is to understand what happens to coaches (college fieldwork advisors) as they engage in professional development targeted at implementing a reflective coaching cycle (Cogan, 1973; Goldhammer, 1969; Nolan & Hoover, 2004) aimed at prompting preservice teachers' engagement in critical reflection around issues of social justice (ex. issues related to race, class, gender, ability, culture, and language). This dissertation will be the second phase of a three phase research project.

- ❖ *Phase one:* My own self study engaging in coaching cycles with one preservice teacher to better understand how to engage in critical reflection about issues of social justice. (Fall 2005)
- ❖ *Phase two:* To provide professional development for coaches (college fieldwork advisors) interested in implementing a coaching cycle focused on critical reflection about issues of social justice and studying what happens to these coaches' development. (*Dissertation-Fall 2006*)
- ❖ *Phase three:* To study what happens to preservice teachers' abilities to critically reflect about issues of social justice (including facilitators and inhibitors) while engaging in several coaching cycles with the coaches from phase two.

The overall goal of engaging in this type of coaching is to make classrooms more equitable by equalizing the playing field so all students have a chance to be successful learners. Feedback from scholars in the field of supervision would be very beneficial as I begin writing the introductory chapters and planning the overall research design for my dissertation. The research questions guiding my dissertation include:

- 1) What happens to coaches as they engage in professional development (collaborative dialogue, shared readings, video cases of the coaching cycle, and self-study of their own coaching) targeted at prompting critical reflection about issues of social justice?
- 2) What happens to coaches' thinking and ability to engage in critical reflection after engaging in professional development activities with other coaches?
- 3) What happens to coaches' thinking and beliefs about supervision as they interact and engage in dialogue about coaching for social justice?
- 4) What are the inhibitors and facilitators to this preparation process?

Rationale

My rationale for engaging in this study and investigating issues of social justice in schools is that schools are becoming increasingly more diverse in terms of race, ethnicity, social class, and language while 90% of public school teachers are white and not from an ethnic/racial minority group (Villegas & Lucas, 2002). Therefore, many novice teachers experience a "cultural mismatch" as they walk into classrooms with students who have extremely different life experiences and backgrounds from their own (Achinstein & Barrett, 2004; Zeichner, 1992). Within these changing demographics are disparities in educational outcomes for students that have or do not have certain advantages related to race, socioeconomic status, language, ability, and culture (Gay, 1998; Villegas & Lucas, 2002). Due to fewer resources, lack of funding, inadequate facilities, and unqualified teachers, poor and minority children often receive an inferior education compared to children from upper and middle socioeconomic classes (Kozol, 1991). Teacher

education programs will need to find ways to “sensitize and enable prospective teachers to understand diversity and to develop an equity-oriented pedagogy” that provides all students with an equal chance of success (Darling-Hammond, French, & Garcia-Lopez, 2002, p.1).

One area of teacher education that must reform to include a focus on this diversity and inequity is the supervision of preservice teachers during their field experiences. Field advisors within teacher education programs are often unprepared to support teachers to supervise to these ends (Davidman, 1990). Coaching for social justice provides a way to address issues of inequity within schools and allow for a more equalized playing field in classrooms. This study will provide an opportunity to study how to prepare field placement supervisors so they can support teachers to rise up and help all students be successful learners.

Theoretical Framework

After a thorough review of the literature, only a handful of articles could be identified as relating to coaching for social justice. These articles within the supervision literature included topics related to multicultural (Abt-Perkins, Hauschildt, & Dale, 2000; Davidman, 1990; Grant & Zozakiewicz, 1995; Page, 2003), critical (Smyth, 1985, 1988; Zeichner & Tabachnick, 1982), and culturally responsive supervision (Bowers & Flinders, 1991; Gay, 1998). Even though these orientations may have slight differences, they all advocate questioning and problematizing the present conditions of schooling and teaching. Some of these orientations advocate attending to issues of equity in relation to race, class, ethnicity, language, or gender. In addition, examining how teaching and school practices are embedded within and linked to the greater social and political

context. One major concept that these orientations advocate as a tool for supervision is the promotion of critical reflection within preservice teachers. Critical reflection involves thinking about the effects of one's actions on others, taking the broader historical, social, and/or political context into account, and making practice problematic (Hatton & Smith, 1995). While some of these orientations have allegiances to the field of multicultural education or culturally responsive pedagogy, my definition for coaching for social justice focuses on creating a more just society in which all have an equal chance for success.

My efforts to create a framework of coaching for social justice emerges from the clinical supervision (Cogan, 1973; Goldhammer, 1969) and reflective supervision/coaching (Nolan & Hoover, 2004) literature. After engaging in a literature review about types of supervision that have elements related to social justice and looking at the literature on reflective coaching, I created a coaching cycle for social justice (See Appendix A). This cycle contains the overall elements from Cogan (1973) and Goldhammer's (1969) cycle of clinical supervision (conferencing about teaching platform, pre-conference, observation, post-conference, and cycle reflection), however, added are questions or prompts to help push the teacher's thinking about issues of equity (See Appendix A). This cycle is still very teacher centered and begins with the teacher setting a purpose and data collection method for observation. However, the coach for social justice has some influence by trying to frame the teacher's concerns along dimensions of social justice and looking for issues of equity during the observation.

While enacting supervision, a supervisor or coach is guided by certain values, assumptions, beliefs, and opinions that support the purpose and process of supervision (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002). This can be described as the supervisor's platform or

philosophy of supervision (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002). Even though all supervisors may have different platforms that guide their work, someone coaching for social justice would have specific knowledge, skills, and dispositions that would steer their work. After a review of the literature related to coaching, social justice and critical reflection I articulate the elements found on a coach for social justice's platform to be: the dispositional qualities of advocating for social justice and being a change agent, knowledge of culturally responsive teaching (Ladson-Billings, 1994; Villegas & Lucas, 2002), knowledge about the politics of schooling, and the skill of coaching for critical reflection. The knowledge, skills, and dispositions serve as the underpinnings or foundation on which this type of coaching is built and those that I hope to help develop and foster during my dissertation work with coaches.

Successes and Challenges of Pilot Study

In order to prepare for my dissertation, I am currently conducting a pilot study (*phase one*) exploring how to use a coaching cycle to engage a preservice teacher in critically reflective dialogue about issues of social justice and equity during her field experience. Even though it is early in this study, I am already noticing some elements that I must consider for my dissertation. My first concern is related to sampling. The preservice teacher who volunteered to be in my study is currently engaged in a field experience focused on learning to teach in high poverty schools and self-selected to do so. My participant decided to be a part of this study because she has an interest in exploring issues of equity and culturally responsive pedagogy. Therefore, her focuses for coaching often naturally revolve around issues of equity since she is confronted with this everyday in her classroom and has a personal interest. What accommodations need to be

made when a participant does not have an interest or feel that issues of social justice are important? Should the coaches have participants volunteer that are specifically interested in issues of equity or should they choose participants where coaching might lead to recognizing and understanding these issues?

Another issue is related to context. My participant is currently interning in a very diverse school with the school population consisting of nearly 100% African American students. Will preservice teachers in less diverse contexts think that issues of equity are not such a factor since there is not such a diverse racial make-up? My participant also has a great deal of content knowledge because her internship is accompanied by a seminar that includes readings, projects, and discussions related to race, class, ethnicity, and culturally responsive pedagogy. What happens when the preservice teacher does not have background knowledge related to issues of social justice or equity? How can the coach help the preservice teacher build this knowledge? Finally, I am a coach committed to social justice and read extensively on subjects related to equity. Even though the coaches will volunteer to be in this study and will engage in professional development meetings, they will be at various levels of developing the knowledge, skills, and attributes to be a coach for social justice. Therefore, many issues may arise that did not occur in my pilot study.

Even though it is early in the study I am already noticing some successes. Reflecting after each stage of the coaching cycle instead of waiting until the end of the entire cycle has resulted in an experience very responsive to my participant's individual needs. For example, after the pre-conference reflection she commented that she hoped we would brainstorm some more concrete ideas together. Therefore, after analyzing data

during the post-conference we dialogued about actual concrete ideas she might try. Focusing on how the preservice teacher's beliefs/experiences may be in conflict with the experiences and beliefs of her students/families has been extremely powerful. These experiences become a topic we continually return to while reflecting in pre-and post-conferences for why she has made certain instructional decisions. Topics for the focus of observations have included student engagement and holding challenging expectations for students. These topics are a very natural tie in with issues of social justice and student learning that can reflect upon while looking at the data during the post-conference.

Research Design

My dissertation study will build upon this pilot by using what I have learned to help other field advisors/coaches learn how to enact this same type of coaching and studying their development through this process. Therefore, I will recruit four field advisor's interested in coaching for social justice that are currently engaging in field supervision with preservice teachers. The coaches will then engage in bi-monthly professional development meetings to prepare for coaching. Professional development experiences will include: relevant readings on issues such as culturally responsive pedagogy and social justice (race, class, ethnicity, gender, and ability), learning about the coaching cycle, reviewing videos of coaching in action, practicing by viewing teaching episodes, engaging in reflective dialogue, and self-study. One of the goals of this professional development will be to help cultivate the knowledge, skills, and attributes necessary to enact coaching for social justice. These coaches will then go out into the field and coach a preservice teacher. Therefore, the bi-monthly meetings may move from

a focus on professional development to dialogue related to the coaches' successes, questions, and tensions as they begin coaching this preservice teacher.

A variety of data collection methods will be used throughout this study. I will conduct initial and ending interviews with each coach. I will also videotape all bi-monthly meeting and professional development sessions with the coaches and keep a researcher's journal. Finally, I will collect the coaches' own reflections on their growth through reflection journals and reflections at the end of our meetings. The coaches will also collect data by videotaping all parts of their coaching cycle and collecting documents from their work (teacher reflections, their own reflection journal, student work, or lesson plans). This data will be used for phase three of the study. Finally, I hope to engage in joint data analysis with my participants at the end of this study.

Areas for Feedback

I would especially benefit from feedback in the following areas:

Methodological

- Are there additional ideas for collecting data during my professional development work and meetings with the coaches?
- What are some possible methods for data analysis and advice on engaging in analysis with my participants?
- Should the data that coaches collect about their coaching cycles with the preservice teacher during phase 2 be used at all in analysis or should this be saved for phase three of the study?

Conceptual

- What other experiences/activities/readings would be beneficial for coaches during professional development?
- What are other scholars in the area of supervision doing to address diversity and issues of social justice in their own work? Is this a viable area of concern for the future of supervision/coaching?

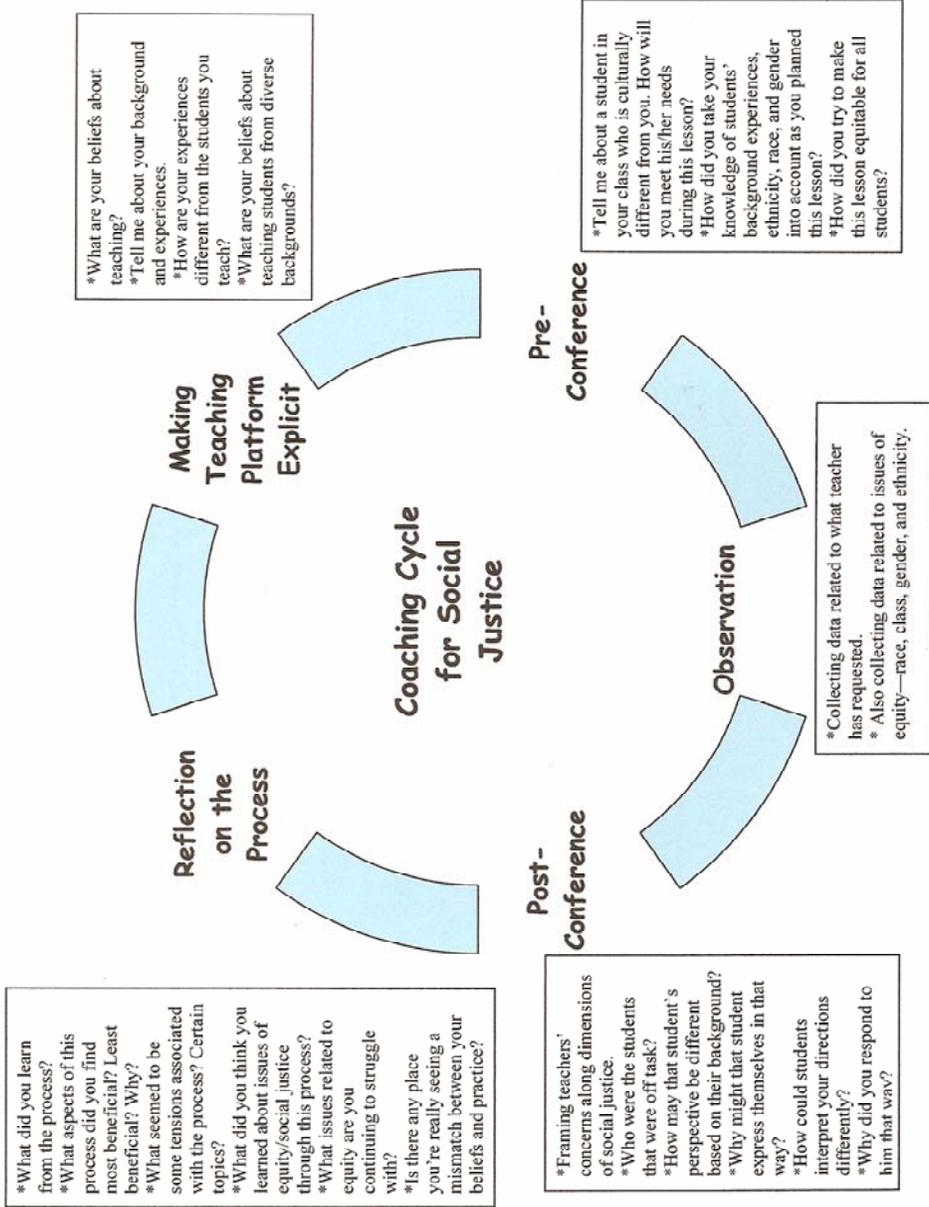
Conclusion

The diversity and inequities in this country's classrooms are not going to simply disappear, but will increase in the years to come. If the goal of teacher education is to prepare teachers to maintain the status quo and the continual reproduction of social inequities, then maybe coaching for social justice is not the right choice. However, if the goal of teacher education is to create teachers who are working toward the success of all students and the possibility of a more equitable future, then it is a step in the right direction.

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Whither Supervision?

by

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Whither Supervision?

Earlier this summer, I found myself in Mexico City, in the graduate school library of the UNAM—La Universidad Nacional Autónoma de México. There they had an exhibit on the Person of the Century (La Persona del Siglo), dedicated to Albert Einstein. Many of Einstein's accomplishments and biographical details were already familiar to me, though many were not. For instance, I had no idea he was both a contemporary and correspondent with Sigmund Freud and the great Mexican muralist Diego Rivera.

All of us know Einstein's famous equation, $E=mc^2$; in fact, and this was a point brought home by this exhibit, this equation is the most well-known equation in the world. If someone only knows one scientific equation, it's likely to be this one, the basis for the theory of relativity.

What, you might ask, has this to do with supervision? The title of my talk is a simple question: Whither supervision? And, as my students are aware, and you might be as well, I'm prone to compound the simplest of issues. I let it slip once in a class I was teaching with my colleague and teacher, Ray Bruce, here, at the University of Georgia, that I had my bachelor's degree in philosophy. Well, you can imagine, Ray never passed up an opportunity to rib me about that. Still, in my time in the philosophy program at the University of Michigan, I learned only one philosophy joke, which is this: What do philosophers do when they find themselves on the horns of a dilemma? Answer: Shoot the bull! And this, dear friends, is what I'll mostly be doing in the short time I have to address my relatively simple question: Whither supervision?

As my students know, ask me a question and you'll most likely get two answers: a long one, which they patiently sit through to get to my second answer, the short one. Out of deference to you, my esteemed colleagues, I'll give you the short answer first, for those who are in a hurry to get to the point: It depends. There, that's the point I wanted to make, and if I had any sense at all, I'd leave it at that; but I've never been accused of having any sense, so I'll fumble on.

“It depends,” or as Einstein taught us, observations, even reality itself, is dependent upon location (i.e., perspective) and speed or velocity relative to the other. And this is the reason I bored you with the Einstein anecdote earlier, to get to this important point in my thesis: That the direction and rate of movement (velocity or any type of change for my purposes) depends on one’s perspective (location and movement, or lack thereof) relative to the phenomenon of interest, hence, the theory of relativity.

Therefore, to answer the deceptively simple question I put to you earlier—whither supervision—we will need to examine not just the phenomenon we’ve come to call supervision, but *our own position or positions* in and of themselves. I think this bears repeating: The answer to the question, whither supervision, depends, in part, on *our* individual and respective perspectives or positions. That is to say, where you see supervision going depends as much on you and your perspective as it does on any semblance of objective facts about supervision per se.

There needs to be at minimum three elements or foci to our analysis of the trends or historical trajectory (including future possibilities) of the field we know as supervision: 1) the domain itself (i.e., supervision); 2) the perceiver or knower (i.e., the supervision theorist, student, practitioner, supervisor, teacher leader, or administrator); and 3) the context(s).

Now, before I embark on this journey in and attempt to explicate these three concepts or facets of supervision and its trajectory, a caveat: Each of these three facets stand in dynamic relation to the other two. Each is contested or contestable—the domain, the perceiver, the context each have multiple, sometimes contradictory distinguishing features; features that might be thought to be salient, depending upon which version of the other elements is activated or made relevant. Though there are many ways to slice this pie, one might suffice as an example of what I mean by the dynamic interrelation of the three elements—the domain, the perceiver, and the context. Overly simplified, that example might look something like this: Someone prone to a positivist/objectivist ontology or disposition might see a simple linear progression of supervision

through an historical context characterized along one dimension, pick one, say evolving conceptions of data gathering, and its implications. (Or supervisors' roles in teacher development, or what have you.)

But, thankfully, people differ and are different—this is what we mean by diversity, and there are numerous ways to see or think about each of these three elements—the domain, the perceiver, and the context(s).

In order, as I have said, to begin to make sense of 'whither supervision,' we must, perforce, and first and foremost, take a look at where it is now; though again, I'll beseech you to keep in mind that each of these issues is open to multiple and differing perspectives (mine and yours, to begin with, but those possible perspectives multiply as we admit more people into the conversation). Also, owing to time and other limiting factors, this discussion of mine will be more cursory and evocative than exhaustive or thorough, for that I apologize in advance.

So, what about the three elements I spoke of as necessary to an understanding of where supervision might be headed—the domain, the perceiver and the contexts?

The Domain

It's all relative, to paraphrase Einstein.

That said, others have gestured at what supervision was/is or what it might entail. Ed Pajak (2000) has done a superb job of demonstrating this through his 'approaches to clinical supervision' text. Frances Bolin (nee Schoonmaker) and her co-author (Bolin & Panaritis, 1992), after culling the texts of the time, concluded that consensus around what supervision was, was elusive. However, they did assert that there were two areas around which a loose consensus could be constructed: 1) supervision is important; and, more to the point of this discussion, 2) "supervision is primarily concerned with the improvement of classroom practice for the benefit of students, regardless of what else may be entailed" (p. 31). Note, this work was published in 1992, before or at the beginning of the time when the linguistic or subjective turn and the various

'post' movements (post-modernism, post-structuralism, post-positivism, etc.) had been taken up or even had begun to have an impact on the field of education, let alone supervision (Waite, 1998). So, supervision theory has developed some since that time.

My friend and colleague, Steve Gordon, when I pressed him last week, responded that supervision had to do with assisting teachers (S. Gordon, personal communication, October 6, 2005). I still recall how my colleague and teacher, Ray Bruce, invoked my predecessor, Edith Grimsley's definition, one I've relayed many times to my students of supervision, that supervision is that which, if not attended to, will not get done.

Funny how we grow, how times change.

Having worked with both Keith Acheson and Meredith "Mark" Gall (Acheson & Gall, 1992), at The University of Oregon, when I joined The Department of Curriculum and Supervision at Georgia, I was, I admit, a bit myopic: I thought of supervision in terms of clinical supervision, what Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon (2004) term direct assistance to teachers. I was schooled by my early colleagues at Georgia, and not just by Ray Bruce and Jerry Firth, but by Ed Pajak, too, who related to me a bit of his own journey of coming to understand supervision; one I believed at the time paralleled my own. He let me know how he, too, had originally thought of supervision in terms of clinical supervision, but, himself under the tutelage of Ray Bruce and Jerry Firth, had expanded his conception of supervision to include staff development and curriculum development. Indeed, the supervision program at the University of Georgia included, among other courses, required courses in those areas—staff development, instructional development, curriculum development, and group development. Carl Glickman (1981) enshrined this program in his model of developmental supervision, adding, to his credit, the supervision task, area or function of action research, based on his early work with the Program for School Improvement.

Those of us who taught the introductory supervision course in Georgia's program used not only Ray Bruce and Edith Grimsley's (Grimsley & Bruce, 1982) text, but Oliva's (1989) *Supervision for Today's Schools*, as well. I still recall my epiphany one night as a result of one of the assignments we had for that course. The assignment, based on Oliva's supervision issue of whether principals were more supervisor or administrator, required our students to interview a principal and ask that question. In reporting back to class that night, one of my students said her informant had replied, "when I sit, I'm an administrator; and when I'm up, I'm a supervisor." This hit me, as one of my professors at Oregon would say, with the blinding flash of the obvious.

Though I agree with the early summary of the field by Bolin and Panaritis (1992) that consensus is/was hard to find, I would ask you to consider this, to keep this thought in mind as I develop my thesis: That nowhere and at no time did the field even remotely approximate the practice(s) advocated by the leading supervision theorists of the day. That, and that nowhere was the adoption of advocated supervisory theory or techniques (or what you will) uniform or even.

The Perceiver (The Knower/The Watcher)

At last year's COPIS meeting, I was introduced to the work of Schommer-Aikins (1998, 2000). Her work deals with epistemological beliefs; that is, beliefs about the nature of learning or knowledge of the world. I was immediately taken with the conceptual framework Schommer-Aikins proposed, as it seemed to me to hold the key for my making sense of one of my intellectual puzzlements, a crucial point in my praxis. Perhaps you've had a similar experience: As an elementary teacher, and now as a university professor, there are those particular students who stay with me, who concern or worry me long after they have moved on. One such student, for me, was a particularly hard-headed, obdurate student, who, in course reflections his instructor shared with our faculty, attacked our program (Waite, 2002), in fact, attacked university learning with a broad brush and most vehemently. I am sorry to say that this student later assumed the principalship of my local school for a time. (He's since moved on.) Still, and though I never had

this administrator in any of my classes, and perhaps because I allowed him to represent the general case, he and his criticisms have stayed with me. One of the questions I've struggled with, perhaps one we've all struggled with in one guise or another, being educators as we are at heart, is: What would cause someone, ostensibly a student, to be so closed-minded, so resistant to the growth opportunities graduate study could offer? And this from a student who is preparing to lead others' learning!

Though I still struggle with this issue, and it's converse—what intervention (i.e., learning or education or other experience) would help this student and students like him to grow beyond his current state?—my limited understanding of Schommer-Aikins' (1998, 2000) framework has shed light on these issues for me.

Briefly, Schommer (1994), describes five broad categories of epistemological beliefs, dimensions along which beliefs about learning cluster: the source of knowledge, the certainty of knowledge, the organization of knowledge, the control of learning, and the speed of learning. The *source of knowledge*, as a continuum, ranges from beliefs that “knowledge is handed down by omniscient authority” to those that “knowledge is reasoned out through objective and subjective means” (p. 301). The category of the *certainty of knowledge* reflects beliefs ranging from, for example, “knowledge is absolute to knowledge is constantly evolving” (p. 301). The epistemological belief category of the *organization of knowledge* covers beliefs ranging from the belief that “knowledge is compartmentalized to knowledge is highly integrated and interwoven” (p. 301). The category, *control of learning*, reflects beliefs ranging from “ability to learn is genetically predetermined to ability to learn is acquired through experience” and mutable (p. 301). Finally, the epistemological belief category of *speed of learning* has to do with beliefs ranging from “learning is quick or not-at-all to learning is a gradual process” (p. 301). Beliefs about knowledge/learning are complex and contested; that is, we might not agree, we might not hold the same perspective. Supervisors who hold differing views on any of these continua would

look at teaching differently. We here would do the same, view supervision differently depending on the views we hold as regards knowledge and learning.

Thinking about learning only adds to the complexity of what is supervision and where it might be heading. The preceding discussion highlights how the perceiver, the knower, the actor can be conceived of differently. There are, of course, theories of supervision which highlight the psychological or other dimension of the teacher, student or supervisor. This move of mine parallels Glickman, Gordon and Ross-Gordon's (2004) consideration of adult/teacher growth and development along several axes. Also, and in a similar vein as theirs, I will consider the contexts within which supervision occurs, but in a slightly different key.

The Contexts

Like the other two elements, this element can be sliced many ways, again depending on one's position or perspective. A critical theorist might look at how power circulates in society and how it both affects schools and operates within them (i.e., in both macro- and micropolitical respects). A sociologist from a different camp, perspective or position might look at how schools either reflect or help perpetuate social class or other, often, racial/ethnic inequalities (e.g., Bourdieu, Coleman or Ingersoll).

I revealed my take on this particular element (the contexts) last year, when I gave an initial and rudimentary overview of my germinating thoughts on the global social forces and institutions that influence education and, hence, how supervision is and can be done. (See Figure 1.)

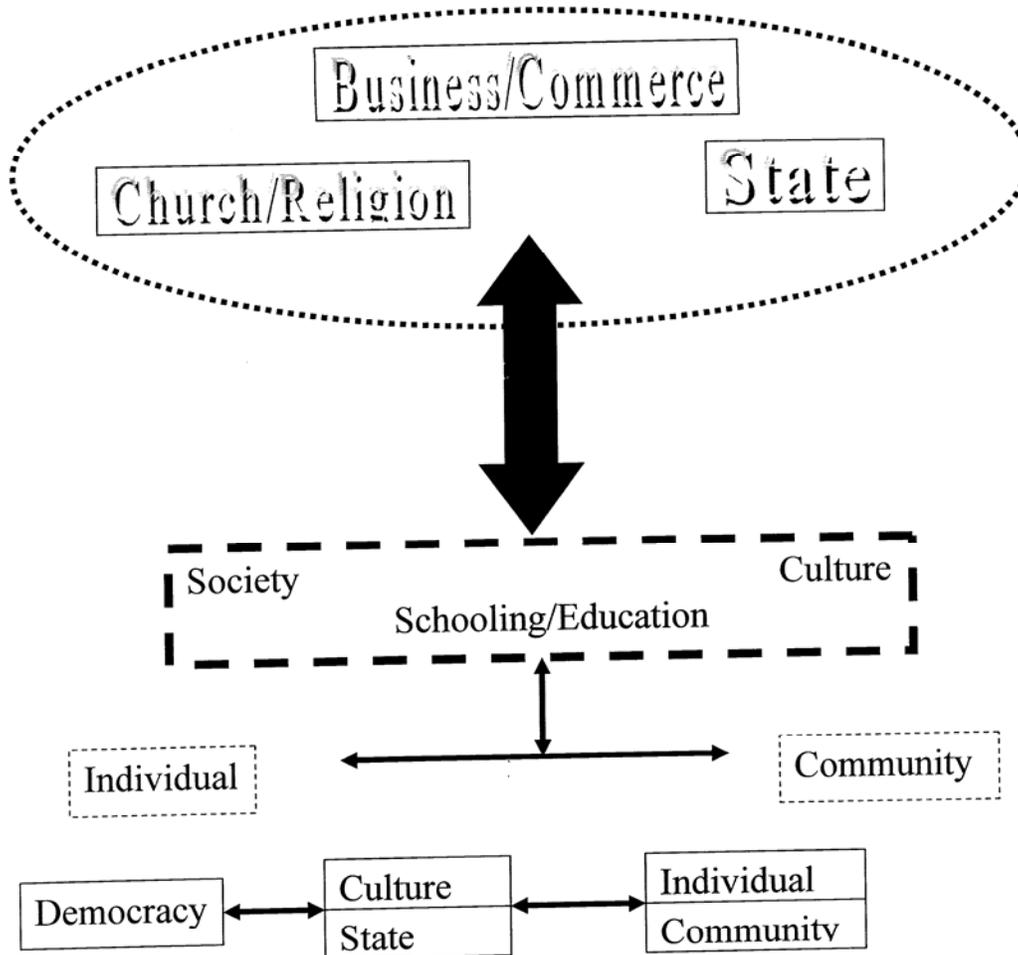


Figure 1. Global macro forces and their relation to schooling or education
 by D. Waite, L. Moos & C. Sugrue

I began to put my thoughts into graphic form in the time since. I have also enlisted two colleagues—Lejf Moos, of the Danish National University; and Ciaran Sugrue, from St. Patrick’s College, Dublin—in this project. (It’s amazing what dialogue can lend to any project.) Together, we’ve continued to put some meat on the bones of my original framework, or in some cases take different tacks altogether. For instance, I’ve been slightly troubled or dissatisfied by what I’ve felt were some shortcomings of my thinking that there were primarily three major social forces that had a disproportionate amount of influence on people, society, and through

them, schooling. These three major social forces are the state, the church and business. The reason for my unease?

Though at the time I felt confident that these three major social forces did, in fact, account for the majority of directional vectors or force exerted on or shaping or framing society, both at the global and the local levels, the model failed to account for other forces (e.g., forces of nature such as the tsunami, the hurricanes that hit the US recently, and the earthquake that hit Pakistan and India)—forces that appear to be super-institutional, forces which the major social forces or institutions can but react to, and often poorly. Other sources of my unease concerning the static, rigid or incomplete nature of the earlier model have to do with both the nature of models, in general, and this particular model's unresponsiveness to varied local conditions.

For example, my Danish colleague was quite adamant in replacing the category of the church or religion with civil society, for religion doesn't play as large a role in public life in Denmark and much of Europe as it does in the US and elsewhere. In consultation, we're trying to revise and refine our model to reflect more accurately his concerns and, through the process, make our model more broadly applicable (see Figure 2).

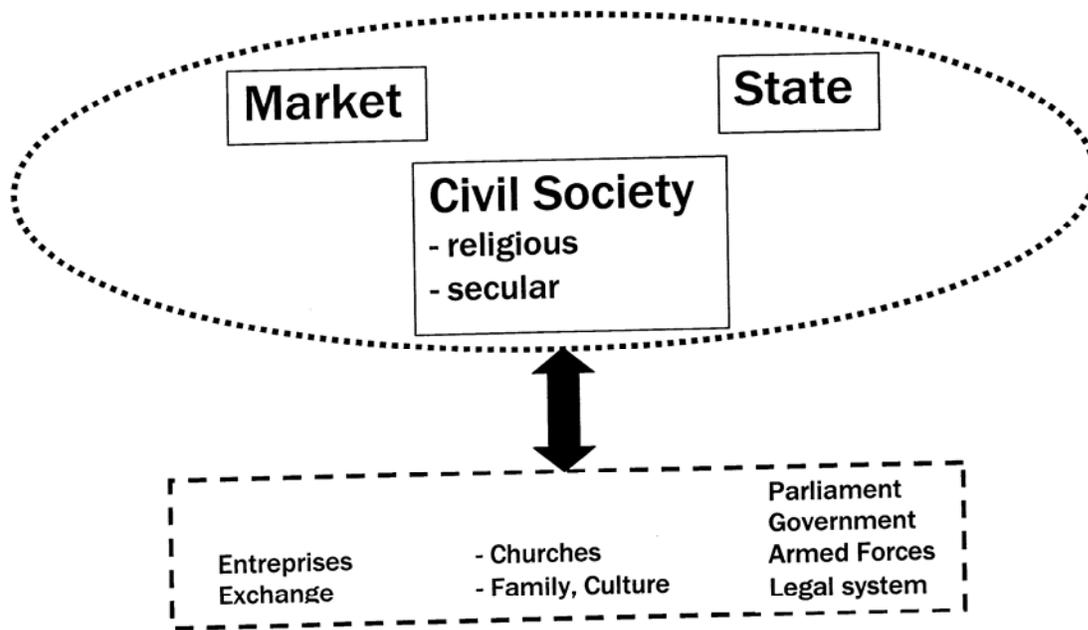


Figure 2: Major Social Institutions' Interrelations and Their Affect, by D. Waite, L. Moos & C. Sugrue.

This is where we are today. As I said, there are many ways to slice this and the other two elements, and that is one of the difficulties we're encountering: ways of thinking and ways of representation.

As I've hinted, models, in general, are poor representations of the phenomenon they seek to represent. Sociologist Georg Simmel (1968) wrote that,

Left to itself, however, life streams on without interruption; its restless rhythm opposes the fixed duration of any particular form. Each cultural form, once it is created, is gnawed at varying rates by the forces of life. As soon as one is fully developed, the next begins to form (p. 11)

So why even undertake a project such as this?

I've done it as a thinking tool or thinking aid. This framework, and others like it, helps me organize my thoughts. It's a foundational tactic in theorizing, modeling is. As a thinking aid, I hope this model and its explication—indeed, the discourse it both spawns and is a part of—might help others to think of these things and to perhaps grow in their thinking because of it and the work we've done. I know I've grown from being able to present it to you, as I did last year and, again, this year in an altered form and in a different context, and thanks to the dialogue I've had with my collaborators.

Still in all, and I'll say this about models, our model, before concluding discussion of this element: the graphic representation is itself limiting, even as it permits seeing or knowing. I'm finding that, for me at least, the more interesting aspects of our model come in the in-between spaces or interfaces, where the dynamics between the social categories we've depicted in rudimentary, stick-figure-like outlines, play out. For instance, how do commercial and state interests play out at the local school? At your school or university? How does church/religion infiltrate the military (a state function)? How does this play out at the global, national, regional, local and individual level? Analysis of the case of the US Air Force Academy in Colorado Springs would reveal some of these dynamics, and in that context.

But how do you think about, capture and portray these dynamic forces? There's the rub. Models assist us and limit us. How do we grow beyond them? The answer to this question begins to reveal to us our epistemologies. This is nothing new, nothing revelatory. In fact, if I were you, I'd demand a full refund on your admission, for I've told you nothing new. The answer is as ageless as the question, and as perplexing. It's what's behind The Riddle of the Sphinx. As we grow, what is our internal motivation, from where do we derive strength, knowledge, wisdom? And, as we age, what are the crutches we lean on? Those we cast aside?

To conclude, I want to take a brief shot at the question I opened with: Whither supervision? I'll not attempt to answer the question authoritatively, exhaustively or

transcendentally. (Recall Schommer-Aikins' epistemological beliefs, especially as concerns the source of knowledge.) I will, however, be suggestive, maybe give you some food for thought as you, as we as a field or domain, struggle with these issues.

What I'd like to suggest, as I did at the outset, is that where supervision is headed, where you see supervision as headed, is dependent upon your relation or position as a perceiver to the domain and the contexts within which these issues play out.

One way to conceive of this might be this: The contexts have shifted slightly. The world has changed. Globalization, especially rapid and globe-spanning communication, has occasioned a cultural knowledge shift; or, think of it in terms of a linguistic turn or a subjective turn. For many, the status of the authority is less than it was for previous generations (our parents, perhaps we ourselves, might speak of a lack of respect on the part of individuals of younger generations). Inglehart (2003), a sociologist, writes about deep cultural schisms, a culture war, between the more traditional and conservative and the more modern (sometimes referred to as the postmodern). One of the dimensions of Inglehart's analysis is the nature of authority. I would extend the schism, the differences, from the global to the national, professional and the local, by calling attention to what some refer to as the paradigm wars (Gage, 1989; Anderson & Herr, 1999), and, yet, go beyond even that, to what I perceive to be the guild wars between administrators, bean counters, and teachers and like-minded educators. We are witnessing the effects of this guild war in the tug-of-war over our children's lives under repressive accountability regimes.

What I'd suggest is that those who are beating their chests and wringing their hands over the perceived demise of supervision are, perhaps, those who are nostalgic for a return to an imagined time when supervision authors were the authorities, when we spoke and they listened, when they bought our books and paid homage in other ways. A change in the relation of the

knower to the domain, especially in the area of authority, threatens this hierarchical, distanced, authoritarian relation.

The way I read the field/domain today is that supervisory authority, knowledge and practice have become more diffused, not extinguished. Perhaps there is a danger here: that supervision is or will become less vibrant without a rallying point, without a central spokesperson and his/her theory or model to serve as a rallying call or thinking aid for some. Personally, I feel as though the tasks of supervision have always been part of the grand enterprise we call American education. Teachers looked after their own professional development long before we started writing texts about what it was and how to do it; curriculum development, the same.

The issue, it seems to me, is really one of control (and of our position with the domain): Do we, as individuals and as a collective, control the domain? Do we foist our will upon it, and does it bend to our will? Of, are we negotiating a different position, role or relation to our field? That, my friends, is a personal discussion between you, your heart and conscience; but it's a discussion we need to engage in, individually, and collectively as well.

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**On Vulnerability and Transformative Leadership:
An Imperative for Leaders of Supervision**

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NOTE: My paper, as originally written for the conference, is 27 *single-spaced* pages. Due to COPIS conference guidelines I had to restrict my submission to 12 to 15 *double-spaced* pages including references; I've gone to the limit and a bit beyond (page count is exclusive of cover page). Readers interested in more depth, can go to http://www.wagner.edu/faculty/users/jglanz/web/html/articles_of_interest.html for the fuller text. My goal is to not only stimulate conversation, but to encourage action and activism.

Abstract

This position paper argues that supervision as a field, in the main, remains susceptible and thus vulnerable to various forces, ideological and otherwise, that constrain its ability to play a significant role in instructional improvement. Adherence to inspectional and faultfinding supervision under the guise of standards-based and other practices has serious consequences for the improvement of teaching and student achievement. Unless those of us who are committed to the study of supervision in higher education, as well as school administrators and other practitioners who supervise teachers, are ready, willing, and able to assert responsibilities for best practice in supervision through transformational leadership the educational landscape will remain in its transitory and vulnerable state, inconsequential at best, destructive at worst. Relying on the social and educational critiques of Robert Goldhammer and Jules Henry, this paper seeks to raise the consciousness of those committed to instructional excellence by offering insights into ways supervision can serve to enhance teachers' dignity, impact student learning, and transform our work, and even schools themselves, so that vulnerability turns into possibilities and stagnation into transformation.

Introduction

In an article I wrote in 2000 entitled "Supervision for the Millennium: A Retrospective and Prospective," I concluded by saying that supervision as a "school-based or school-college based activity, practice, or process, at its best, engages teachers in meaningful, non-judgmental, and ongoing instructional dialogue for the purpose of improving teaching and learning" (Glanz, 2000, p. 16). Framed in this way, supervision, I hoped could become collaborative rather than hierarchical, dialogic not didactic, descriptive rather than judgmental, and supportive not punitive (also, see Waite, 1995). Examining our field in the past we've seen glimmers of best practices, but these efforts, however laudatory, if not noble, are oddities, blips on the radar screen, occasional glimpses of brilliance, if you will (see, e.g., Nadelstern, Price, & Listhaus,

2000; Pajak, 2004; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000; Zepeda, 2003). Supervisory practices that most of us would deem effective occur episodically, haphazardly, and unsystematically (and certainly not systemically). Many of us have written scholarly pieces or delivered papers identifying or at least documenting possible reasons for such a deplorable state of affairs (See, e.g., Harris, 1998; Hazi & Glanz, 1997; Poole, 1994; Smyth, 1991; Starratt, 1992). I see no need to rehash the plethora of explanations for the pitiful state of the supervision field, a field that cannot even sustain a journal of its own, nor the antiquated, reactionary, and hierarchical supervisory methods, under the current guise of standards-based education, that are all too commonplace in our schools nationwide. We know too well that supervision as a process or field of study remains vulnerable and susceptible to larger, complex social, economic, political, and most especially ideological forces and factors. Supervision, historically and in the most crudest manner possible, has served as a tool or a means by which administrators and others could maintain the status quo and rigid adherence to bureaucratic mandates and practices. Supervision has served, and continues to do so in my view, to stifle individual initiative, denigrate innovation, and control teacher behavior in the classroom to conform to prescribed, standardized, and regimented ways of behaving and teaching.

Too many administrators and others (including some of those who study supervision) do not understand that teaching cannot be standardized or reduced into ready-made recipes or prescriptions (Chomsky, 2002). Nor do they see teaching as a highly complex and contextual intellectual activity that challenges and engages learners with concrete experiences, intellectual discourse, and reflective thought. They don't view knowledge as temporary, socially constructed, culturally mediated, and developmental. Learning, for them, is not seen in a constructivist frame in which students resolve their own cognitive conflicts with the keen guidance of teachers (Foote, Vermette, & Battaglia, 2001; Mintrop, 2002; Rodgers, 2002). Too many of us do not appreciate the complexities of teaching and learning (Neill, 2003; O'Day, 2002). Those who call

for heightened accountability, favor high-stakes testing, pre-packaged curricula, and rigid adherence to standards also favor inspectional methods of supervision and a distilled, simplistic version of teaching and learning.

Suzanne Soo Hoo (2004), decrying what she calls a “sordid state of affairs” in public education today asks:

. . . why is it that the general public seems complacent with the government’s conservative chokehold on education in this country? Why aren’t more communities renouncing the narrowing of textbook selections, the profusion of scripted teaching, the obsession with standardized testing, the erosion of student, teacher, and community participation in decision-making processes, and other such exclusionary, discriminatory, and thus undemocratic trends? Where is the resistance? (p. 200)

Although my guess is that we all would decry such practices few of us, in the supervision field, have stood up and proclaimed, “To hell with this complacency; we will not stand for it any longer.” Rather, an examination of the extant literature (e.g., Firth & Pajak, 1998) including publications, books and articles, and conference presentations (including my own by the way) have advocated for alternatives to supervision (e.g., Pajak, 2000; Sullivan & Glanz, 2000), recasting supervision (e.g., Glickman, 1992), or realigning supervision with current ideological and political mandates (i.e., standards-based supervision, see, e.g., Gordon, in press; Pajak, 2000). These approaches have not worked to fundamentally alter supervision practice in schools. They are reactive, not proactive; they are compliant, not resistant; they are superficial, not fundamental; they are ephemeral, not pervasive; they lack vision and conviction.

Several reasons seem probable why we have not “rocked the boat,” if you will. We may adhere to a conservative political and personal agenda that eschews methods and practices that frame supervision in non-traditional ways. We realize that “we cannot change the system,” so we work our best to, in the words of Maxine Greene (1973), “find apertures in the wall of a world taken for granted,” (p. x) in an attempt to achieve some modicum of success in schools or classrooms in which we work. We see ourselves not as systemic change agents or transformative leaders in a global sense. Rather, we may prefer to work one-on-one with a school or group of

teachers. We may rationalize our position or actions by saying “change starts with one person or one school at a time.”

Beyond these apparent, obvious explanations, a more fundamental, latent reason goes far to explain how decent, committed, and hard working education professionals can fall prey to complacency and inaction. We are influenced or, in behavioral terms, conditioned by societal/organizational norms that work to thwart resistance to practices that do not conform to standard operational, mainstream procedures. Iconoclastic or subversive thinking and behaviors are punished in subtle, sometimes overt ways. Soo Hoo (2004) observes that conservative administrators “reward conformity and punish disobedience” (p. 203). This paper will allude to a concept known as “ideological management” (Spring, 1992) that explains how ideas, under certain conditions, can function to limit options, repress alternative ways of thinking, work to reinforce socially accepted practices, and shape human behavior in direct and indirect ways.

Moreover, from a psychological perspective the need or desire to avoid cognitive dissonance may explain why some of us do not take an oppositional stand to practices that one would otherwise consider anathema. We strive for “homeostasis” thus eliminating “psychological dissonance.” “Consequently, we take the path of least resistance by ignoring much of the world around us” (Soo Hoo, 2004, p. 202). Soo Hoo concludes by saying that such avoidance “allows us to disassociate ourselves with things like homelessness or war” (p. 202). To extend her thinking related to education, we too avoid complications or contradictions in our work. For instance, we accept practices of scripted teaching without challenging those who dominate or control curriculum and teaching (Apple, 1999).

In this paper I argue that our inaction or inattention to these matters leaves us vulnerable to the vicissitudes of social, political, and ideological phenomena that frame our work, and even worse, to whims of administrators and even non-educators who given their position of authority within the system attempt to stifle creativity and individual autonomy in favor of prescribed

protocols for behavior. They articulate a program of standards and we ask “how many?” They prescribe a protocol for supervision and evaluation and we acquiesce by creating an even more prescriptive program. They challenge our ability to prepare future leaders in supervision and so we participate in designing alternative leadership institutes to suit their narrow requirements. The old maxim, “We have found the enemy and they are us” is apt in this context. Moreover, remaining oblivious or unconcerned with national movements and administrative fiats, for instance, that are politically, not educationally inspired makes us vulnerable to policies and practices that may be antithetical to our conception of good educational practice and serves to disempower us and our efforts to establish sound learning communities. We are thus coerced to react and then comply, rather than to assume a transformative leadership role for positive change and practice.

Although many of us who enter the fields of supervision and administration do so for altruistic and even noble reasons wanting to affect large scale reform (something a teacher cannot do while remaining in the classroom), we are, by in large, a conservative group of individuals who demonstrate allegiance to the system and hesitate to “rock the boat.” I have seen school administrators (superintendents and their deputies), for instance, support new organizational, restructuring initiatives that are decried by most teachers as onerous, stifling, and unfair. They publicly defend their actions and those of the new reform but in private concur with teachers. We are reluctant to offer radical alternatives or even remain steadfast in our beliefs about good teaching and learning. Although the educational system operates to weed out incompetence, it also suppresses individuality and innovative thinking. We are the system, and the system is us.

Susceptibility to vulnerability stifles our interest or ability to transform schools. Remaining vulnerable lowers expectations for ourselves, and more importantly, for teachers and students. We are resigned to “doing the best we can” without realizing possibilities for

transformational leadership at a fundamental level. We do not view ourselves as transformative leaders in our own right who can contribute much towards framing a conception of teaching and learning that is aligned with principles of constructivism and sound, reasonable pedagogical practices.

The paper, drawing inspiration from two great critics (as described below), indicates that if supervision, which as a process that addresses teaching and learning at their most primal levels, is to emerge as a viable entity in transforming classrooms that promote achievement for all students, then we must remove the mental and psychological yolk of vulnerability and proactively pursue a deliberate, concerted, and sustained effort at becoming transformative leaders who have the desire and will to promote best teaching practice.

Achieving this goal takes more than identifying problems and offering criticisms, no matter how incisive (Kohn, 2004). It also means more than understanding that top-down (e.g., Fullan 1999) and district-wide reforms (e.g., Duffy, 2000) are as or more necessary than individual bottom-up initiatives. Certainly, a multifaceted approach to reform is necessary (Elmore 2004). Missing, however, from current critiques and restructuring or systemic reform discussions is a fundamental understanding of the mechanisms at play that influence the formation of ideas that, in turn, have the power to shape educational discourse and practice. Although this paper cannot fully address or answer the following questions, they are basic to the analysis in this paper and are raised to prompt discussion: How do ideas emerge that have the power to influence theory and practice at a macroscopic level? What confluence of factors comes into play that helps sustain such ideas? How are these ideas internalized, interpreted, and manifested in practice? How do new ideas and theories emerge that serve to transform taken for granted or established practices? What concrete strategies must be sustained to effect change? How do such questions help those in the supervision field better understand their role as transformative leaders?

Robert Goldhammer's View of the Problems with American Education

See my full text paper that reviews Goldhammer's thesis in detail. A few quotes and sentences will have to suffice to encapsulate his critique.

“Supervisor education has never occupied an important place in America's colleges . . . , nor has supervision of instruction ever emerged as a systematic professional discipline [Speaking of supervision] [I]ts authors and students have constituted an energetic but dismayingly small, minority in the educational community. . . . In the schools, supervision has fared even less well than in the universities . . . the supervisee must generally mobilize himself [sic] against a dozen extrinsic dangers associated with the supervisor's presence. Because it generally counts for so much, supervision often counts for nothing. Too often, its principal misfortune is that in addition to failing to improve conditions of learning for the children, supervision fails equally to enhance the teacher's dignity or, for that matter, the supervisor's. Too often, the supervisory relationship is mutually thwarting.” (Goldhammer, 1969, pp. vii-viii)

“Let's begin with the premise that a human personality tends to take on the psychological characteristics of its environment. This is no more than to say that if I am forced to exist in an environment filled with insanity, in time my own behavior will begin to incorporate the insanities that have surrounded me. If, as one suspects, this premise is valid, then some urgent questions follow for the school, for if we wish the youngsters to emerge from formal education as bright and healthy as can be, then we must ask whether the schools themselves tend to be basically sane and intelligent places. Our premise implies that if, in truth, the school becomes a stupid or crazy environment, it will tend to create stupid and crazy learners by the time it has held them captive for twelve or more years. (Goldhammer, 1969, p. 2)

Goldhammer's thesis includes a critique of: supervisory education, the impact of writers in the supervision field, failure to enhance teacher dignity thus calling attention to stifling supervisory practices, and the educational landscape of schooling including curriculum and instruction that he calls “insane” and leads “to create stupid and crazy learners.” His criticism of teachers is no less sparing. He decries teaching practices that he characterizes as stifling, prescriptive, monotonous, inane, and authoritarian. Although an optimistic utopian, Goldhammer offers a stinging critique of American education at large and supervision in particular. His first chapter should be required reading in every education program in the country. As I write this condensed version of my paper, I realize that his critique focuses on internal problems endemic to schools. Henry's analysis focuses more as an external, more macroscopic critique. Thus, in a sense, both Goldhammer's and Henry's analyses contrast each other yet eerily form an undifferentiated

whole that serve to raise our consciousness to persistent problems that we must address in every generation.

Jules Henry's View of Vulnerability in Society and Education

“Men [sic] feel vulnerable because their societies are contradictory within and because they are in danger of attack from enemies without. But they are also vulnerable from within their own society's protecting walls if they do not behave themselves, and they are vulnerable from within because of unacceptable impulses; because of guilt, intolerable hostilities and the feeling that they have sold their selves down the river to get ahead. . . .” (Henry, 1973, p. 83)

“For a teacher, assertion of the self would involve saying what he thinks most enlightening to the students; refusing to use stupid books, or reinterpreting them to make sense; deviating from the embalmed curriculum; and so on. On the other hand, going it alone is foolish, not so much because of the teacher's vulnerability but because if his [sic] ideas are good other teachers should share and express them; and if the majority of teachers in the same school do, it is difficult to withstand them. If a teacher acts alone and is forced to lie down or quit, the sense of vulnerability is intensified throughout the school system. The sense of vulnerability functions in a school system to frighten teachers into becoming stupid; and since when they become stupid so do the pupils, we end up with the understanding that vulnerability in the teacher helps educate children to stupidity. In this way society gets what it wants.” (Henry, 1973, p. 94)

Henry's thesis includes a critique of: the economic and structural support systems in society that instill “fear” and “bring men [sic] to their heel” (pp. 86, 87). The unpredictability of the economic system goes far towards creating a sense of confusion and vulnerability, says Henry. Citing anthropological and psychological evidence, he takes us beyond the obvious to illustrate how the “system” operates to reinforce vulnerability. Such vulnerability has serious consequences for education and educators. Teachers and supervisors are agents, he says, of vulnerability. He says, “The sense of vulnerability functions in a school system to frighten the teachers into becoming stupid; and since when they become stupid so do the pupils, we end up with the understanding that vulnerability in the teacher helps educate children to stupidity. In that way,” he continues, “society gets what it wants” (p. 94). Henry posits that complacency and subservience to the controlling forces of society that function to keep people in line, and thus sustain the status quo are the chief goals of society. Henry clearly indicates that one of the major consequences of vulnerability “is to prevent social change” (p. 97). In a sudden change of tone, he ends optimistically:

The moral of all of this is that we must know our strength. Nobody is invulnerable but nobody is as weak as he thinks he is either. Let everyone, instead of saying to himself, "I am afraid," say instead, "I may be stronger than I think." (p. 103)

Implications for Supervision

Goldhammer and Henry's analyses are unusually scathing and insightful. (See longer version of paper that discuss connections between the views of each scholar.). They challenge us to examine how ideas shape our thinking and work in schools. The concept of ideological management (Spring, 1992) helps us understand how certain dominant ideas serve as mechanisms of social control. Those with vested interests towards a particular agenda, ideological, political, or personal, attempt to lay claim to knowing what is in the best interests of clients and others. These influencing ideas are sometimes reinforced by economic and social conditions that serve to rationalize or explain certain efforts or agendas. In the longer version of this paper, I give two non-education related examples of how ideas emerge that reinforce dominant conceptions of society and serve to control human behavior.

The role of ideological management is no less influential in education (see, e.g., Apple & Weis, 1983). The idea that teaching means that teachers talk and student listen has been difficult to overcome. The notion that teachers are weak and need direction has held sway too long in education. That teachers are professionals who reflect on their practice for the purpose of analyzing teaching and finding ways to best promote student learning is an idea that has not always been accepted. On a more macroscopic plane, ideas are generated and reinforced by the federal government. Federal influence, most recently, has taken the form in the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001 that has created a system or culture in which high stakes testing, rigid accountability measures, and prescriptive standards are the norm. Vulnerable and reactive we help establish academic standards, curriculum guidelines, licensing procedures, accountability measures, and other prescriptive and punitive guidelines so as to comply with NCLB. Classroom teachers and even school building or district supervisors are heavily

influenced by such federal acts with concomitant policies and regulations. If Henry and Goldhammer had the opportunity to share their views of NCLB they too would point to the pervasive culture of vulnerability that stifles individual and school initiative, and the prescriptive and punitive measures that can result from non-compliance as anathema.

Supervision too is under assault. As a process meant to engage teachers in meaningful, non-judgmental, and ongoing instructional dialogue and reflection for the purpose of improving teaching and learning, supervision is in jeopardy. The monolithic influence of high stakes testing and the emphasis on implementing rigid national, state, and local standards have served to stifle teacher initiative, and mitigate innovative and effective instructional supervision. Supervision within a standards-based environment, unless attended to thoughtfully and sensibly, tends to resort to mechanistic, bureaucratic means, aimed not at instructional improvement but to implementing narrowly prescribed measures of performance.

Both Goldhammer and Henry would have much to say about current practice in schools. Our penchant for quick fixes of complex problems, an over-reliance on scripted approaches to teaching, and lack of attention to providing teachers with sufficient in-classroom support to promote student learning have had consequences for supervisory practice. Those given authority to supervise teachers have continued to rely on inspectional practices under the guise of standard-based supervision (e.g., Downey, Steffy, English, Frase, & Poston, Jr., 2004). Insufficient time has been allotted for meaningful supervision work with teachers. Stifling accountability regulations have tied the hands of instructional leaders. Principals often complain that they cannot find enough time to work with teachers due to burdensome reports and other administrative exigencies. Educators may espouse a commitment to instructional excellence, but

often theories in use (Osterman & Kottkamp, 2004) tell quite a different story. A litany of other problems can be cited that aim to thwart attention to instructional leadership and improvement. Henry would remind us of our vulnerability, both personally and organizationally. Feelings of fear and a lack of self-efficacy underscore our “incompetence” (Henry, 1973, p. 105). Goldhammer would support Henry’s assertion of institutional and personal vulnerability, although not in so many words. He would, however, admonish those who work in and with supervision to avoid “educational panaceas” (Goldhammer, 1969, p. 368). Rather, focused, attentive, and continuous emphasis on matters of great importance to the classroom teacher is vital. A supervisor, he would say, must maintain a commitment towards examining and critiquing curriculum, teaching methods, and so on in order to keep instructional improvement the number one priority in a school.

The foremost implication of Goldhammer and Henry’s analyses rests not only on their optimistic view of the future, although sometimes veiled, but on their advocacy of the potential for human action to reverse pathetic conditions that exist in schools. It is to this latter potential that the remainder of my paper is addressed. Due to space limitations, I will summarize my position and use allotted conference time for discussion and amplification. We do have the ability to transform our work by not only becoming aware of social, political, economic, and other factors that influence our work in schools, but also by taking proactive measures; i.e., taking steps towards praxis and action (Freire, 1970; McLaren, 2002). I am influenced by the work of Giroux’s notion of resistance. In his *Theory of Resistance: A Pedagogy for the Opposition*, Giroux argues that resistance can, in the words of Spring (2006) “be a vehicle for developing an educational method that will empower students and teachers to transform society” (p. 64). I am also encouraged by Hargreaves and Fink’s (2006) allusion to “activism.” They assert that “Activist leadership influences the environment that influences it by activating personal and professional networks, forging strategic alliances with the community, influencing

the media by writing articles for newspapers, appearing on radio and television programs, and protesting openly against misconceived policies” (p. 257). How do these notions of resistance and activism lead to the need for transformational leadership and relate to our work in supervision?

The Transformational Leadership Imperative

“To exercise leadership in this climate of change will require deep convictions, strong commitments, and clear ideas about directions for changes in the form and content of schooling.”

Robert J. Starratt

Supervisors and those who work in the supervision field can no longer remain content working in the classroom one teacher at a time. Nor should they (we) remain unaware of organizational and ideological forces that serve to control and thus limit supervisory practice. We need to acknowledge our vulnerability, as Henry would have us do, and then deal with it assertively. We need to challenge mandates and other administrative fiat dictates, regardless of their origin, by questioning their effectiveness for promoting student learning and a healthy workplace for all educators and parents, as Goldhammer would urge. We need to proactively confront bureaucratic policies that do not serve the best interests of students and teachers and take responsibility for our own work to break through taken for granted notions of what is feasible and what is not. Before we can confront systemic issues that contribute to problematic aspects of schooling and nonsensical practices, supervisory or otherwise, we need to affirm personal beliefs and values that match our vision for best practice.

In my paper I discuss personal strategies such as “courage” and why must we personify courage to be considered effective leaders. Speaking out against injustices such as unfair tracking placements, racist practices, and homophobic attitudes are just a few examples of courageous behaviors. Pertaining to supervision work, we must confront scripted teaching practices, incessant testing practices that drain the emotional and physical spirit of students, teachers, and parents, . . . and administrators too. We must assume our responsibilities as instructional leaders

and undertake supervision work that we know is meaningful. We must struggle to find ways to carry on such work. We must work with administrators to set up structures that support good supervision. We must raise these issues with our professional organizations and then develop strategies for action. We must also work with politicians and other local, state, and even federal officials to ensure that the voices of reason and justice are affirmed. Certainly, most of us have not even thought about this responsibility since it's not been part of our job description. As transformational leaders, however, we must think and then act out of the proverbial box.

What is our moral commitment to such ideals? What are we willing to sacrifice to actualize our beliefs? Are we willing to display acts of courage despite personal risks? Do we really believe our work in supervision matters? Have we acknowledged our vulnerability and taken steps to play a significant role in instructional improvement? Do we decry in very concrete ways inspectional, faultfinding supervisory practices? Is supervision in our schools a “bugaboo” (Goldhammer, 1969, p. vii) for teachers? Are we cognizant of how we, ourselves, may indeed contribute to a sense of teacher disempowerment? Does a sense of vulnerability function to “frighten” teachers “into becoming stupid” (Henry, 1973, p. 94)? Are our schools “sane and intelligent places” (Goldhammer, 1969, p. 2)? Do we rally against high-stakes, standards-based education and other practices that simply do not make pedagogical sense? Are we committed above all else to spend the time to work with teachers, at all levels of experience, in order to improve teaching and promote student achievement? Are we willing to make such efforts a priority? Are we able to justify our work to the extent that Henry and Goldhammer would affirm our efforts? Within the standards-based era we find ourselves, and are likely to for some while, we must remain committed to instructional excellence by offering insights into ways supervision can serve to enhance teachers’ dignity, impact student learning, and transform our work, and even schools themselves, so that vulnerability turns into possibilities and stagnation into transformation.

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*A Brief Reflection of the Supervisory Process in Puerto Rico: The Past and Future
Visions*

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Introduction

Puerto Rico, a Spanish colony since the beginning of the 16th century, became a colony of the United States in 1898, as a result of the Spanish-American War and the extension of the U.S.'s imperial policy and Monroe Doctrine, over the Caribbean Sea and its islands. According to Trías Monge (1997), Puerto Rico is considered to be the oldest colony in the world. Since the 19th century, Puerto Rico had a well established Spanish Caribbean culture that distinguished itself from other Hispanic-American countries.

The American government, as the new colonial authority, substituted the Spanish educational system by implementing an American educational system. The new authorities established an educational policy that suited very well their imperial wishes: English, not Spanish, became the main language of teaching beginning in the first grade in all public and private schools, and the curriculum content was based on the American culture. The governor and the government commissioners, including the Commissioner of Instruction, were selected and confirmed by the President and the Congress of the U. S. The purpose of these educational decisions was to make the educational system the principal instrument for fulfilling the Americanization process of the Puerto Rican people, in order that they could be culturally and politically assimilated by the new colonial power. The United States' government used all its institutions transplanted to Puerto Rico, including the components of the educational process, among them supervision, as political and cultural instruments in order to achieve the purpose of the Americanization of the people of Puerto Rico. This type of direct control of the educational system lasted from 1898 to 1948, a total of fifty years.

The people in government justified the use of English as the teaching language and the elements of the American culture as the content of the curriculum through their reports to the President and the Congress of the United States, and studies done about Puerto Rico by American citizens. One example of this kind of study was the one done by Victor S. Clark,

Director of the study *Porto Rico and its problems* (1930) and Director of Public Instruction in the Island from 1899 to 1900. He presented in the study the following rationale to justify the use of English as the language of instruction:

“English is the chief source, practically the only source, of democratic ideas in Porto Rico. There may be little that they learn to remember, but the English school reader itself provides a body of ideas and concepts which are not to be had in any other way. It is also the only means which these people have of communication with an understanding of the country which they are now a part” (p.81).

Another example of Clark’s political and educational thinking appeared in a document that he submitted to the United States War Department, on 1899, as President of the Board of Education and Director of Education, in which he recommended the formulation of an educational policy for the Puerto Rican public education system:

If the public school system is left to inefficiency and neglect this awakening of the people will be indefinitely postponed. If it is allowed to remain European, and France and Spain are to continue the intellectual mistresses of the island, the very improvement of the public school system may tend to alienate the people in their fundamental sympathies from the government of which they form a part. If the schools are made Americans and the teachers and pupils are inspired with the American spirit..., the island will become in its sympathies, views and attitude toward life and toward government essentially American. The great mass of Puerto Ricans are as yet passive and plastic... Their ideals are in our hands to create and mold. We shall be responsible for the work when it is done, and it is our solemn duty to consider carefully and thoughtfully to-day the character we wish to give the finished product of our influence and effort

(quoted in Negrón de Montilla, 1971; p.13).

Clark's declarations demonstrate the lack of cultural and political sensibility and ignorance of the colonial authorities toward a people that came into the political orbit of the United States as a result of a war that was alien to them.

The Development of the Supervision Process in the Puerto Rican Educational System

The models of supervision implemented in Puerto Rico during the first sixty years of the 20th Century were the traditional ones used in the United States, especially the social efficiency models based on inspection. The studies about the supervision process done during this period of time reflected that the teachers were not satisfied with the supervision process and the relations and work done by the supervisors (Cruz, 1980; Díaz Tizol & Díaz Alvarez, 1968; Torres, 1964; Collazo, 1958). They considered the supervisor and their processes as too autocratic and prescriptive, and not suited to the situations and problems that they faced at their schools. They concluded that the supervisory process was of little help in the professional development of teachers.

The first supervisors under the American government were appointed as a result of the need to have and prepare English teachers, in order to put into practice and achieve the Americanization policy of the American colonial authorities in Puerto Rico. (See Osuna, 1949; Negrón de Montilla; 1971, and Torres González, 2002.) The first English teachers were employed in 1899 and their duties combined those of itinerant English teachers and inspectors of schools. They acted as instructors of English to both teachers and pupils. The first supervisors were chosen from American and English natives residing in the Island at the time. All were men and came to the Island as soldiers, teamsters, packers, merchants and other occupations not related to education. Although many Puerto Ricans teachers were qualified academically and knew the language and the people, they were not considered for those positions. Clark (quoted

by Osuna, 1949) presented the following arguments for not appointing Puerto Rican natives to the position: “These men must be for some time to come Americans,” and they were not used to the standards of the States and therefore not disposed to require such standards in the schools. He also argued that native supervisors will not command the same respect from the teachers as the well qualified men from other countries would command. Other argument used by Clark was that natives were connected to the local partisan political situations and problems in a way that it was impossible to be impartial in their decisions. In the exercise of their duties the new supervisors met several difficult problems such as: opposition and difficulties due to the nature of their work, the friction of races, their ignorance of the Spanish language to facilitate the communication with the teachers, and a lack of cultural sensitivity. “The supervisor knew no Spanish to explain their positions and their motives, the teachers knew no English to communicate with them. Some time the supervisors knew enough Spanish to use the wrong phrase at the wrong time” (Osuna, 1949). Under the Spanish regime, the teachers were used to have more autonomy in their classrooms and were not used to such a close supervision. Animosity among teachers and supervisors grew up, a state of affairs which made the supervisor’s task very difficult and less productive.

Osuna (1949) outline the duties assigned to the first supervisors. These were the following:

- a. To hold teachers’ meetings for instruction in English and methods to be used.
- b. To render a monthly report upon all the schools of their district, including special reports upon enrollment, methods, conditions of school buildings and surroundings, the program followed in the schools and the progress made in individual subjects.
- c. To pay the teachers their monthly salary checks.
- d. To distribute and keep account of all textbooks and government supplies for the district.

- e. To preside at the quarterly examinations given by the insular board of education for teachers and for students desiring to enter secondary schools.
- f. The supervisors acted as direct representatives of the insular board in securing school buildings, in seeing that the school laws were enforced, that buildings complied with the requirement of the laws, in stimulating local action in the way of securing school supplies, and in investigating the multitude of petitions and complaints pertaining to the schools of the different municipalities.

Most of the duties assigned to these supervisors were administrative ones.

The first school law enacted by the insular legislature on 1901, confirmed the office of English supervisors and provided for the supervision of schools. The 1902 school law changed the name of English supervisors to superintendent of schools. It, also, prescribed the duties of the superintendent almost in the same words of the 1901 law and added the following:

- a. School boards should furnish a suitable office in order that he can carry on his public role.
- b. They shall present annual and other types of reports as required by the Commissioner of education.

The Island was divided in school districts, and each one had an assigned superintendent.

In the 1913-1914 school year, additional supervisors were appointed in such areas as manual training, household economy, agriculture, music and drawing, playgrounds and athletics, elementary education, and Spanish. Elementary education was the main concern of the system in providing educational opportunities to rural children, villages, towns in the mountainous region of the Island, and children of poor people in the cities. A new emphasis was placed in the study of Spanish as the native language. This emphasis reflected a small change in the original Americanization policy that was put into effect at the beginning of the American government.

Until 1909, no law was passed prescribing the academic standards for supervisors. The Commissioner appointed the supervisors on the basis of training, successful experience and general efficiency. A law approved in 1909 required a principal's license issued by the Department of Education of Puerto Rico in order to be able to occupy a position of supervising principal, as supervisors were called.

During the decade of 1920's the educational system began a turning point in its philosophical and educational thinking, without losing the political purpose of the Americanization process, that changed the function of supervision. The school district was in charge of a superintendent and at least two assistants. The Commissioner's guidelines were emphatic concerning the job of the supervisor: to keep the educational system running in a smooth order and to carry out his orders. The superintendent's work was primarily of inspection. It was the same for the assistant superintendents. From 1931 on, the Department put into practice a program to train supervisors in the modern philosophy of education, given by the University of Puerto Rico. The planning of the supervision process became indispensable. The great majority of supervisors were natives of both genres. Teachers' attitudes toward supervision were still unfavorable. They were not convinced that one of the aims of supervision was to cooperate with them in the management of the teaching-learning process. They perceived the supervisor as an inspector and resented criticism, because they felt that every suggestion was an order.

Another problem faced during these decades was that Puerto Ricans educators went for their graduate studies to mainland universities, and then returned to the Island to put processes and ideas into practice that were alien to Puerto Rico cultural idiosyncrasy. Teachers were not willing to accept this type of supervision that didn't recognize their cultural values.

The official Americanization policy imposed by the Federal government to the Puerto Rican educational process ended in 1948. Since the beginning of the 1940's educational

nationalism began to take hold under the circumstances provided by the colonial relations with the United States. In 1949 a Puerto Rican governor was elected by the people of Puerto Rico and notable changes were introduced in the components of the educational system, such as assigning a native to direct the Department of Education, 'puertorricanizing' the curriculum, Spanish became the main language in carrying on the instructional process, textbooks took into account the native history and culture, English was studied as a second language since first grade, and other important changes that impacted the educational process. Still the Puerto Rican educational system received a lot of influences and pressures from Federal laws and governmental guidelines, such as is done at present with NCLB. The educational studies done during the 1950s and 1970s recommended that changes should be introduced in order to upgrade the educational process in the country in a way that fulfilled the purposes of the Puerto Rican society. The supervision process was one of the items considered by these studies and later on by the reform process.

The Reform Process during the 1980s and the 1990s: Influences and Implications for the Supervision Process

During the late 1970s and early 1980s, the field of educational supervision got a new creative impulse in the United States with such approaches as Carl D. Glickman's developmental supervision, Arthur Costa and Robert Garmston's cognitive coaching, Allan A. Glatthorn's differentiated supervision and Thomas Sergiovanni and Robert J Starratt's human resources supervision. At the same time, in Puerto Rico, a group of university professors became leaders and activated the local ASCD chapter. Their participation in the ASCD annual conferences and professional development activities put them in contact with these new approaches and ideas on educational supervision and their leaders. Most of the leaders that participated in the activation of the local ASCD chapter were professors teaching administration, supervision and curriculum courses at the graduate level and were aware of the condition of the supervisory process in the

schools. In their search and discussions they were looking for new ideas to improve the supervision process in our schools through the preparation of new school leaders and the improvement of those already in service.

The books and articles by Glickman, Costa and Garmston, Glatthorn and Sergiovanni and Starratt were analyzed and evaluated in classes and professional activities. Students began to use and modify these ideas on the field. In practice, the ideas were modified according to the needs and values of the Puerto Rican educational system, teachers and students. Glickman, Costa and Sergiovanni were invited to present their approaches and ideas in professional meetings in which university professors, teachers, and personnel from the State Department of Education and private schools were present. During the late 1980s the State Department of Education modified and adopted for a short time Glatthorn's differentiated supervision model.

At the beginning of 1990, José A. Acosta Ramos, a professor at the University of Puerto Rico, Río Piedras Campus Graduate Program in Education, published a book on supervision, *Modelos, enfoques y estrategias de supervision (Models, approaches and strategies of supervision)*. In this book he presented the main ideas of Glickman, Costa and Garmston, Sergiovanni and Starratt, and Glatthorn supervisory approaches. The book became a great help to professors and students at the graduate level because, for the first time, they had a reference in Spanish and was written according to the needs and requirements of the local educational system. The 2005, a revised and updated version of this book is in press, and going into its third edition and fourth printing. Before the publication of Acosta's book, the latest book published on educational supervision in the Island was done in the 1960s.

In the late 1980s the Department of Education of Puerto Rico put a critical thinking project into practice, as part of the system curriculum renovation program. It was a successful project and well accepted by administrators, teachers and the community. Also, the private schools adopted and put the critical thinking project into practice. In 1992, the group that was in

charge of the project asked a group of university professors to design a model of supervision in accordance to the critical thinking strategy. A model of reflective supervision was designed by professors Ramón Claudio Tirado and José A. Acosta Ramos with the collaboration of two doctoral students. The model was accepted in May 1992 and the in-service training of public school principals began throughout the Island in June 1992. The basic strategies used as part of the model were: reflective interviews, reflective journals, portfolios, critical dialogues, action research, critical friends groups, written logs, reflective diaries, and written reactions. In January 1993 a new political party came into power and the critical thinking project and the supervision model were not continued by the new administration of the Department of Education. Some private schools continued to use the model, modifying this according to their needs.

During the 1980s, the Puerto Rican Legislature created the Education Reform Commission. It was a political compromise of the two powerful political parties of the Island, the autonomist and the pro-statehood, both saw the need to reform public education in order to prepare the country for the 21st Century. The Commission analyzed the findings and recommendations done by other commissions and researchers. Public meetings were conducted in order to collect ideas from the community, the students, teachers and the educators in the diverse educational levels. In 1990, the Commission presented to the Legislative Assembly its *Final Report for an Integral Educational Reform*. In this Report, the Commission made recommendations to the legislators and new laws concerning the educational reform were enacted.

The laws approved during the 1990s recognized that the student is the main reason for the existence of the educational system and the teacher is its main resource. Law Num. 18 (1993), later on Law 149 (1999), became the normative base for the creation and development of an autonomous community school, in order to achieve a more effective educational process. The school must become an academic community formed by administrators, teachers, students,

parents and the immediate community. The school principal was responsible for the academic success of all the elements of the school. The teacher acquired more autonomy in his/her decision making process concerning teaching and were allowed to made the necessary curriculum modifications demanded by the students' needs.

The school principal was held responsible for the professional development of the faculty by identifying the teachers' professional needs, and the Department of Education had the responsibility of providing the necessary means towards the professional development of teachers. The school principal, according to the law, is responsible of the supervision of teachers. The traditional supervisor was substituted by a facilitator of the educational process. The facilitator collaborate by petition of the school principal and the School Council by giving support to teachers in their teaching process through in-service trainings, demonstrations, orientations, workshops and other strategies. The facilitator provides a helping process, but isn't responsible of evaluating teachers. The main problem with the facilitator is that it depends on the school principal and the School Council, a very bureaucratic process, in order to help the teacher, and most of the time no petitions come through. The teachers are not receiving the academic help needed because the school principal have so many administrative tasks and not enough support personnel at school to help him/her. Teachers are depending more on themselves by doing what they think is the correct way. All the changes introduced by law required changes in teachers' and administrators' traditional beliefs, perceptions and modes of action.

Practically, no research and evaluation has been done in Puerto Rico concerning the effectiveness of the facilitator of the educational process in improving teaching. Wilfredo Toro (2002), in his doctoral dissertation, studied the perception of the high school teachers in relation to the facilitator's job. He presented the following findings:

1. Teachers presented a moderate level of satisfaction related to the leadership styles demonstrated by the facilitator.
2. The leadership style adopted by the facilitator affected the level of satisfaction perceived by the teacher.
3. According to the teachers, the facilitator had the capacity to promote their professional development when he/she adapted his/her leadership style to the particular situation of development.

Recommendations

The Department of Education must evaluate the effectiveness of the facilitator in improving the teaching process and through this, the students' outcomes. According to the evaluation and research findings, changes in Law 149: The Educational Organic Law of Puerto Rico, must be introduced in order to make the facilitator's role more proactive, effective and responsive to the teachers' and students' needs. Also, constitutional and legal changes must be introduced in order to diminish or prevent the intromission of political parties into the educational procedures. The last recommendation is difficult to implement because of the diverse ideologies that permeate local politics.

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Across the Void: Preparing Thoughtful Educational Leaders for Today's Schools

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Across the Void: Preparing Thoughtful Educational Leaders for Today's Schools

Abstract

In this article, I examine my attempts as an instructor in a university-based school leadership program to cross the generational divide with my students by using democracy as the central concept for understanding what is meant by a quality American education for all children. I guide the course according to the democratic learning principles that I and my colleagues use in working with public schools on educational renewal and school improvement efforts. I try to be responsive to my graduate students in the same manner that I wish them to be responsive to each other and to me by asking them to painstakingly argue the opposite of what they believe about education and leadership. Educational assumptions are challenged through provocative research examples and case studies. At the end of the course, I painfully must evaluate myself on how successfully I have fairly judged the intellectual and imaginative quality of student work regardless of whether it agrees with my own vision and values of leadership.

Across the Void: Preparing Thoughtful Educational Leaders for Today's Schools

...the distance between me
and my students who look up and wait
for my first questions, knowing so little
of my life, just as I know so little of theirs,
only a poem at a time to hold us together
like children before a fire in the woods.

Bruce Bonds (2004)

My experiences as an educational leader are so very different from those of my students. Without any judgment as to whether schools today are better or worse than when I was a school principal, I do believe that the boundaries, restraints, opportunities, pressures, and choices of educational leaders are far different than in the past. In order for me to educate well the young educational leaders of tomorrow, I must reach across the divide, listen carefully to what they experience, challenge them as they challenge me, and see if we might be able to find our poem in time.

In this article, based on an address initially delivered at the AERA conference, I will provide personal experiences that I have used to seek resolution to reaching across the divide in a purposeful manner. However, these examples are not meant to prescribe for others what to do, but instead to serve as a way of raising questions about reshaping educational leadership programs for the future.

What is an American Education?

I believe we, as Americans, are connected in the agreement to disagree with each other, to challenge the rulers, to raise questions about what is right and what is wrong, and to exercise our first amendment right to speak freely. This is why we have public education and why it is so important to have a different discussion about it. The greatest forms of tyranny come from the attitude that only government officials and the oligarchy of wealth and/or corporate interests are entitled to influence what we do. As Jefferson wrote, “Every government degenerates when trusted to the rulers of the people alone. The people themselves, therefore, are its only safe depositories. And to render them safe their minds must be improved” (Peterson, 1975).

It is obvious to me that a true democracy must have an educated citizenry *and* to be truly educated--rather than indoctrinated--one must learn in a democratic environment. This is why, in my mind, democracy must be practiced as an education theory of how people learn best before it can be practiced as a democratic theory of how citizens govern themselves. We cannot educate young students or graduate students for democracy unless their learning is guided by democratic principles. To educate young students in K through 12 classrooms *or* graduate students in school leadership and school improvement programs, I focus on the same principles of democratic learning that we use with our network of schools in the Georgia League of Professional Schools. Principles such as the need for:

- Students to have escalating degrees of choice, both as individuals and as groups, within the parameters provided by the teacher.
- Students to actively work with problems, ideas, materials, and people as they learn skills and content.
- Students to be held to high degrees of excellence in both the academic objectives learned and the contributions made to a larger community.

In public schools adhering to such principles, an observer might see:

- kindergarten children using their pre-reading skills and learning of geometric designs to develop illustrated books for families of preschoolers;
- eleven and twelve year olds using the study of science, ecology and habitats to protect wildlife in their local park;
- middle school students using art, history, and English to develop displays of the history of their own town to become permanent collections in the local library; and,
- secondary students working on a range of graduation projects including increasing the census participation in their town, increasing AIDS awareness in their state, developing a new engineering design for a bike path around a restrictive highway, reducing economic and racial stratification in their neighborhoods, increasing work options among the unemployed, and conducting scientific experiments of ways to purify the water and conserve the soil of their immediate neighborhood.

In the same manner, a graduate program guided by democratic principles of learning might see graduate students demonstrating their academic learning about educational leadership by working directly with legislators on education amendments; working with public school faculty to strengthen the service learning opportunities for children in K to 12 schools; developing actual plans with public school faculty and parents for the opening of a new school; working with a school council to correct and analyze data on student achievement, progress, and attendance; and being a friend of the court or working with the plaintiff in suing the state to address inequities of educational resources.

The central tenant of a democratic education for graduate students is to shake some of the basic assumptions that are generally held about education and schools so students can come to

their own informed hypothesis about what leadership should be about. Let's illustrate this with a few cases that shake up conventional thinking.

Case One: Technology

Todd Oppenheimer (2003) in his book, *The Flickering Minds: Saving Education from the False Promise of Technology*, examines claims around computers, software, and the Internet for improving learning for students. He writes that in the last decade, more than half of every dollar that schools have spent on educational supplies has gone to technology (p. xvi). Oppenheimer dismantles the claims of technology companies and argues,

...before schools sink much further they (should)...attend to their basic responsibilities of fixing leaky roofs and crumbling playgrounds and erecting enough buildings to offer uncrowded classrooms (and)...include...funding the many valuable curricular priorities (of)... music and the arts, books, physical education, field trips, “wet” science laboratories, modern day shop classes, additional teachers, all of which have been cut back to make way for technology. (p. 403)

Oppenheimer asserts that research shows that students with no technology in their curriculum do just as well and often better on learning assessments than students who use expensive equipment and programs. Learning in three dimensions appears to be much more important to the long term educational development of students than learning confined to simulations and virtuality. This is supported by a recent international study of 100,000 fifteen year olds from 31 countries which reported that

despite numerous claims made by politicians and software vendors, the evidence...suggest(s) that computer use in schools does not seem to contribute substantially to student's learning.... Indeed, the more pupils use computers, the worse they performed...Pupils tended to do worse in schools generously equipped with computers...” (Clare, 2005, ____).

Oppenheimer interviewed heads of high tech companies and professors of technology (MIT) and found that CEOs and technology professors believe students need only about six months of technology training to perform entry level high tech jobs and all such training can easily be accomplished in a single semester.

Case Two: School Curriculum and Mind and Body Dichotomies?

Michael Rose (2004), professor at UCLA and winner of the Grawmeyer award for the best book of the year in education, writes in his latest book, *The Mind at Work: Valuing the Intelligence of the American Worker*, about the cultural hierarchy of knowledge in America. He examined the intelligence needed for high quality work by hairdressers, waiters, waitresses, plumbers, carpenters, welders, and electricians. He found that great intelligence--abstract, multidimensional, spatial, and concrete--are needed in these occupations but the value of such intelligences is ignored and overlooked in a society that separates work into simplistic status categories of blue collar work (that work done by one's hands) versus white collar working (that work done by one's minds). The curriculum of our schools reflects these societal beliefs about work. Rose believes that our schools should be about diminishing such classifications and provide all students the skills, competence, and respect for different types of intelligent work.

Debbie Meier (2002) makes somewhat the same point in raising questions about graduation requirements for her senior students. She asks why all students must pass three years of mathematics to graduate from high school when most of us hardly ever use what we learned in the first year, or why is a student who has great success in certain craft fields denied graduation because they do not pass a particular English class. In effect Rose and Meier raise profound questions about curriculum: who controls the definition, for what purpose, and why are some views of knowledge, intelligence, and work prized over others to create winners and losers?

What does this say about preparing future school leaders to accept, perpetuate, or fight the stratification of knowledge, status, and hierarchy among different forms of knowledge?

Case Three: The Real Achievement Gap: What Really Creates It and What Might be done about it?

Richard Rothstein's book has stirred up a storm among educational policy makers and school reform advocates. Among these are those who proclaim the power of schools to close the achievement gap for all students through accountability measures and yearly performance expectations based on a "no excuses" belief that all students can pass the same high stakes test, at the same time, at the same level, and that the school itself can overcome any outside disadvantages that students have. His argument is that only one-third of effect on student achievement is attributable to classroom and school experiences, the other two-thirds is effected by issues of socio-economic class, ethnicity/race, language, quality of life, and family attainments.

Rothstein's book (2004), *Class and Schools: Using Social, Economic, and Educational Reform to Close the Black-White Achievement Gap*, examines more than forty years of research dating back to the Coleman Study (1966). The findings simply reassert an essential point that healthy and well children in safe and caring communities do better academically than unhealthy and ill-treated children who live in poverty without family and community support. Rothstein asserts that as educators we allow ourselves to be trapped when we argue that schools can do it all. In Rothstein's words, "This is a particularly American belief--that schools can be virtually the only instrument of school reform--but it is not based on evidence about the relative effectiveness of economic, social, and educational improvement efforts" (p. 9).

Rothstein shows that studies of "gee whiz", high performing, and successful schools with high percentages of low-income students simply do not hold up over time if other conditions outside of school are not attended to. He makes the point that if one has a choice of where to spend money to improve the achievement of minority and low-income students, between

purchasing eyeglasses to correct a student's sight versus purchasing a teaching material or tool, the data is clear: buy the eyeglasses.

The noted educator, Edmund Gordon, has been making this point for nearly four decades. Gordon states, "I'm convinced that we know how to educate most of the people we're worried about.... Yet, even if we were to do that perfectly, I don't think it would reduce the achievement gap" (p. 27)

Preparing Thoughtful Leaders for Schools: The Role of the Instructor

How do I, as a teacher, try to reconcile differences in perspectives, beliefs, and possibly purpose? In a democracy, we respect differences in perspectives. There is an egalitarian respect for the right of each person to participate, deliberate, investigate, and develop his/her own informed point of view. One cannot have an informed point of view, until one understands, as fully as possible, the views different from one's own inclination. Thus, as an instructor, I must model for my students what I wish for them to model with their future staffs and what their future staffs, in turn, need model with their classrooms of students:

Respect for differences

Engaging with others

Deliberating over what is right

In order to do so, I use these steps with my graduates:

1. I ask students to express themselves about their own beliefs without my beliefs influencing their quest for internal clarity. It is not until the course is at about the midway point, that I make known what I believe.
2. I ask students to suspend their own beliefs and read, observe, and review studies and writings that startle their thinking.
3. I *require* students to argue the opposite of what they currently believe with logic, documentation, and persuasion to convince others of positions that are not their own.

4. I ask students to provide two sides on any specific educational issue and to provide equally compelling arguments.
5. I ask students to test their beliefs about education and leadership by making a real application, over time, within schools, and gathering data on the progress of their leadership vision, skills, and hoped for results.

I attempt to hold myself to the same expectation that I have of them by asking for:

- Confidential feedback from each student by email after each class session.
- Face to face conferences at least two times during the course.
- Group feedback at the midpoint of course with me out of the room.

My own reflective test that guides my evaluation of their work is:

- Am I able to assess students on the quality of their assignments regardless of whether they agree with me or not?
- Do students do well or poorly in the course regardless of their ideology?
- Do my students and I dignify and respect the range of views expressed by others?
- Have my students learned to understand me and me them, and have we developed a thoughtful way of making decisions about education and our roles as leaders?

There is nothing more gratifying as an educator than to work on a vision of education, leadership, and society that values the human capacity to think--something so sorely missing today.

As the animal Ishmael said to his very confused and perplexed humans:

... People need more than to be scolded, more than to feel stupid and guilty. They need more than a vision of doom. They need a vision of the world and of themselves that inspires them. (Quinn, 1992)

Maybe, after all, if I reach to understand my students and they reach to understand me, we can sit by a fire and compose a poem that will hold us together...

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Refocusing on the Ritual of Teacher Evaluation:
Implications for the Future of Supervision

A paper “in progress” submitted to the
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The improvement of instruction has been one articulated (and hoped for) purpose of teacher evaluation—but often with the effect of a well-worn cliché. Now with the advent of *No Child Left Behind* (U.S. Dept of Education, 2002) and its promise of a highly qualified teacher in each classroom, the National Governor’s Association (NGA) has targeted teacher evaluation as a vehicle to upgrade teacher quality (Goldrick, 2002). Based on the assumption (although perhaps faulty) that teacher evaluation leads to improved instruction and hence to improved student learning, the NGA has identified six strategies that state departments are now being encouraged to adopt and implement. These are defining teaching quality, focusing evaluation on improving teaching, training evaluators, using peer review and portfolios, broadening involvement in teacher evaluation, and incorporating student learning and career ladders into teacher evaluation processes.

This paper uses writings on the history of teacher evaluation as ritual (e.g., Ponticell & Zepeda, 2004), policy briefs (e.g., Goldrick, 2002), and a recent analysis of teacher evaluation statutes and regulations in 20 states (Hazi & Arredondo Rucinski, 2005) to illustrate how teacher evaluation may become transformed, complicated and further ritualized at the state level. Four research questions that guided this inquiry¹ were:

¹ This research is the second phase analysis of teacher evaluation statutes and regulations from a sample of 20 centralized and decentralized states to identify policy activity, involvement of teachers, the use of student and school performance data, and the inclusion of promising practices in order to determine trends and potential dilemmas in teacher evaluation in the states.

States were first selected for analysis according to whether Pipho (1993) characterized the state as decentralized or centralized in its educational policy-making, and whether Education Commission of the States (2005a) reported recent policy activity in this area. Once the state was identified as either centralized or decentralized, ten were selected within each category. The centralized states were: CA, FL, GA, KY, LA, SC, TN, TX, UT, and WV. The decentralized states were: CO, CT, DE, IA, MN, NJ, NY, OH, PA, and WA.

Various sources were used to construct a matrix to analyze the 20 state statutes and policies. Goldrick (2002), in a policy brief for the National Governor’s Association, recommended a list of strategies that states should engage in to revise teacher evaluation. They included:

1. What changes have occurred recently in statute and state department of education policy on teacher evaluation in selected states?
2. What promising practices in supervision have become embedded in state statute and policy?
3. How might these mandates affect the practice of teacher evaluation?
4. What are the implications of these findings for instructional supervision?

Teacher Evaluation: A Brief Perspective on the Ritual

We ascribe to the well-articulated position of Nolan and Hoover (2004) that teacher supervision and evaluation are “both essential functions, each separate from the other, but complementary” (p. 27), yet inextricably entangled with one another in the world of practice

-
1. Define teacher quality.
 2. Focus evaluation policy on improving teaching practice (through such promising practices as peer review and portfolios).
 3. Incorporate student learning into teacher evaluation.
 4. Create professional accountability (i.e., career ladders).
 5. Train evaluators in pre-service programs.
 6. Broaden participation in evaluation design (to include teachers and administrators).

These major policy categories helped to first create items for the matrix. In addition to these, the work of such scholars as: Furtwengler, (1995); Peterson (2004); Rossow (2003); Wise, Darling-Hammond, McLaughlin & Bernstein, 1984; and Zirkel (1996) were also consulted. Then as new categories emerged, they were added to the matrix to account for novel or unanticipated changes made in state statute and policy. See Hazi and Ruckinski (2005) for a fuller explanation of the methods and findings.

(Hazi, 1994). The classroom visit was ancestor to both teacher evaluation² and supervision. While each grew to become specializations in the world of scholars, they remained one in the same in the world of practice.

Teacher evaluation as a personnel function dates to the early 18th century when school committees, ministers, selectmen, and then principals and superintendents were charged first with the inspection of facilities, equipment, and pupil achievement; then with the teacher's methods, "criticizing and advising him concerning teaching" (Barr, Burton & Brueckner, 1938, p. 3). Nutt (1920) reminds us that supervision emerged because of an untrained (and largely female) workforce, as "the agency that will most adequately direct the work of all the teachers in the system, so as to improve the efficiency of individuals and to harmonize the work of the entire body" (p. 4). And if teachers were professionally trained before entering active service, "then there would be little need for any provision for such thoroughgoing supervision . . ." (p. 5). It was in 1922 that Burton presented "the first modern concept" of supervision that focused on improving the work of the teacher.³

From 1910 through the 1930s the classroom visit, as many teachers experience it today, came to be. Early practice involved entering the classroom as inconspicuously as possible, sitting in the back so as not to distract the teacher, showing a sympathetic attitude, and taking notes. The observation was followed with the conference in which the teacher was first commended, then presented with his or her faults⁴ (Spears, 1953). The teacher was "corrected in her detailed

² We also agree with Nolan and Hoover (2004) that evaluation "is an organization function designed to make comprehensive judgments concerning teacher performance and competence for the purposes of personnel decision such as tenure and continuing employment" (p. 26). Teacher evaluation is bureaucratic and hierarchical, a uniform procedure governed by the principles of due process and fairness, conducted by a certified administrator and resulting in a global judgment about the competence of the teacher, that purports to improve the teacher.

³ 1. The improvement of the teaching act (Classroom visits, individual and group conferences, directed teaching, demonstration teaching, development of standards for self-improvement, etc.)
2. The improvement of teachers in service (Teachers' meetings, professional readings, bibliographies and reviews, bulletins, intervisitation, self-analysis and criticism, etc.).
3. The selection and organization of subject-matter (Setting up objectives, studies of subject-matter and learning activities, experimental testing of materials, constant revision of courses, the selection and evaluation of supplementary instructional materials. etc)
4. Testing and measuring (The use of standardized and local tests for classification, diagnosis, guidance, etc.)
5. The rating of teachers (The development and use of rating cards, of check-lists, stimulation of self-rating) in Burton, W.H. (1922). *Supervision and the improvement of teaching* as cited in Barr et al. (1938, p. 5).

⁴ "The supervisor was first to commend the good but not to overstep the line that separates such commendation from flattery; otherwise, the teacher would be in no position to accept the criticism to follow. He was next to draw out the teacher as to whether the procedures followed in the classroom would reach the desired ends, and once the victim was trapped criticism was considered in order" (Spears, 1953, p. 74). Garman (1982) equates the conference with the confessional. Even Mary Kay Ash, founder of Mary Kay cosmetics, advises "Sandwich every bit of criticism between two thick layers of praise" (ASCD, 2005, October 4).

techniques through handing out ready-made procedures” (Barr et al., 1938, p. 36).⁵ Thus, the ritual, “the taken-for-granted procedure of observation, judgment, and prescription, done in a single visit” (Garman, 1986, p. 150) was borne.

Under the influence of Frederick Taylor and the efficiency movement, rating scales were used to rate teacher effectiveness, based on the assumption that if scientists could study the most effective teachers, descriptors of their behaviors could, in turn, be used to rate, then transform the ineffective and inefficient ones (Glanz, 1998; Nolan & Hoover, 2004). During this time, along with the origin of the standardized testing movement, the teacher-rating instrument (i.e., check sheet, score card, and the like) also grew and became quite popular among administrators. Its purposes were to improve efficiency or “to cut out lost motion in the teacher’s activity” and save supervisory time (Spears, 1953, p. 66). One instrument had as many as forty-four items focusing on those physical attributes of the room and student and teacher behaviors that could be measured as well as changed (Spears, 1953). They were popular despite the lack of consensus on what constituted effective teaching, and despite opposition from teachers and others. And it was through these instruments (and the promise of objectivity) that the improvement of instruction was trying to find its place. In retrospect, we can see that these instruments gave administrators more power over teachers.

Teachers, however, reacted to what often amounted to administrative criticism, coercion and faultfinding. There was such dissatisfaction with the classroom visit that the term supervision was “shunned” and “deleted from the title of many staff positions in school systems from coast to coast. Articles in educational journals likewise revealed this professional boycott” (Spears, 1953, p. 78). Writers acknowledged and exposed this practice to be “coercive” (Barr et al., 1938) and even “evil” (Spears, 1953, p. 75).

In response, the field became more democratic and sensitive to teachers. The teacher’s “professional growth” became an articulated purpose of supervision (Barr et al., 1938) and “the

⁵ Some believed that the coercive practice was ill-founded:

1. This concept assumes that there are known best methods of doing anything. These are in the possession of the supervisor and may be handed out to teachers. It ignores the precarious, uncertain, and experimental aspects of life and of education.

3. The concept sets up a highly improper relationship between supervisors and teachers. Fear and distrust enter. Insincerity and dishonesty result. (Barr et al., 1938, p. 36)

first step to greater democracy in its operation” (p.6). Thus, democratic principles were adopted to counter teacher criticism.

In schools today we still see vestiges of this “organizational ritual” (Blumberg, 1974, p.13). Ponticell and Zepeda (2004), in their recent analysis of narratives and interviews of practitioners, illustrate that the classroom visit is ritual-like in purpose and conduct, such as in the following quote from a teacher:

The principal starts and ends with a list. The pre-observation conference consists of his handing me an observation list and telling me that as long as my lesson covers all the elements delineated, I will be okay. In the post-observation conference, he points out all the errors I made on the list and indicates how many points I lost. He directs me to sign the form: 'Fix these for your next observation.' (p. 3)

and one from a principal:

Evaluation is some kind of criteria that are supposed to help teachers to teach. Teachers are supposed to improve from an evaluation score There probably should be a difference between evaluation and supervision, but we've used the terms as one and the same for so long, I don't think I know how to do anything other than what the state requires. To really talk with teachers about instruction, to really help them address their concerns, takes time. I only have time to evaluate. (p. 3)

We believe over time that while the classroom visit and follow-up conference grew in features as well as terminology, it still remained for both teacher and principal “a tiresome chore, one that takes an enormous chunk of time” (Black, 2003, p. 38). We offer Figure 1 (Appendix) as our first attempt to chronicle the evolution of the classroom visit and its influences. Later attempts will develop and further explicate this initial thinking.

Teacher Evaluation: A Brief Perspective on State Statutes

Teacher evaluation statute and policy has long been the topic of research (e.g., Furtwengler, 1995, 1996; Wise et al., 1984; Wuhs & Manatt, 1983; Zirkel, 1979-90). Prior to the 1980s teacher evaluation was left to local discretion (Vier & Dagley, 2003; Zirkel, 1979-80). Since the 1980s policy activity has tended to ebb and flow with various national initiatives. For example, after *A Nation at Risk* (1983), Furtwengler (1995) found that:

1. Twenty states enacted their first requirements for teacher evaluation.
2. States tinkered with specific criteria, procedures, tenure, and state instruments.
3. Twenty-nine states attempted performance evaluation systems.
4. States required local districts to become more accountable and offered training.

5. States in the southeast were more active and detailed in their revisions, while those in the northeast had the least regulation of teacher evaluation.

Some times this resulted in a carrot and stick approach to reform. That is, on one hand, money or involvement is dangled as the teacher incentive; while on the other, attempts to change or eliminate tenure is the stick.

However, as a result of *No Child Left Behind's* insistence on highly qualified teachers in every classroom by the end of the 2005-2006 school year,⁶ teacher evaluation has once again become a policy target. Specifically, the National Governor's Association has targeted teacher evaluation to move from a personnel action to "a tool for instructional improvement" (Goldrick, 2002, p. 3).

A preliminary analysis of recent policy activity in school teacher evaluation, as reported in the Education Commission of the States (ECS)(2005a) report, suggests that some states are:

1. Decreasing the frequency of evaluation of veteran teachers.
2. Using student achievement as a criterion in teacher evaluation.
3. Using student achievement to evaluate teacher preparation programs.
4. Bringing more oversight and accountability to local personnel policy.
5. Revisiting pay for performance systems.

Selected Findings

The results of this research are reported for each of the following questions.

1. What changes have occurred recently in state statute and state department of education policy on teacher evaluation in the 20 states?

- A majority of the states (17 of 20) adopted at least one of the 6 strategies recommended by the National Governor's Association. Training evaluators (12 states), defining teacher quality (11 states), and focusing on improving teaching practice through peer review and portfolios (10 states) were strategies most frequently adopted by the states. Texas requires the most extensive training with 36 hours in Instructional Leadership and 20 hours of instrument training.

- A majority (11 of 20) of the states do not evaluate veteran teachers on an annual basis, but does so once in increments of every 3, 5, or some other variable number of years.

- A majority of the developments in teacher evaluation in these 20 states focus on data: adding new data, getting the data, and using the data, rather than on conducting evaluations. (Table 1 in Appendix) Adding new data to administrator evaluation was also a development in a few states.

- In addition, 13 of the states define teaching through a list of indicators, standards, attributes, or performance dimensions, while only 4 states have an evaluation instrument for local use (GA, TX, PA, DE). The states with the most number of items that define teaching include KY (93) and NJ (91).

⁶ The highly qualified teacher holds 1) a minimum of a bachelor's degree, 2) full state certification, and 3) has demonstrated subject area competence in each of the academic subjects in which the teacher teaches (U.S. Department of Education, 2002).

2. *What promising practices are institutionalized in these states (i.e., peer review, mentors, intensive assistance, critical friends, cognitive coaching, action research, collaborative supervision, etc.)?*

•The practices included within teacher evaluation in the 20 states include:

Alignment of teacher evaluation to school improvement (KY, CO, CT, DE, NJ), clinical supervision training (CA) and the pre-observation conference (TN, TX), peer involvement/review (FL, LA, OH), use of mentors (SC), self-evaluation, reflection (LA, TX), cognitive coaching (TN), action research (TN), use of multiple methods in the evaluation process (UT, CO, CT, DE), and the Classroom Walk-Through (TX).

•A somewhat surprising finding was that the promising practices were found more often in centralized states than in decentralized ones. This finding appears to indicate that centralized states are moving toward institutionalization of the promising practices, thus adding them to the “ritual” of the teacher evaluation process. As a Seattle high school teacher observed, “Principals embrace these practices because they take less time than observing and conferencing with all their teachers, and writing up the evaluations.” But whatever the motive, such adoptions may lead to the development of the promising practices as ritual.

3. *How might these mandates affect the practice of teacher evaluation?*

• Teacher evaluation may be further complicated by the elements added to and precipitated by statute and policy in this sample of 20 states (see Figure 2 in Appendix). Additives to practice may include: the classroom walk-through, the use of multiple measures, customer service data, use of peers or teams, and reflection. As new elements are added to practice, they can further complicate the visit; perhaps to the extent that practitioners—teachers and administrators alike -- retreat to the original ritual out of confusion. If they do not have the luxury of retreat, due to consequences (such as state monitoring of local practice and the tie to salary) then practitioners may be further confused by added new elements to old ones sometimes at cross-purposes. For example, a focus on individual and group reflection on teaching practices within a school, may tend to change the perspective of teaching from one of simply carrying out certain identified behaviors to one of teaching as a complex practice. This may be counter to the intent in the identification of effective teaching standards and behaviors.

4. *What are the implications of these findings for instructional supervision?*

• While democratic principles were once adopted to allay criticism of coercive tactics, promising practices that promote teacher growth may have been adopted in a similar vein. Ironically, as promising practices appear in state statutes and regulations and become mandates for practice, they have the chance to become routine and hence part of the ritual of evaluation. (Darling-Hammond with Sclan, 1992)

• While the states that we analyzed made changes by focusing on data, there is a subsequent development of data cottage industries. For example, data warehousing (in Jefferson County Public Schools, Louisville, KY), and data destruction services (e.g., KIL-A-BYTE in Pittsburgh). There is Virtual Supervision with IP-based videoconferencing equipment delivering video of teaching (Amodeo & Taylor, 2004). There also are businesses that bring process measures and metrics to public education (American Productivity and Quality Center in Houston). To busy school administrators, the temptation to contract out the collection (and perhaps even) analysis of data has the potential to lead to less effective conferencing about teaching practices and to increased efforts on the part of teachers to gain control over use of these data.

For example, Miller (2005) reports that evaluation data collected by the EDNET/Satellite Course Evaluation Process is not kept by administrators, and that evaluation summaries are reported *only* to teachers. This agreement was made with teachers because of the sensitive nature of teacher evaluations. Additionally, in a paper presented to the Council of Professors of Instructional Supervision (COPIS), (Peyton, 2004) described a computerized videotaping program he has developed specifically for the purposes of recording classroom teaching segments so that administrators are not required to be physically present in classrooms in order to conduct “observations” of teaching for preparation of evaluation reports. We wonder what responses and protections teacher associations will initiate to such data collection methods and to the reports based on them.

- When teachers and their professional associations are involved in evaluation policy-making, the intent of their involvement may be protection against distressing practice. One example is the pre-conference. Originating with clinical supervision, a rationale for practice born out of work with student teachers in Harvard’s MAT program, the pre-conference was designed to help both supervisor and teacher to plan the lesson and prepare for the observation (Cogan, 1973). As its practice was adopted by schools, and sometimes legislated (in the case of California), it became a way for teachers to protect themselves from poor evaluation (Black, 1993). When it became institutionalized in statute and policy and applied to teacher evaluation, the pre-conference became a way for teachers to learn to do a “tap dance” more in tune with the administrator’s expectations (Garman & Hazi, 1988). While the pre-conference protected the teacher from poor evaluation, now peer, team, and mentor involvement may attempt to provide that same protection.

- While there seems to be more rigorous evaluation of teachers, veteran teacher evaluations are being conducted less frequently.

- These developments in teacher evaluation in the states (i.e., focusing on data and defining teaching) may further complicate a ritual, that is already problematic. For example, Gallagher (2005) argues that definitions of teaching that come in the form of numerous, complex standards are often in conflict with accountability measures. Apparently some standards included in the Illinois Professional Teaching Standards are so idealistic and vague that they cannot be implemented in real classrooms, and further, he contends, they often run counter to the mandated performance tests being used to assess them.

Summary

This research examined state statute and department of education regulations in twenty states, classified as either centralized or decentralized based on Phipps’s categories and recent policy action. State statutes and regulations were then examined for trends, promising practices and dilemmas. Categories were developed based on sources identified in the literature, including a policy brief for the National Governor’s Association (Goldrick, 2002). While the effects of state implementation of the strategies identified by the NGA on student learning are not clear at this point, it appears that most states have moved forward in their adoption of the strategies. Whether or not this policy action will “transform and revolutionize” teacher evaluation in the long-term or simply complicate the ritual remains to be seen

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Appendix

Table 1

State Developments in Teacher Evaluation

Types of Developments*	States
<u>Adding new data to evaluation</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> National Board Certification Customer service data Student progress, gains 	SC UT CA, FL, GA, TN, TX, CO
<u>Getting data</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Classroom walk-through Multiple methods in the evaluation process Portfolios and video portfolios 	TX UT, CO, CT, DE CT, IA, WV (optional)
<u>Using data</u> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Student improvement as a fraction of teacher's evaluation score Salary tied to satisfactory performance Using evaluations when teachers become employed by other districts 	DE, TX OH LA, TX, WV KY, CO, CT, DE, NJ PA NJ

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> •Aligned to school improvement •Rubric •Narrative 	
<p><u>Conducting evaluation</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The pre-observation conference • Use of goal-setting • Expert external review when disputes in evaluation • A register of state forms • Use of teams • Use of peers • Limits on lesson plan requirements 	<p>TN, TX OH</p> <p>UT LA SC, TN, UT,WV(optional) FL, LA, SC, TN, NY WV</p>

*These types are in part based on Peterson's (2004) Categories

Figure 1. The classroom visit and its additions with illustrative source

The Original	Addition #1	Addition #2
The Classroom Visit	Democratic Principles Unannounced Visits Check sheet, score cards, rating scale (Industry, Psychology)	Formative v. summative (Program Evaluation, Scriven) Pre-conference (Supervision-Cogan, 1973) Additional Sources of data (McGreal, 1983)
The Follow-Up Conference		Goal-setting (Supervision-McGreal 1983) Reflection (Schon)

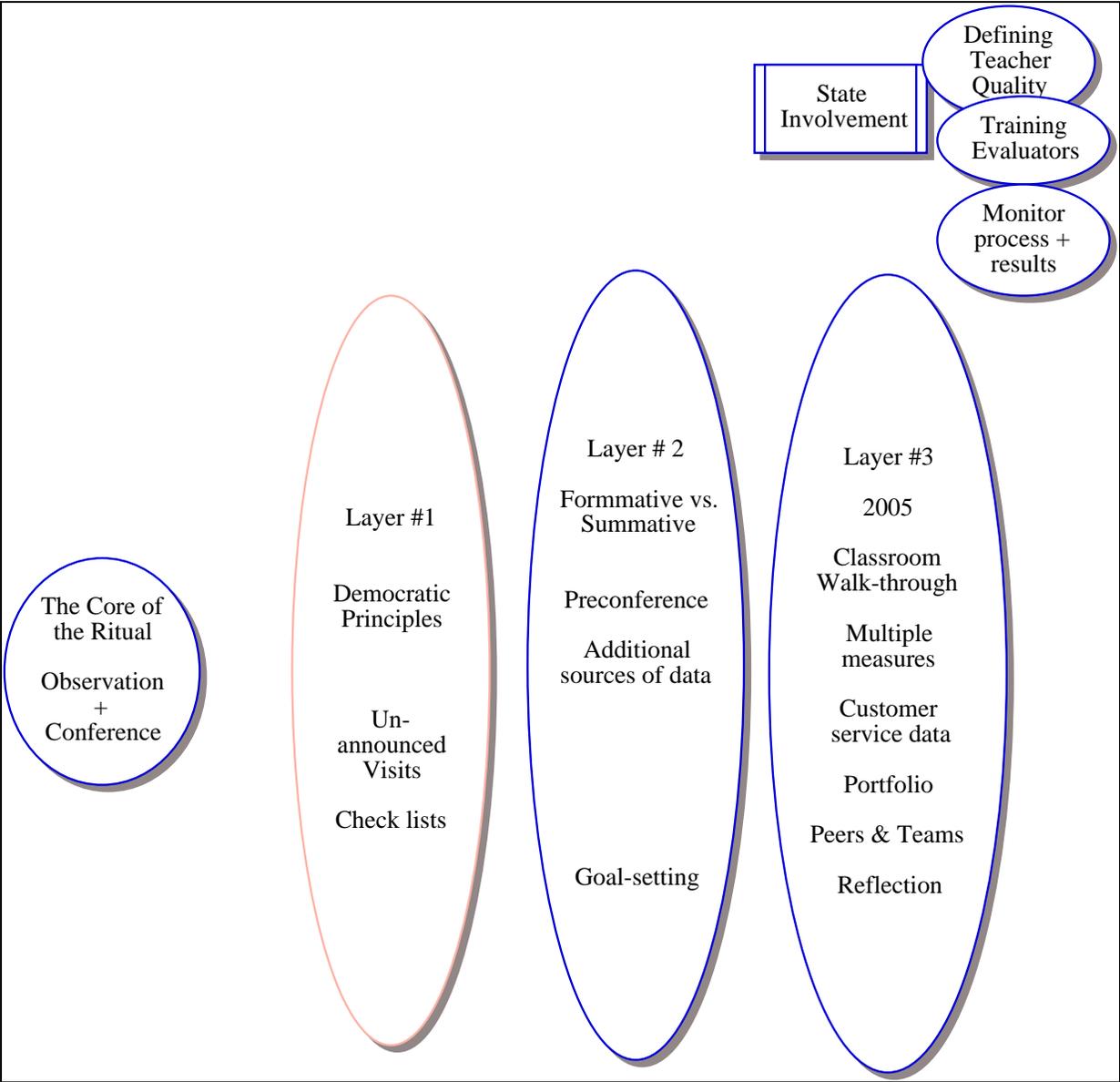


Figure 2: The evolution of the ritual of the classroom visit with layers of influence over time

Teachers' Perspectives of How High-Stakes Testing Influences
Instructional Decisions and Professionalism

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Political and public demands for increased accountability have created an explosion of testing requirements, placing America's teachers and students under the microscope to ensure that learning is occurring at efficient and successful levels (Barksdale-Ladd & Thomas, 2000; Hoffman, Assaf, & Paris, 2001; Paris & Urdan, 2000; Popham, 2003). Content standards have been adopted in all 50 states, with accompanying accountability systems for measuring achievement of these standards (Quality Counts, 2004; Reeves, 2001; Rothman, Slattery, Vrandek, & Resnick, 2002). Eight states have policies in place in which promotion is contingent on a passing test score and in 21 states, graduation is dependent on a statewide exit or end-of-course exam (Quality Counts, 2005). The logic behind this widely accepted philosophy is that test scores will prove school and teacher effectiveness and measure student achievement (Heubert & Hauser, 1999; Pedulla et al., 2003; Popham, 2003). In his acceptance speech at the Republican National Convention, presidential nominee George W. Bush (2000, August 3) vowed that the "soft bigotry of low expectations" would end, all children would receive a high quality education, and proof of the success of this endeavor would be evident with increased test scores.

However, while it is a commendable goal for all students to receive a high quality education, there is scant evidence that the implementation of testing programs has demonstrated an increase in student achievement or improvements in teaching (Allington, 2000; Amrein, 2002; Linn, 2000; Paris & Urdan, 2000). When assessments become a part of the instructional program, a clear message is sent to educators as to what is important in teaching and learning (McTighe, 1996). A study of the Texas "miracle" by Haney (2000) revealed little evidence of achievement gains. Analysis of documented scores shown on the Texas Assessment of Academic Skills (TAAS) raised doubts about the reliability and validity of the scores. Additionally, a recent study by Clarke et al. (2003) reported that attaching high stakes to the

testing program can adversely affect the instructional program, have a negative impact on at-risk students, and at the same time, not show improvements in teaching and learning.

Furthermore, teacher professionalism is impacted in a negative way (Barksdale-Ladd & Thomas, 2000; Jones, Jones, & Hargrove, 2003; Perrault, 2000). The reporting of scores in local papers is cited as one example of how results impact teachers' attitudes about testing. A national survey on the perceived effect of state testing programs by classroom teachers found that regardless of the stakes involved a substantial majority of teachers reported disapproval of how the media reported testing issues (Pedulla et al., 2003). A survey of National Board Certified Teachers in Ohio found incongruity between what teachers viewed as effective classroom practices and what legislative policies required, leading them to believe that education is "headed in an unhealthy direction," especially in the area of creativity and autonomy (Rapp, p. 218). Varying levels of teacher confidence were evident among schools implementing high-stakes testing programs, according to Berry et al. (2003) who described "an invasive scrutiny of their classrooms, increased intra-district competition, and specific pressures on teachers to make changes whether or not there were professional reasons to do so" (p. 26).

Three components are typically included in all definitions of the word "professional." To fit the definition a professional must possess: (1) knowledge and competence acquired from highly specialized training and formal education, (2) the respect and trust of community and peers that leads to a degree of autonomy and self-direction, and (3) a set of values, moral and ethical, that allow the performance of the job to become more service-oriented rather than profit-oriented (Darling-Hammond & Goodwin, 1993; Freidson, 1970; Starr, 1984; Sullivan, 1995). Doyle (1976) stated, teaching is "an occupation whose members are reputed to possess high levels of skill, commitment, and trustworthiness" (pp. 21-22). Doyle ascertained that for an occupation to attain professional status, the occupation must be viewed by the public as having "significant, far-reaching, and proximal social consequences" (p. 23) and it must be perceived by

the general public that only members of the occupation are capable, willing, and skilled enough to perform the duties of that occupation. In this important way, the professions distinguish themselves from “occupations” through the unique tasks, skills, and moral commitment individuals engage in when joining the profession.

The *No Child Left Behind Act of 2001* requires each state to implement an accountability program that tests children annually in grades 3 through 8 and once in grades 9 through 12 on a challenging set of content standards in reading and math. Although states are given the choice as to the stakes applied to the testing program, under previous Georgia Governor Roy Barnes, legislation passed attaching high stakes to the testing program. The *A-Plus Education Reform Act of 2000* (as amended in 2003), in an effort to increase the level of student achievement, completely revamped the accountability system, adding rewards and sanctions to the results. For example, third grade students who score at Performance Level I—below 300 points out of a possible 450 points—in reading are not promoted to fourth grade, unless there is an appeal filed by a parent, teacher, or administrator and the decision is revoked. Sanctions are also applied to schools that do not meet Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) on the Criterion Referenced Competency Test (CRCT). Schools not meeting AYP are required to write a plan for improvement and, depending on the number of years the school has not made adequate progress, the sanctions can include offering school choice or reassignment of duties for teachers and administrators.

In light of the current debate about the effectiveness of high-stakes testing, it was important to discover the intended and unintended consequences of high-stakes tests. To maximize the positive and to minimize the negative effects on the instructional program, data must be available describing the effect of high-stakes testing on classroom practices relative to teacher professionalism and teacher knowledge for making instructional decisions. Using a qualitative approach, the study described in this paper was designed to uncover accomplished

elementary school teachers' perspectives on how high-stakes testing influences instructional decisions and professionalism.

Teachers are key players in the accountability movement and how they respond to the policies being implemented has an affect on students' performance (Barksdale-Ladd & Thomas, 2000; Olson, 2002; Pedulla et al., 2003). Reform through accountability measures too often regulates the process and content of teaching by implementing teacher-proof curricula and further increases a hierarchal control over teachers (Rosenholtz, 1989). Rosenholtz stated, "Much negative publicity has resulted, and the public climate of opinion has become increasingly hostile; there has been an abrupt and utter evaporation of confidence in the nation's teachers, and consequently of their own confidence in themselves" (p. 214). The teacher's perspective is not often the one being sought by those who make or determine policy (Barksdale-Ladd & Thomas, 2000; Goodlad, 1990; Pedulla et al., 2003). Arnold Shore, the executive director of the National Board on Educational Testing and Public Policy, stated that "In the public debate, in the public conversation, the voices of those who are implementing testing and accountability policies are either underheard or not heard much at all" (Olson, 2002, ¶13).

Paris and Urdan (2000) further supported the importance of the role of the teacher by describing two reasons their voice is important. First, tests are often used as the vehicle for changing instruction. The goals and standards of the curriculum are aligned to the assessment; therefore, the taught and the tested curriculum supposedly become synonymous. Second, the public is demanding stronger evidence of teacher and school effectiveness, and test scores are the method by which schools prove they are meeting higher expectations for improved teaching quality. For teachers to assist in the support of changing instruction and meeting public demands for higher achievement, the unintended consequences such as weakened teacher professionalism and less autonomy in making important instructional decisions must be addressed.

Little is known about how accomplished Georgia educators perceive or implement the current accountability system at the elementary school level. Accomplished teachers, defined by their designation as National Board Certified Teachers, were selected because they are regarded as most qualified and effective in instructional practices. At the time, no studies were found documenting the level of accomplished elementary school teachers' understanding of the relationship between Georgia curriculum, effective instructional practices, and the current high-stakes accountability system in the state of Georgia. Furthermore, no studies were found documenting the perspective of Georgia's accomplished teachers as to the effect high-stakes testing had on instructional decisions and teacher professionalism.

Methods

The grounded theory methodology as described by Glaser and Strauss (1999) was incorporated because of the premise that there is a "discovery of theory from data" (p. 1). Inductive, qualitative analysis requires objectivity and the application of a process that allows the researcher to "build theory rather than test theory" (Patton, 2002, p. 127). Grounded theory necessitates the ability of the researcher to "critically analyze situations, to think abstractly, and to have sensitivity to the words and actions of the respondents" (Patton, pp. 489-490). A continuous cycle of gathering, analyzing, and comparing data resulted in the emergence of consistent themes.

Using a case study approach, interviews were held with six National Board Certified elementary school teachers in two one-hour sessions regarding instructional decisions and teacher professionalism. To provide further validation of the findings, teachers were given the opportunity to read the interview transcripts and analyses before and after each interview. Additionally, by using this approach, teachers were given time to reflect and to more thoughtfully verbalize their perspectives about the impact of testing.

The analytic process of interpreting the data from a whole to part and part to whole concept aided in applying meaning to the findings. By systematically coding each piece of data and employing a method of constant comparison, patterns and themes emerged. Triangulation of data helped further validate the findings. Multiple data sources, such as fieldnotes, artifacts, and interview transcriptions, were used for confirming consistencies or revealing the inconsistencies generated by the data (Patton, 2002).

Findings

After an interpretative and inductive analysis was conducted of individual cases, the same constant comparison method was applied in a cross case analysis. Findings revealed five themes that emerged from the case studies of six National Board Certified elementary school teachers. These themes are discussed in relation to the influence on teachers' instructional decisions and professionalism.

Theme 1: *Teachers accept accountability but are not supportive of implementation methods that negatively impact students.*

All participants accepted accountability measures for various reasons. For example, test scores assisted teachers in determining if their instructional methods were effective.

Additionally, one participant believed that accountability would increase the quality of instruction and, therefore, improve the reputation of the state. She stated, "We want to be proud of the education system in our state." Jones and Egley (2004) reported that teachers in Florida indicated "accountability is good or necessary" and invariably there was a "but" that followed describing why the statewide high-stakes test was not effective. Similar findings were reported by Barksdale-Ladd and Thomas (2000), which noted that teachers considered it best practice to periodically assess for improving teaching and student learning.

Clarke et al. (2003) noted that "there are more negative than positive test-related effects on students, such as test-related stress" (p. 11). Concerns regarding the negative unintended

consequences of the accountability programs were noted by all participants of this study, as well. Student stress, retention decisions, and the need for addressing political and public demands were among the reported unintended consequences of accountability. One participant noted, “When we make any, any, any decision about a child, we’ve got to look at the whole picture, not just one form of assessment.” Another participant said, “Retention is not always the answer.” Four of the participants had observed an increase in student stress and was described by one participant’s statement, “no one sees the kids coming in shaking because they are afraid.” Unfortunately, an “increase of aggressive behavior” was also described. Invariably, studies have reported increased levels of anxiety when students are required to take a high-stakes test (Amrein, 2002; Johnson & Johnson, 2002; Jones et al., 2003).

All participants believed that because of accountability, they were often the “scapegoats” and that there appeared to be a lot of “finger-pointing” and “holding the teachers more accountable.” It was stated, “We aren’t a miracle worker in a year—the home environment, all of those things play heavily in everything they are trying to hold us accountable for. No teacher wants to leave kids behind.”

Theme 2: *Making instructional decisions about a student’s learning can not be determined by one high-stakes test.*

Studies have indicated that higher scores on tests are not always indicative of skill mastery (Amrein, 2002; Elmore, 2004; Hoffman et al., 2001; Pedulla et al., 2003). Participants in this study described students who had passed the test but who had not demonstrated grade level work all year. Conversely, there were concerns about students who did not possess the confidence necessary to pass the test because, as one teacher explained, “the students are so used to failure they are too anxious about the test to perform to their ability.” All participants indicated the need for multiple criteria because often test scores did not accurately portray the ability of the student. Similarly, a nationwide study by Clarke et al. (2003) recommended that

“decisions not be made on the basis of a single test” but allow options for “students to demonstrate achievement so that all have a chance to be successful” (p. 15).

The topic of retention and promotion was mentioned by all participants multiple times. Using one test to make decisions about a student’s grade placement was not a practice that had gained wide support among the teachers participating in this study as well as the teachers who participated in other studies. Pedulla et al. (2003) found that using one assessment for promotion and retention was not accepted by teachers or administrators. In fact, national groups such as the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (2004) and the American Educational Research Association (2000) posted position statements indicating the negative consequences of such practice.

Theme 3: *Instruction is often compromised by high-stakes testing.*

Studies found that the time used preparing for a high-stakes test was excessive (Barksdale-Ladd & Thomas, 2000, Hoffman et al., 2001). While the extensive use of test preparation materials was not evident in any of the classrooms of the teachers interviewed, all teachers believed that preparing for the test took the place of “more important instruction.” One participant reported that she made a conscious effort not to “take away real instruction” but another described “stopping what we would normally do to practice,” and “hurrying through instruction” of some topics that would be assessed on the test. Test format and vocabulary were two areas teachers tried to make sure their students were familiar. For example, one of the teachers described giving her students a “bubble spelling test” so they could practice the format. Every participant spoke about the nature of test preparation and the extent to which it can potentially “subtract” from the “real learning.” One participant made the decision not to use any of the materials “because I feel confident in my instruction.” However, this same teacher could understand why a novice teacher may want to use the activities since “they have not had the experience to feel confident in their instruction.” Two participants stated that they were

“thankful” they did not “have use test preparation materials.” Interestingly, one participant explained that “scores may go up but the score would not represent the real learning.”

Participants expressed apprehension about the degree of learning students received in content areas. The narrowing of curriculum to a point that only the tested subjects are taught in depth was found in multiple studies (Amrein, 2002; Clarke et al., 2003; Jones et al., 2003). It was a general belief among several of the participants from this study that because the test focused on certain content areas other subjects did not receive the necessary attention. Additionally, there was a concern about the depth of learning for gifted students and the fast pace of instruction for lower achieving students. Amrein (2002) and Clarke et al. (2003) noted that high-stakes testing had a negative impact on minority and low socioeconomic students. In this study, one participant agreed that there was an impact of high-stakes testing on the special education population. She stated that all year students were given accommodations and then during testing time, they were not always receiving the same accommodations. This same problem was mentioned by another participant regarding students who were limited English proficient.

Theme 4: *There is increased pressure on teachers to prove their effectiveness in making instructional decisions and on their role as a professional.*

One of the common attributes of professionalism includes the sense of respect and trust from the public for making educational decisions (Cochran-Smith & Fries, 2001; Darling-Hammond, 1997a; Hargreaves, 2003; Rosenholtz, 1989). Unfortunately, each teacher who participated in this research believed it was the intent of the accountability program to hold them individually responsible for student achievement. Most of the teachers stated that a characteristic of professionalism was to make wise instructional decisions and do what was best for students, and, consequently, they resented the implication that the public did not trust them. One participant stated, “We have the brain, we have the ability, we have the capacity to go in the

classroom and make our decisions and teach.” Rosenholtz (1989) noted the negative publicity and the lack of confidence in teachers added to the greater demand for accountability.

Pedulla et al. (2003) reported the dissatisfaction of teachers in the manner of how the media reported testing issues. Better communication was proposed by participants of this study as a way to gain more respect and to educate parents and the public about the issues surrounding testing in the classroom. One participant noted that she believed it was going to take a continued effort for relaying accurate information about the consequences of high-stakes testing.

Consequently, there appeared to be a need for a more positive image of accountability. Fullan (1993) asserted that for teaching to gain the status of a profession, teachers must “form and reform productive collaborations” (pp.16-17). The teachers involved in this study indicated a willingness to work toward a more positive image but progress relied on a greater respect for their professional decisions. Assigning high-stakes to the accountability formula appeared to have only added undue pressure on students, parents, and teachers. These teachers inferred that the same student achievement gains could be made without high-stakes attached to testing.

Popham (2001) described ways in which the profession had been jeopardized because of unethical practices in the quest for acceptable scores. Unethical behavior was mentioned by several of the participants even though they did not perceive any behavior on their part as unethical. One teacher worried about everything she did during the week of testing because of the “fear of being accused of unethical behavior.” Another teacher described the monitoring during testing time as “unnerving” when people continued to “peek in my door window.” These reactions are not uncommon. In a study by Amrein (2002), it was noted that teachers were being accused of cheating, when in fact, they believed they were preparing students for the test. This led Amrein to recommend that “differentiations between effective test preparation and cheating have to be made.”

Theme 5: *The intrinsic sense of professionalism is not truly understood and articulated by teachers in a high-stakes environment.*

Evidence exists that with the implementation of high-stakes testing professionalism has been impacted (Barksdale-Ladd & Thomas, 2000; Jones et al., 2003). In this study, however, not all teachers interviewed believed professionalism was influenced by high-stakes testing. The reflections of all participants indicated evidence of instances that one would have predicted would influence professionalism. For example, during the week of testing one teacher was very upset that she was told she could not teach reading or math until the test had been administered. As a result, this teacher described that no “real teaching occurred all week” for fear something would be said that would imply she was “teaching the test.” Two other participants mentioned the “unnerving” effect of people looking in their windows and doors to make sure they were administering the test properly and “ethically.” Additionally, one participant described how her recommendation of retention for one of her students was questioned because the “student would probably fail the test next year” and why not wait for the test to make the placement decision. This participant believed this was a “disservice to children.”

In spite of these instances, most of the participants reported their sense of professionalism was intact. When asked why these events had not influenced their professionalism, the answers were invariably statements such as “I will not let the fear of testing influence my professionalism” or “I know I am a professional. If I was unsure of my professionalism, I would not have gone into teaching.” One participant vowed not to let outside opinions influence her decision to make effective instructional decisions and stated, “You almost feel like the test scores are a reflection on you and what you are doing. I take that personally but I’m not going to bog down my curriculum because of it.” It appeared that the support of school leaders and the collegiality among the teachers were important components for gaining a sense of professionalism, but it was only forming at the school level and not at the system or state level.

This was a troubling finding in that research described professionalism as building capacity through collaborative and collegial means and that true professionalism included the respect and trust of community.

Implications

The influence of high-stakes testing on instructional decisions and professionalism has implications for future research, instructional supervisors, and state policymakers. The findings reported in this paper were based on the perspectives of six participants in one system outside metropolitan Atlanta. Because of the implementation of high-stakes testing in Georgia, it would be worthwhile to have additional data to support the findings of this research. Moreover, at the time of this study no other research was found on the influence of high-stakes testing in Georgia and there was limited qualitative research found from other states about the impact of high-stakes testing.

One of the unintended consequences of this study was found in the realm of professionalism. It was apparent through the conversations with the participants that their definitions of professionalism lacked the deeper articulation of the true meaning of professionalism. The participants' definitions of professionalism were generally couched in the way others viewed them and lacked the articulation of the role they must take for improving their image in the political and public arena. Attributes such as appearance, how information was communicated, or how the teacher planned for student instruction were used to describe professionalism.

The demands from political and public groups for increased accountability have placed teachers in a visible and vulnerable position. The posting of test scores by the media is just one example of how teachers' instruction is judged. One participant was disappointed that "parents don't go into the schools and meet the teachers" because she believed it was a "better indicator of what my school and I as a teacher are doing to ensure each child is learning." She confessed

that teachers were “constantly having to make sure that we are proving our professionalism to the public.” However, this teacher added, “It’s understandable. The public has put so much pressure on the testing that school systems have to be able to prove that teachers are professionals.”

Participants viewed the professional learning opportunities provided by the system for understanding standards and performance-based assessments were as an approach for increasing their sense of professionalism. One participant, “This system encourages professionalism. They provide the avenues; you just have to take the walk.” However, other statements made by participants implied an acceptance of the premise that professional learning was grounded in previously determined system level initiatives. When questioned about the importance of voice in school, system, and state decisions, most participants believed that their voice was not heard at the system or state level. The support teachers received through professional learning opportunities and the leadership in the school for implementation of standards and accountability masked the lack of growth of deeper, more intrinsic characteristics of professionalism. While these teachers may have experienced professional growth through school reform implementation, it appeared that little attention had been given to the efficacy of teachers associated with the understanding of the relationship between knowing what a professional is and how a professional reacts to the factors that influence their professionalism. None of the participants would elaborate on this phenomenon, leaving the researcher to discern a gap based more on what the participants did not say, rather on explicit descriptions of their experiences. Therefore, it is recommended that instructional supervisors provide opportunities for learning grounded in the needs of the participants. Opportunities must be provided that assist teachers in gaining a greater understanding of their significance in the educational system and in ensuring students are prepared for successful futures.

Case studies generally do not predict future behavior; however, results have proven to be effective for informing policy. The participants of this study did not believe they had a strong voice in decisions being made at the policy level. The level of trust in system and state requests for input appeared to be so low that most participants did not bother to make contributions or voice opinions to their local teacher associations. This was evident by the statement, “You don’t even take it that far because we feel like it’s going to be fruitless.” Instead, teachers in this study had accepted the state requirements and were working with their children and parents in the best manner possible to shield them from the pressures of state testing. The lack of motivation to become involved in state policy is disturbing in light of the responsibility the public has for contributing to the effectiveness of the political process. Policymakers must begin to make a greater effort to seek the voice of teachers in decisions made that impact student learning.

Merit pay attached to students’ scores was a concern for half of the teachers interviewed. In their opinion, merit pay jeopardizes the efforts made toward encouraging collegiality, collaboration, and communication among teachers, students, and parents. The competitive edge might further create a wedge obstructing the very activities and habits of mind of professionals who can collaborate, support, and nurture one another amid public attacks of teachers and education in the media. Policymakers would be well served to study this method of motivation for increased student achievement regarding the positive and negative consequences from other areas in which merit pay has been used to impact the quality of teaching.

All participants discussed the significance of their voice in decisions made at the school level but yet there appeared to be a lack of opportunities to share their beliefs with others outside their grade level or school. To increase the capacity of educational leaders and instructors, the voices of those who are closest to the students must be heard. More research is needed to fully understand why teachers believe that their professionalism either was or was not impacted by high-stakes testing. Georgia has received its share of negative press about its educational

system. Additionally, teachers perceive the definition of professionalism as grounded in how the public views them. It is possible that in an effort to defend the status of education in the state, teachers have assumed a confidence in their own abilities and the results they see in student achievement. This belief was self-perpetuated. However, teachers may not have developed this confidence to the level of understanding the relationship between how the public views them and how they view themselves related to professionalism.

Recruiting and retaining educators is consistently a concern in school systems. Participants of this study were disappointed in the confidence the public revealed in their ability to provide quality instruction to their children. For teaching to become a highly respected professional organization, the impact of high-stakes testing must be further examined. Moreover, teachers must be involved partners in reaching and maintaining professional status. How high-stakes testing influences that goal must be determined before teachers can understand and acquire the characteristics reflective of the true meaning of professionalism.

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**Instructional Supervision in a Standards-based Environment:
Retrospective, Perspective, and Prospective**

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Instructional Supervision in a Standards-based Environment: Retrospective, *Perspective*, and Prospective

Introduction

In a recent exploratory study (Glanz, Shulman, & Sullivan, 2005), we set out to describe the impact of high stakes testing and a standardized curriculum on the nature and practice of instructional supervision. We used surveys to assess how New York City teachers, coaches, and administrators viewed instructional supervision under new reform initiatives. We also looked at the role of professional development and its relationship to supervision of instruction. From our findings emerged observations about past supervisory initiatives, present practices, and possibilities (possible innovations) to integrate into a vision for the future.

1) The Past: A barely implemented provision of the 1996 union (UFT) contract provision permitting tenured teachers to choose alternatives to the traditional observation process is still virtually unknown and seldom implemented. This means that most teachers are unaware of an option that would encourage inquiry and meaningful reflection about teaching practice in close partnership with colleagues and supervisors. Instead, teachers engage in the traditional "Dog and Pony Show" of observations by a supervisor of a "model" lesson followed by a write-up noting "commendations" and "recommendations" (see Sullivan, Shulman, & Glanz, 2002).

2) The Present:

- A lack of instructional supervision in the current standards-based environment
- A virtually non-existent relationship between professional development and instructional supervision.
- A teachers' view of the role of administrators as increasingly evaluative, undemocratic and even inconsequential in its impact on improving instruction.

3) The Future: The principal source of instructional guidance and support IS shifting from administrators to the recently created positions of math and literacy coaches. In other words, instructional supervision is being practiced by subject area specialists who have little, if any, specialized training in instructional supervisory methods (Zepeda, 2003). However, teachers reach out to the coaches because of their mentoring role and expertise in their subject area; meanwhile the principals and assistant principals are drowning in administrative tasks that include, among many others, report writing, operational management, lunch and bus duty supervision, school discipline issues, etc. The future appears to portend untrained coaches supporting teachers while administrators are relegated to a supervisory role of pure evaluation.

So many questions and so few answers emerged from these findings that we thought we would bring some of the persistent nagging dilemmas to our university colleagues and practitioners from around the country. We begin by briefly reviewing the background related to the nature and form of instructional supervision occurring in New York City schools, and then we hope to facilitate a deep discussion on issues confronted by colleagues across the country on supervision within the standards-based environment.

Some Background and Analysis

As part of “The Children First Reform Agenda (CFRA)” passed by the New York City Department of Education (NYCDOE), New York City public schools underwent a major structural reorganization. Four elements of the CFRA include <http://www.nybboe.net/Administration/Childrenfirst/CFagenda.htm>):

- Adoption of a single , coherent system-wide approach for instruction in reading, writing and math that that is supported by strong professional development;
- Establishment of a new parent support system to make schools more welcoming to students' families and to give families the access and tools they need to be full partners in the education of their children;
- Development of principals as the key instructional leaders of their schools through unprecedented leadership development programs at the new Leadership Academy; and

- Reorganization of the Department of Education's management structure into a unified, streamlined system dedicated to instruction and design to drive resources from bureaucratic offices into the classroom

Joel Klein, considered by many the most powerful city school's chancellor in decades, was appointed head of the 1.1 million student school system. As a former anti-trust lawyer, Klein, with the New York City mayor's backing, instituted radical changes to the then Board of Education. Forty school districts were replaced with regional divisions. Further, he mandated a new standard curriculum be adopted in all but 208 exempt (top performing schools), and fired scores of principals (<http://www.thirteen.org/nyvoices/features/educationreform.html>).

The aforementioned four elements of the CRFA have been met by mixed results in terms of their implementation. The first element, for instance, has met particularly strong opposition. McFayden (2005) reported some teacher opposition as follows:

The principal of IS 230 in Queens gave stopwatches to math and English teachers this October to help keep their mini-lessons to the allotted 10 minutes. . . .

These episodes encapsulate the rigidity, disrespect and obsession with picayune detail that drove a majority of staff in 95 schools in Region 4 to vote to present a letter of censure to Superintendent

The educators in the schools spelled out their concerns in the four page letter. Among the core issues were:

- The mandatory use of the "workshop model" for all lessons, particularly in secondary schools.
- The rigid interpretation of "flow of the day" and bulletin board policy.
- Problems with Teachers College professional development, including the scheduling of training during teachers' instructional time and during their prep periods and lunches. (p. 3)

Efforts by business minded non-educators such as Mayor Michael Bloomberg, schools Chancellor Joel I. Klein, and his staff find justification and authority within a larger national movement to standardize both what takes place in classrooms and in the ways colleges, schools, or departments of education prepare teachers (Cochran-Smith, 2003). Teacher educators' and practicing school administrators' efforts are under assault by those business and political leaders who profess that they know better ways to nurture and develop the requisite knowledge, skills, and dispositions of future and current educators. Thomas Nelson (2003), editor of the *Teacher Education Quarterly* recently lamented "people in power who are clearly not experts in the field of education . . . to control . . . what content is deemed appropriate and how that content is to be taught. . . ." (p. 3)

There have always been those who wish to standardize teaching and view learning in the narrowest sense. The national movement towards standards-based education, including high-stakes testing, has served to legitimize and bolster local reform proposals such as those mandated in New York City.

Standards-based reform efforts have been criticized from many quarters for different reasons. Hostetler (2003), a teacher educator, laments our slavish adherence to standards. Over-reliance on a "technicist conception of teaching," he says, is a detriment to sound pedagogy (p. 61). Smith and O'Day (1991) decry the emphasis on teaching-for-the-test practices among educators to meet specified standards. Furthermore, they contend that standards-based reforms do not advocate assessment of complex thinking and problem solving but rather rely on assessments of lower-level skills. Amrein and Berliner (2003), in a wide scale research study involving data collected in eighteen states, criticize high-stakes testing for having a detrimental affect on student motivation and achievement. They say the current reform efforts by policy-makers did not create high-stakes testing but the "No Child Left Behind Act of 2001"

made it “more pervasive than ever before, mandating annual testing of students in grades 3-8 in reading and math” (p. 32). The aim of federal legislators was that high-stakes tests would improve student motivation and achievement, yet the authors conclude that “the evidence shows that such tests actually decrease student motivation and increase the proportion of students who leave school early” (p 32).

Data from this study demonstrate that given the drive towards high stakes testing in a standards-driven educational environment, at least as played out in the schools we surveyed in New York City, supervisory practice is characterized as a perfunctory function utilizing checklist approaches. The pressure practitioners face to raise student achievement as measured on high-stakes tests is enormous. Principals and assistant principals are more accountable than ever to address prescribed core curriculum standards, promote teaching to the standards, and ensure higher student academic performance on standardized tests. Consequently, those concerned with supervision have been more inclined to incorporate supervisory practices that are a throwback to the 1930's, 1940s, and 1950s. Directive approaches of supervision find justification within a standards-based educational milieu. Even the “Walk-Through,” conceived as a democratic process, involving teachers, is used primarily as a monitoring tool (Roberts, & Pruitt, 2003).

Methodology

We collected data in three phases: First, we distributed questionnaires to 71 public school teachers who were graduate students in education at a public New York City (NYC) college. Sixty-eight questionnaires were returned. Of this group of 65, 58 were elementary, middle and high school teachers, five respondents were deans, two were coaches, one was an English Language Learner (ELL) coordinator, and two were guidance counsellors. Teaching experience in this group ranged from less than one year to 25 years of experience. Twenty-eight questionnaire respondents had been teaching for three years or fewer and had not yet received tenure.

We used interviews as the primary mode of data collection for the second phase of this process in order to obtain a richer description of instructional supervision in the schools. Twenty one non-tenured New York City elementary, middle and high school teachers were interviewed by the researchers. Typically, we carried out individual, one-on-one semi-structured interviews (Yin, 1994) with participants, transcribed the interviews verbatim, and checked them for accuracy. We employed triangulation procedures to reduce the likelihood of misinterpretation of data and to clarify the meaning of our interviews and observations. While multiple data sources (including interviews, observations and documents) were used for triangulation (Denzin & Lincoln, 1998, Merriam, 1998), findings reported are primarily from interviews. Documents that provided supplemental information, included observation evaluations prepared by supervisors, and also curriculum descriptions.

The third phase of data gathering occurred one academic year later (2005). We were now interested in verifying our previous findings. We were particularly interested in understanding the roles that coaches were assuming under the new reforms. Therefore, for this third phase of data gathering, we interviewed a small number of coaches and administrators to better understand their view of instructional supervision. We then went back and surveyed teachers in order to understand how supervision of instruction was now being conducted.

Two primary questions were addressed at each of the three phases of data collection:

1) How do teachers and administrators view the practice of instructional supervision? and 2) What is the relationship between PD and instructional supervision as played out in the New York City public schools?

Results

Data from Phase I: The role of supervision was seen by the overwhelming majority of respondents (50 out of 65) as evaluative. These respondents viewed the principal and/or assistant principal as primarily an observer and assessor of teacher performance. Other roles mentioned included that of problem solver (14 out of 65), and disciplinarian (8 out of 65). Two of the four respondents who viewed the supervisor as an instructional leader and/or a promoter of personal growth were school coaches.

The overall majority of respondents (73 out of 86 questionnaire respondents and interviewees) reported a supervision process involving a pre-conference that included the submission of a lesson plan and a post-conference where the administrator used either a checklist or narrative to document the observation and meeting. Most teachers (51 out of 86) did not view this process as helpful. When asked what was learned from the supervisor's visits to the classroom, one veteran elementary school teacher responded with: "I learned that he does his job and I do mine." Five teachers reported learning "good questioning techniques" from the supervision process, the only instructional benefit that teachers pointed out.

Teachers were asked what their roles are in the process of instructional supervision. More than half the teachers gave no response to this question. Teachers who did respond saw their role as: “none,” “performer,” “to do what my AP tells me,” and “anxiety.”

A number of teachers spoke about the new involvement of coaches both in the supervision process and in PD. When asked whether PD improved her practice, one teacher responded that it was valuable only when the math coach met with her department to talk about curricula. Another responded that PD was informative only when the principal was able to plan the agenda together with the coaches. Asked about the role of her supervisor in the process of supervision of instruction, one teacher responded with: “Nothing, I deal with my coach only.”

Math and literacy coaches have currently taken over teacher development. As a result, supervisors (principals, APs) have become marginalized – they do their pro-forma observations without linking up with the PD done with math and literacy coaches. So there is a missing connection that needs to be made – i.e., between coaches, teachers and supervisors.

The use of Option A, the Teacher Performance Review option that allows tenured teachers to choose a performance option in lieu of a formal observation, would give teachers an opportunity to work with coaches and try new techniques. However, when asked about Option A, only six respondents were aware of this option, and only two had ever chosen it instead of an observation.

Teachers were asked to describe PD at their schools. One third (23) of the 65 questionnaire respondents did not answer this question. The majority of PD descriptions were negative, and included responses such as: [PD is]

- “tedious and boring”
- “not related to what we do”
- “PD consists of reviewing the latest lingo – not much help.”
- “nobody takes it seriously”

- “we have it every week. It has not improved anything. It’s a waste of time.”

Six teachers described PD at their schools in terms of interactions with math and literacy coaches. Four of these descriptions were positive, two were negative.

One teacher described PD at her school involving coaches as follows:

The literacy coach at my school did model a lesson for me in my most difficult class. She promised she’d come in every week and work with different strategies that could help me and my students, and returned, maybe twice instead.

Teachers were asked if PD helped to improve their practice. Of the 42 who responded (including questionnaire respondents and interviewees), eight teachers responded with “yes,” 31 responded “no,” and three responded “little.”

PD and supervision and their relationship were reflected upon by several respondents. The following are a few representative comments:

- “Not that I ever appreciated or got good mentoring or supervision, but this situation is laughable.”
- “I did have one AP once, before this recent mess, who really helped me. I admired him and we always had time to talk about teaching without me feeling threatened . . . Now, he probably has no time to do that.”
- “My principal spends very little time talking about instruction or real ways to help me improve teaching.”
- “Why are we not ever asked about what kind of PD we need or would like?”
- “I see no connection between PD and supervision.”

Data from Phase II: Teacher Interviews Twenty out of 21 interviewees viewed supervision as “evaluative,” “rigid,” “undemocratic,” “unproductive,” and “confusing.” One elementary school teacher remarked:

They are micromanaging us. They're in our rooms all the time.... They are constantly in our rooms, walking around, reading all our bulletin boards. Walking around, just talking to kids in the classroom... I just feel like we're constantly being watched, like they are going to catch us doing something."

A middle school teacher with 10 years of experience viewed the role of principal as solely evaluative, described as "audience for the show." Another elementary school teacher reported that supervision has become more confusing than ever because "people have conflicting interests about what we should be doing."

When asked what the supervision process looked like in his/her school, one high school teacher with 10 years of experience spoke about the supervisors in her school: ..."half sit behind [their] computers and hide and do not participate in school life, and only 25% do anything."

One elementary school teacher with 7 years of public school experience viewed the past several years of supervision as increasingly rigid and intense. She despaired at the lack of mentoring in the current process:

It's so artificial and contrived. They tell you what you want to see, you put on your little dog and pony show, they watch you and then stroke you and give you pointers....I haven't had any real supervision or guidance and I'm suffering because of it.

The supervision process – someone coming in and coaching or modelling for you or mentoring doesn't happen. I can count the times on one hand that a coach comes in. 42 classes, 1000 students – they are spread thin.

When asked about supervision changes since the implementation of the literacy and mathematics initiatives, the majority of teachers report no change except for the need to incorporate the new "workshop model" into their lessons.

All teachers were asked how the supervision process addresses the standardized curricula. Teacher responses again showed the supervisor in an evaluative role, ensuring teacher compliance with the new curricula. One middle school teacher reported:

I feel that supervisors are only concerned with appearances. As long as the standards are posted in the room and bulletin boards, they are unconcerned.

One of the coaches responded with, “drill and kill.”

A majority of respondents during the interview mentioned how disenchanted they were with the new administrative structure “imposed” on New York City and all that it entailed. Referring to the mayors and chancellor’s reorganization initiatives, the following comments represent respondents’ views:

- “No wonder everything is so standardized, they tell us what to do and when , and um... how to do it.”
- “They have no confidence in our teaching ability; they constantly monitor us . . . every day a dozen people, half of whom I don’t know, walk into my classroom to observe...or snoop.”
- “The supervisors (I mean principal, and local instructional superintendents) continually check in on us. . . making sure we have enough student work up to show, so on and so on... I try to give them what they want to see. I guess they are getting pressure from on top. . . . We too are under a lot of pressure.”
- “The Workshop Model isn’t suited for my advanced placement courses . . . they give us no flexibility, nor allow us to be creative. . . But, I guess, it’s a must since it’s been mandated.”

- “I still get evaluated the same way . . . you know, the ‘dog and pony show’ . . . the more things change,”
- “They never gave us enough training, especially in the beginning of 2003. They never asked us what we thought?!”
- “These mandated curricula have never been really proven successful, so why are they making us use them?”
- “Test sophistication practice is much of what we are now required to do . . . I don’t teach reading, I teach them how to take a reading test.”

Data from Phase III: Coaches and Administrators

Preliminary analysis from a small sample of administrators and coaches found similarities in their views of the role of the coaches. The coach was viewed primarily as an instructional mentor, modeling lessons and sharing best practices with teachers.

“I meet with teachers to plan daily lessons and lessons for formal observations”

“I look to support teachers... My focus is always on the instructor”

“I model is [supervision of instruction]”

Coaches viewed the role of the administrator in the supervision process as evaluative, where the principal or assistant principal was seen as an assessor of teacher performance. To some extent, this was also the view of the administrators who were interviewed. One administrator spoke about recent involvement of coaches in the supervision process, as follows:

While supervision of instruction is still the responsibility of the administrator, the literacy and math coaches are often called upon to facilitate the observation and supervision process. Coaches are often directed by administrators or requested by teachers to go into classrooms and work with teachers to model lessons or share best practices. In this way, the coach acts as a follow up to an administrator's observation of a teacher or assists a teacher in preparing for an observation. Essentially, it is a "grey" area that is still being defined and may have different meanings in different schools.

Coaches were sometimes uneasy with their new involvement in instructional supervision. One coach, when asked about the role of the principal in his NYC elementary school coach responded with:

...she wants me to report back to her, which is very uncomfortable for me as I walk a fine line between staff and administration.

When asked about the role of supervision in professional development, both coaches and administrators spoke about regional initiatives that often consume professional development hours at the expense of much needed instructional support.

Data from Phase III: Teachers (one year later) Despite the small follow-up sample of teachers who were surveyed, three important additional patterns emerged from their responses:

1) Two respondents mentioned the role of (UFT) United Federation of Teachers Centers as a support system in their schools. UFT Teachers Centers are located throughout the city, often in high-need area or low performing schools. Master teachers (with no training as supervisors) run the centers and support classroom teachers with resources and strategies. As one teacher commented:

....a teacher center was establish in order for teacher to obtain resources and practices to use in the classroom. Furthermore, the teacher center helps teacher model lessons and implement "best practices" in the classroom.

2) Several teachers noted that "the coaches in my school usually work only with brand-new teachers or with teachers who are not performing well." The implication is that trained supervisors are not the ones supporting the teachers most in need.

3) Whereas we included questions about "best practices" in our discussion questions for the COPIS Conference, we asked Phase III teachers to describe practices that could be characterized as "best practices." The responses were divided between public school teachers who spewed out the mandated jargon e.g., child-centered, hands-on, standards-based, individualized, workshop model, balanced literacy, etc., and non-public school teachers whose responses were individualized. One parochial school teacher noted:

There are a variety of "best practices" that have proven through experience to be successful methods in our school. These methods are journal writing, required readings, oral reading by teachers...and in-class writing samples and peer teaching to name a few.

Discussion

After two years of surveying and interviewing teachers, coaches, and administrators working within the systemic reform of the New York City Department of Education, our surveys and interviews have repeatedly revealed similar patterns that fall under one umbrella concept: the role of administrators as managers despite the talk of instructional leadership; and the increase in the role of untrained "supervisors" of classroom instruction. It is clear that high-stakes testing, standards-based instruction which in New York City means a prescribed curriculum in most schools is constraining administrators and teachers.

Observations and professional development to improve instruction, for the most part, are not within the purview of the administrators. Some responses mentioned elementary principals who are the exception to prove the rule. Teachers spoke of administrators as monitors or evaluators and administrative professional development drawn from Regional mandated initiatives or not related to teachers' needs. On the other hand, if consultation takes place with the coaches or if the coaches run the PD, it may be considered useful. The administrative

misuse of the "Walk-through" has turned it into a monitoring tool instead of a collaborative learning strategy.

In contrast, teachers look to most math and literacy coaches for modeling and sharing best practices and instructional and classroom guidance. The two caveats that surfaced are: administrators who ask coaches to report to the administrators on their teacher observations and the lack of training of most coaches in observation techniques. Teachers assigned to UFT Teachers Centers also serve as resources and mentors without, however, the need to report to site administrators. The potential of the union contract option of alternatives to the traditional annual observation for tenured teachers has not been realized and this contract provision seems to be retreating to the background in inverse ratio to the ascension of high-stakes testing and standards-based mandated curriculum.

One of the sticking points in the stalemate in the discussions between the teachers union (UFT) and the New York City Schools Chancellor is the provision to replace Assistant Principals with Coordinators (a teacher position). With the advent of coaches and the attempts to reduce or eliminate the position of Assistant Principal, the question of who will be the audience for best practices of supervision of instruction and what can be done to prepare effectively the people who will be working with teachers? This question emerges from the New York City scenario. We need assistance in resolving these dilemmas.

Taking our study as background, please reflect on these questions:

- What have been your recent experiences with supervision of instruction in a standards-based environment?
- Who engages in instructional improvement efforts in your school or district, and under what circumstances?
- Can you describe practices that could be characterized as "best practices?"
- In what ways, if any, is the situation we described in New York City (re: the coaches) similar or dissimilar to issues in your region? How have new coaching

positions and other strategies been integrated into the supervision/evaluation schemes?

- What are the prospects for meaningful best practices in instructional supervision?

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Surfacing questions about supervision

from a dissertation study titled:

Co-constructing prospective teachers' technology integration practices

Introduction

Research has suggested that integrating technology can facilitate student learning by supporting student knowledge construction, investigation, active learning, collaboration, and reflection (Jonassen, 2000). Integrating technology can encourage creativity, higher order and critical thinking skills that support student understanding of complex and abstract concepts (Office of Technology Assessment [OTA], 1995; Riley, Holleman, & Roberts, 2000). This suggests that integrating technology increases student academic achievement in reading, writing, math, and science. It also can help students become better communicators as they access and use computer based information and resources. Additionally, technology can serve as a motivator by engaging students in learning. As such, integrating technology can be beneficial for meeting students' individual needs especially those who have special needs or those who are identified as at risk (Riley, et al., 2000; Schacter, 1999).

Despite the benefits for student learning, research suggests that many teachers are not integrating technology (Barron, Kemker, Harmes, & Kalaydjian, 2003; OTA, 1995; Williams & Kingham, 2003). The inability of teachers to build school based professional relationships in which they can gain pedagogical and technical support may serve as a barrier to integrating technology. A lack of compatibility between the teachers' pedagogical beliefs and the technology being used is an additional barrier (Zhao, Pugh, Sheldon, & Byers, 2002). Other barriers to integrating technology include: a) lack of access to hardware, software, and infrastructure, b) lack of time to plan, trouble shoot, participate in professional development, innovate, or share with peers, c) an unclear purpose and justification for technology use, and d) the present high stakes testing environment (Williams & Kingham, 2003; Zhao, et al., 2002). However, the most cited barrier to integrating technology is lack of teacher preparation (OTA, 1995; Strudler, McKinney, Jones, & Quinn, 1999; Yildirim, 2000). As such, stakeholders have

looked to teacher education programs to prepare prospective teachers to integrate technology (Doering, Hughes, & Huffman, 2003; Pollard & Pollard, 2004; Roblyer, 2000; Yildirim, 2000).

In his study, *Teacher education: Preparing teachers to integrate technology* (2001), Duhaney describes the various ways in which teacher education programs prepare prospective teachers to use technology. Some teacher education program faculty members model the use of technology during coursework. Programs may require only one course focused on the technical and pedagogical aspects of integrating technology (Hargrave & Hsu, 2000), some of which may be laboratory based. Some programs choose to divide the concepts involved in integrating technology among the required coursework. Other programs take the competency approach where students select a competency from a list of hierarchally challenging competencies to complete on their own. In contrast, other programs use a case based approach to teaching preservice teachers how to integrate technology. However, research suggests that modeling and coursework is not enough (OTA, 1995; Moursund & Bielefeldt, 1999; Strudler, et al., 1999). As such, researchers recommend that in addition to coursework, prospective teachers should also take part in field experiences (OTA, 1995; Strudler, et al., 1999; Moursund & Bielefeldt, 1999; Wang, 2002).

Field experiences provide prospective teachers with the opportunity to experience the profession of teaching and practice what they have learned during coursework (Anderson, 1993). Technology based field experiences in particular provide prospective teachers with the opportunity to observe and practice the integration of technology (Hunt, 1995; Mullen, 2001; Wilson, Notar, & Yunker, 2003). Following the recommendations of researchers, numerous teacher education programs have explored models of field experiences focused on the integration of technology (Anderson & Petch-Hogan, 2001; Balli, Wright, & Foster, 1997; Brush, et al., 2003; Bucci, 2003; Niess, 2001; Grove, Strudler, & Odell, 2004; Rademacher, Tyler-Wood, Doclar, & Pemberton, 2001; Snider, 2003; Thompson, Schmidt, & Davis, 2003; Walsch, Hagler,

Fowler, 2003; Wetzel, Zambo, & Buss, 1996). Many studies on the technology based field experiences offered by these teacher education programs have explored the role of inservice teachers in mentoring interns during their placements. However, missing from this body of research is the role of the university supervisor in facilitating the integration of technology during the field experience (Dexter & Reidel, 2003; Giebelhaus & Bowman, 2002; Moursund & Bielefeldt, 1999).

Purpose

The purpose of this study is to describe how the Cycles of Supervision, a professional development model as defined by Nolan and Hoover (2004), facilitates the construction of preservice teachers' technology integration practices. The overarching question guiding this qualitative study is: How do interns and their technology integration coach co-construct their technology integration practices during the Cycles of Supervision? This study also asks: How the reflexivity of the preservice teacher intern and their technology integration coach contribute to the construction of technology integration practices during the Cycles of Supervision?

Educational importance

As more teacher education programs move toward field experiences where prospective teachers will have the opportunity to observe and practice the integration of technology, they need to know how to structure these experiences in ways that will help prospective teachers develop their technology integration practices. The Cycles of Supervision, undertaken by the university supervisor and the student teacher, provide a model to affect the teaching and learning practices of the prospective teacher by engaging them in dialogue, inquiry, and reflection about their practices (Nolan & Hoover, 2004). This study contributes to the sparse body of knowledge regarding the role of the supervisor in facilitating prospective teachers' construction of their technology integration practices by providing a model that facilitates this process. Additionally, this study addresses the need for research based models that prepare teachers to integrate

technology (Moursund & Bielefeldt, 1999; Pollard & Pollard, 2004; Wang, 1999-2000). This study will help teacher education programs when designing their general field experiences as well as their technology based field experiences.

Theoretical Orientation

This dissertation research is taken from the social constructionist theoretical framework. In social constructionism, meaning is subjective, historical, cultural, and dependent on the rules of a culture (Gergen, 1999). Meaning is created through dialogue in relationships. The social constructionist perspective blends well with my research purpose and questions. Faculty selected course readings and activities, practical experiences, mentor teachers, and supervisors help to guide interns into the culture of teaching. In this study, through my relationship with the interns as a technology integration coach, I am guiding them into the culture of being technology using teachers. In order for the intern and I to co-construct their technology integration practices, we must first negotiate, through dialogue, a shared understanding of what those technology integration practices are for their context. It is in this space of negotiation that reflexivity and transformation occurs. In order to come to a shared understanding of what it means to integrate technology for student learning, the intern and I must question our own beliefs about the practice of teaching and integrating technology so that new understandings are created. The Cycles of Supervision provide an avenue for this dialogue.

Methodology

Three female, 5th year prospective teachers in the University of Florida's Unified Elementary PROTEACH (UEP) Program were asked to participate in this study. Each participant was in the second month of their internship. To assist me in describing how the Cycles of Supervision facilitates the construction of preservice teachers' technology integration practices, I observed their integration of technology, tape recorded our discussions, collected field notes, and kept self-reflective journals from four Cycles of Supervision. During the data

collection process, I served two roles; intern technology integration coach and researcher/data collector. My work as researcher/data collector is embedded within the Cycles of Supervision.

I am using James Nolan and Linda Hoover's (2004) Classroom Based Supervision model to guide my participants as we work together to better their technology integration practice. The Classroom Based Supervision model is an interpretation of the Clinical Supervision model developed by Morris Cogan (1973) and Robert Goldhammer, et al. (1993). The model suggests a cyclical process, the Cycles of Supervision, which consists of stages both the supervisor and intern undertake together.

The stages in the Cycles of Supervision are: 1) Establishing readiness, 2) Pre-conferencing, 3) Observation, 4) Post-observation analysis and strategy, 5) Post-conferencing, and 6) Cycle evaluation. Throughout the process, we engage in relationship building as well as continuous reflection and inquiry into the interns teaching. In this study, I repeated the Cycle of Supervision four times, with each intern.

I think it is important to note that I could not serve as my participant's internship supervisor and conduct research with them at the same time. For prospective teachers, the usually separate functions of supervision and evaluation are closely tied during field experiences. Supervisors must decide "whether the preservice teacher has acquired the knowledge, dispositions, and skills needed to function independently in carrying out assigned duties in the classroom" (Nolan & Hoover, 2004, p. 256). The evaluation component may discourage prospective teachers from risk taking and experimenting with their teaching. Evaluation also impacted my work as researcher. The responsibility of the supervisor to evaluate the teaching practices of the prospective teacher carries a high degree of power and poses an ethical dilemma (Glesne, 1999). As such, in this study, I am not serving as my participants' formal internship supervisor; rather, I am acting as their coach, fulfilling the role of supervisor without the evaluation component that would have been required.

Prior to beginning data collection, I described the research process to the interns. As the intern and I carried out the four Cycles of Supervision, I tape recorded the discussions and collected field notes. Our discussions were similar to interviews in that it required me to listen and observe for verbal and nonverbal feedback (Glesne, 1999). However, unlike traditional interviews, I did not have established research questions. Our discussions were open ended and unstructured because my questions and probing were contextual and based on the intern and my experiences with the Cycles of Supervision and the practice of integrating technology. This type of open ended, unstructured interviewing aligns well with the social constructionist perspective in that the intern and I are collaborating together to construct a narrative rather than I, the researcher, independently structuring the interview with predetermined research questions (Fontana, 2002).

During my role as their coach, I observed the intern's integration of technology. At this point in the Cycles of Supervision, I am also a researcher/data collector. I collected our lesson plans as well as observed the lesson to assist in better describing that which is under study – integrating technology – in the context of practice (Jorgensen, 1989). As I observed the integration of technology, I wrote field notes documenting insights as well as describing the classroom context including the physical space, intern actions, objects, events, and emotions (Bogdewic, 1999). However, because my work is coming from the social constructionist perspective, observation was not enough. This study describes the co-construction of the intern and their coach's technology integration practices so I could not rely solely on my own observations to inquire into my questions. As such, I shared my observation insights with the intern as we carried out our discussion during the post observation conference as a part of the Cycles of Supervision.

In order to capture our reflexivity, the intern and I independently wrote self-reflective journals following the classroom observation and postobservation conferences. The journals

provided each of us the opportunity to capture our individual reflections about what was observed during the lesson. Following the postobservation conference, the journals provided a space to reflect and individually consider the negotiations and decisions that were made about the teaching and integration of technology. The journals were shared at the conferences and served as a starting point for dialogue. The self-reflective journals were collected from the interns at the final post observation discussion. I also collected the lesson plans the interns and I developed and modified during the preconference stage as a way to capture the practice of planning. The self-reflective journals and lesson plans provided important insights into my research questions because these artifacts are “material manifestations of [the] cultural beliefs and behaviors” (LeCompte & Priessle, 1993) of the intern and myself.

Areas for feedback

This dissertation has yet to yield any conclusions as it is still being undertaken; however, it has prompted some important questions that your feedback will help to address.

- a. How do you conduct research on the process of supervision in light of the evaluation component attached to field experience courses?
- b. How do you analyze data from supervision models that are collaborative in nature and socially constructed, with respect to the studies’ participants?
- c. Are new models of supervision needed to accommodate the changing landscape of teaching and learning (e.g., technology models, models focused on social justice)?

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Infusing Data in the Supervisor's Role:

Coaching for Data Driven Instruction

Introduction

Assessment and accountability policies associated with high stakes testing are dominating today's efforts to change teaching practices in ways that improve student learning. For standards and accountability policies to be effective in changing the core technology of education-teaching and learning-schools must use accountability data to make decisions about whether they are meeting standards or not and, if not, then use data to change practices and monitor the effectiveness of those changes. (Ingram, Louis, and Schroeder, 2004, p.1259). School level data is a reflection of school wide curriculum as well as teachers' effectiveness within the classroom (Boardman and Woodruff, 1992). Therefore, if schools are expected to improve student achievement by systematically using data to improve curriculum, then teachers must use their own classroom data to supplement external data and monitor student progress towards the goals set forth at the school level.

In response to policy initiatives (No Child Left Behind, 2001), districts and schools are required to annually report their schools' effectiveness and individual student learning gains on annual assessments. This shift towards high stakes testing has focused attention on teacher accountability for student learning. The influx of testing and assessment data has inundated districts, schools and teachers with information that they are required to utilize as a measure of student learning. A major assumption is that educators will use accountability data to guide instructional decisions and reform their pedagogy to improve student learning. Supervisors serve as instructional leaders who influence the process of teaching and learning within the school context. Therefore finding ways to support teacher learning in the area of data driven instruction is crucial for the supervisory role.

Schools expect educators to shape their craft based on various data sources and assume that teachers possess the knowledge to do so. Individual teachers respond differently based on what they know about assessment and data, and what data they value. Additionally, teachers feel that using data to make decisions gave them evidence of student outcomes, which gave them credibility (Huffman and Klein, 2003). However, if teachers do not understand and value the data that they are provided with they will not use it to adapt their instruction in meaningful ways (Cromey, 2000; Anders & Richardson, 1992). In order for educators to value data they must first understand the strengths and limitations to various assessments, what the assessments measure, and how those assessments are relevant to their role in the classroom (Vitali, 1994).

“The only thing that would inhibit is just my lack of knowledge of how to use it and I know that so I go to the different sources and okay, here's what it is- What is it telling me?... Before you would just see it and you go okay, yeah I know I have to do better but then you didn't know how to do better” (interview excerpt, Yendol-Hoppey, et al.).

As indicated in this excerpt, presenting teachers with arbitrary numbers is not enough. Various sources of data must be consulted to provide a clear picture of student needs to inform decision-making. If teachers are going to be able to utilize data to inform instruction we must find new ways to advance their knowledge and skills so that they are empowered to take action rather than be passive vessels to bureaucratic sanctions. This process can be achieved through supervisory support focused on effective professional development to develop teachers' knowledge, skills, attitudes, and beliefs associated with data driven instruction.

To date, the role of the supervisor has been understudied as a resource for supporting the use of data to inform the instructional decisions of teachers working within the high stakes educational climate of today's schools. For prospective teachers, supervision differs from formal assessment classes often offered in university teacher preparation coursework in that it creates a ripe context in which to connect real student data to a relevant context. The real-world

opportunity to connect data to students in a field placement cannot be duplicated within university classroom coursework (Mertler, 2004).

Similarly, supervision work with practicing teachers needs to move beyond large scale workshops targeted at delivery of high stakes testing results to teachers, to the development of data literate teachers armed with a repertoire of assessment tools that can inform their instruction with specific students in their own classrooms . To engage in this kind of supervision, the “stake in accountability must represent a less supervisory event and more a supervisory norm -strong value that permeates the culture of schools (Sergiovanni and Starratt, 2002, p. 5).” The purpose of my research to study what happens as prospective and practicing teachers engage in data infused teacher inquiry supported by reflective coaching targeted at teachers’ use of data to inform instructional decision-making.

Conceptual framework

Teachers’ ability to use data to inform their instruction must be supported by both an organizational culture that supports the use of data as well as the provision of powerful professional development to support shifts in teacher beliefs and knowledge related to the use of data to inform instruction. While the organizational climate of a school is influential in supporting data driven instruction through collaboration, teachers must first develop sufficient knowledge to effectively engage in school wide collaborative efforts. In order to provide meaningful professional development, supervisors must understand the complexity of data driven instruction. A review of literature revealed that the concept of data driven instruction is affected by teacher knowledge and beliefs in three areas: data literacy, assessment literacy, and teacher beliefs (See Table 2, Appendix A). I will begin by defining the integral components of data driven

instruction, and then outline the components of professional development that would support teacher use of data to inform their instructional decision-making.

Components of data driven instruction

The U.S. Department of Education defines data-based decision making as “analyzing and using the data available on a student to guide educational/instructional decision making, for continuous improvement, and for making adjustments to teaching styles, curricula, pace, content, etc. (www.ed.gov retrieved February 27, 2005).” Educators need a sophisticated understanding of assessment tools, the data generated by these tools, how to interpret data, and the knowledge of alternative interventions to use as they adjust their teaching accordingly. The literature defines this professional knowledge as “assessment literacy” and “data literacy.” These two components of educator literacy coupled with educator beliefs provides a three pronged framework (See Figure 1, Appendix A) that enables teachers to effectively use of the data to make informative instructional decisions (Love, 2004; Mertler, 2004; Quilter & Gallini, 2000).

Quilter and Gallini (2000) define assessment literacy as the ability to design, select, interpret, and use assessment results appropriate for educational decisions. Data literacy is characterized as “the ability to examine multiple measures and multiple levels of data, to consider the research and to draw sound inferences” (Love, 2004; p. 22). These components intersect when educators’ knowledge of students overlaps with their abilities to analyze and employ viable data sources to make inferences and frame educational decisions. Thus, in order to utilize data to drive instruction, assessment literacy and data literacy become essential instructional tools.

Although these two components can provide a foundation for teacher use of data to inform instruction, a teachers’ knowledge about how to use various data sources becomes useless

if educators do not value or believe the data as relevant to their own practice. As a result, the third component of this framework focuses on teacher beliefs and how these beliefs effect how they respond to policy and implement instructional change. Research findings indicate that the extent that teachers align classroom practices with assessment data are influenced by multiple factors such as opinion of performance based assessments, trust of data validity, and teacher efficacy (Vitali, 1994; Ingram et al, 2004, Quilter & Gallini, 2000). Teacher beliefs and attitudes about assessment data effect their implementation and consideration of data to make instructional decisions. Quilter & Gallini (2000) report findings that suggest that grade level effects both knowledge and beliefs about the use of assessment data. Their findings reveal that elementary teachers have less assessment literacy than secondary teachers, and that elementary teachers are more likely to have negative attitudes of standardized assessments. A study by Pemberton, Dyck, Horton, and Kaff (2002) indicates that teachers did not use data to make explicit instructional decisions, however the external data was used to verify their own observations about student progress and served as a parent communication tool. This corresponds to other research findings that provide evidence that teachers don't employ curriculum based assessments due to perceived time constraints, feeling ill prepared, and reliance on state or district overall performance objectives (Jones et al, 1998). Other studies conclude that educators who have not experienced analytical or process training with assessment data tend not to rely on the results, they are skeptical that the tests do not measure what is intended (Cromey, 2000). Additionally, negative teacher beliefs around the use of data have been shown to also negatively impact teachers' sense of efficacy (Ingram et al, 2004). These finding reveal that teachers' knowledge of assessment data (i.e. assessment literacy) is linked to their beliefs, and in turn effect their utilization of the data to inform instructional decisions. Supervisors must provide teachers with opportunity and guidance in order to advance their knowledge so that they may overcome negative beliefs about the use of data in schools.

Professional development is a necessary to enhance teachers' data and assessment literacy as well as cultivate a belief system that recognizes the power data to generate instructional improvement. Research indicates that professional development must be aligned with the context and curriculum, job-embedded, and focused around the use of sensible student assessment data for change to occur (Walpole et al, 2004).

The empirical literature reveals that teacher knowledge about data effects how and if they utilize data to make instructional decisions (Ingram, Louis, & Schroeder 2004; Cromey, 2000; Jones, E., Southern, W. and Bringham, F, 1998; Pemberton, Dyck, Horton & Kaff, 2002). Emerging from the literature are specific models that demonstrate how schools are learning to utilize data (Chen et al, 2000, Diamond & Spillane, 2004; Cromey, 2000; Walpole et. al, 2004; Firestone et. al, 1999). However, the emphasis of prior research has focused on professional development for data use at the school level and developing knowledge to inform school wide decisions. Therefore, careful attention should be given to the nature and level for which professional development is provided to assist data based decision-making. If teachers are expected to use data to inform their daily instruction then an emphasis on professional development and supervision targeted at daily use of data must be emphasized within the school as well.

We know supervisors play a role in turning teachers focus toward relevant data, but we don't know how supervisors are helping teachers learn to use meaningful data to improve student achievement within their classrooms. In a recent study conducted within five Florida elementary schools, teachers reveal that the biggest factor in influencing the use of data within their school is the school principal and other school administrators (Yendol-Hoppey, 2005 et. al). However, the literature does not provide insight into how supervisors within schools are supporting individual teachers' development of knowledge, attitudes, and skills related to data driven instruction.

Role of supervisor: Reflective coach and critical friend

Reflective coaching is a process that can enhance teachers' data and assessment literacy while attending to individual beliefs. Inquiry is a tool for framing coaching around a teacher specified focus while providing an opportunity for individual support and guidance through providing supplemental data related to the teachers' inquiry. The reflective coaching process supports the infusion of data at various points of entry within the inquiry process. During the pre-conference teachers and supervisors consider the inquiry focus to establish a purpose for the observation and identify ways that data could be gathered by both parties to facilitate the teachers' personal assessment of their instruction. The observation is then an opportunity for supervisors to support teachers' in an area of need specific to their inquiry, to provide supplemental data to that which can't be independently collected. The post-conference serves as an opportunity to analyze the data with the support of a critical friend.

Serving as a critical friend within the process of data infused teacher inquiry supervisors focus their attention on prompting thinking related to data driven instruction and offering guidance and support in relevant areas as needed. A critical friend is a person who can help teachers with educational actions and decisions by helping them think critically and consider data from a different perspective. Yet, while their main purpose is to provide support, they are not afraid to confront teachers with issues in order to help them become more effective educators. The role of the critical friend within the inquiry process is to prompt teacher thinking about ways that data can be used to provide further insight into the focus and provide support with developing knowledge. Figure 3 (Appendix B) provides examples of questions that supervisors serving the role of critical friend may consider at various stages of coaching during the inquiry cycle.

The role of the supervisor in reflective coaching within the data infused inquiry process is that of critical friend and data collector. Reflective coaching as a supplemental tool for data collection can provide new perspective and yet another level of data for teachers to utilize in

their inquiry process. Students produce data on a daily basis, and the teachers have access to data after every lesson. During observations cognitive coaches serve as collectors of data. The data is then provided to the teachers to make their own judgments about lesson effectiveness. Placing student work as the cornerstone of the coaching process can turn teachers attention to gathering meaningful data from their students in addition to analyzing data gathered from a supervisor. The challenge with describing this model is that it is a continuous process that is not situated in any single point within the inquiry process, it is fluid based on the needs of individual teachers at any time within but not limited to the inquiry process.

What facilitators and barriers exist when teachers begin to systematically use data to inform their practice?

While attempting to engage in this coaching process with prospective teachers within a professional development school various facilitators and barriers were encountered. First, turning prospective teachers' attention to data proved to be more challenging than I initially thought. The views of the prospective teachers around student work were closely aligned with the views of their mentor teachers. They struggled with identifying authentic data that could be utilized to assess student learning associated with instruction beyond the crutch of a worksheet because they had not seen powerful examples of authentic assessments as a daily practice in their classrooms. This became an intense focus for myself as the critical friend and supervisor of the group. Second, inquiry as described by other course instructors interfered with the process that initially focused our work together. The prospective teachers were encountering instructors with varying views of the process of inquiry, as a supervisor my view was trumped by that of the instructor assigning the grade, therefore defining the terms of inquiry would prove to be a useful guideline. One of the greatest facilitators to the process of reflective coaching was urging teachers to assess their instruction based on tangible evidence. This helped move the prospective teachers toward

attaching specific indicators by which to judge their performance and evaluating the content of the work rather than simple evaluating the student. Supplementing their own data with my observational data provided insight that may not have been otherwise apparent, it actually helped reveal the limitations with using only observational data to base decisions. The other facilitator that proved beneficial was providing guidance with the exploration of data sources. While prospective teachers explored student folders they encountered various sources of data that they utilized to frame potential questions and wonderings around, having a source to discuss the data with and guidance with score interpretation proved to be useful for framing initial questions.

Tools for supporting supervision focused on data-driven instruction: Inquiry and reflective coaching

Infusing data into the process of teacher inquiry supported with the guidance of reflective coaching helps teachers meet the demands of bureaucratic mandates, but more importantly provides teachers with meaningful support that is focus on professional growth within a relevant context and guided by individual beliefs/goals. I will begin by describing teacher inquiry and reflective coaching as two interrelated vehicles for infusing data in supervisory practice. I will later discuss the role of the supervisor and provide a framework for guiding the work of the supervisor within data driven instruction.

Teacher inquiry is a personal endeavor for continuous improvement through the systematic study of one's own practice (Cochran-Smyth and Lytle, 1993). Teacher inquiry offers educators an opportunity to merge individual practice with a systematic process for collecting and analyzing data related to personal beliefs. Stages of teacher inquiry include "posing questions or 'wonderings,' collecting data to gain insights into their wonderings, analyzing the data along with reading relevant literature, making changes in practice based on new understandings developed during inquiry, and sharing findings with others" (Dana and Yendol-Silva, 2003, p.5). The data collection process consists of gathering artifacts and documenting student progress

from within the classroom in addition to exploring external literature and data to inform practice. Teacher inquiry enables teachers to make informed decisions about their practice based on their own classroom data, thus aligning teachers' beliefs with systematic data collection.

Teacher inquiry rests on the premise that teachers are the utmost experts of their own classrooms and their knowledge as professionals is of primary value. Through the process of inquiry teachers turn their attention to their practice as the truth from which other decisions can be made. Their response to data driven instruction is more concerned with how they make sense of the data, how they choose to utilize the data, and gather their own data to support their own decision-making. Inquiry responds to this need by providing teachers a vehicle to investigate their own practice and meet the demands of national mandates that dictate today's school climate. Teacher inquiry can provide teachers a venue for exploring and sharing their professional commitment to improving their craft.

Reflective coaching (Hillkirk & Nolan, 1990) is a tool for expanding or refining teachers' professional knowledge and skills through collaboration. Reflective coaching utilizes a process of pre-conference, observation, post conference and reflection to help teachers improve instructional effectiveness by becoming more conscious about their instruction. The design and implementation of the model emphasizes the "role of the teacher as the key instructional decision-maker for his or her classroom." (Hillkirk & Nolan, 1990, p. 7). The reflective coach's role would be to support and foster the teacher's self-analysis and reflection as objectively and nonjudgmental as possible." (Hillkirk & Nolan, 1990, p. 7). Relating reflective coaching to data driven instruction requires teachers to confront data from various perspectives, potentially facilitating the self-analysis process. Reflective coaching as a supplemental tool for data collection is guided by a teacher's inquiry focus and can provide new perspective by providing another level of data for teachers to utilize in their inquiry process. Students produce data on a daily basis, and the teachers have access to data after every lesson. During observations

reflective coaches serve as collectors of data. The data is then provided to the teachers to make their own judgments about lesson effectiveness. If the process of reflective coaching can turn teachers attention to gathering meaningful data from their students in addition to analyzing data gathered from a supervisor, the teacher is provided meaningful data from a various perspectives to highlight lesson effectiveness. When aligned with teacher inquiry these simultaneous vehicles can facilitate the extent to which instructional adaptations are made due to the attention drawn from meaningful data sources

Method of Study

The three component framework drawn from the literature serves to inform supervisor's work targeted at data driven instructional decision-making. These three components focus my current research with prospective teachers engaged in teacher inquiry and reflective coaching during field placements, and inform my dissertation research study focused on what happens as practicing teachers engage in data infused teacher inquiry supported by a school instructional leader through the process of reflective coaching. Three questions guide my research focus:

- 1) How do teachers and supervisors experience the process of data infused teacher inquiry with reflective coaching as a vehicle for support?
- 2) What changes in teaching occur as teachers use data to inform instructional decisions?
- 3) What changes in learning occur as teachers use data to inform instructional decisions?

Conclusion

The high stakes context of national school reform requires teachers to utilize data to inform their instruction. If student learning is to be affected teachers must be armed with the knowledge and skills necessary to effectively guide these decisions. Instructional supervisors can greatly

influence how teachers experience the complex process of using data to inform instruction. Supervisors should begin by helping teachers learn to use data from their own classrooms to supplement external data through engaging in teacher inquiry supported by reflective coaching. Together these sources of data can provide a broader picture of students' need that becomes refined as additional data is collected through daily instruction. The supervisor's role of critical friend through the vehicles of reflective coaching and teacher inquiry places the source of authority with the teacher at a professional level while attending to bureaucratic, personal, and technical-rational elements. The goal of data infused inquiry and reflective coaching is to use these vehicles as a point of entry to turn teachers' focus toward a more global use of data, to eventually move teacher thinking beyond the frame of the inquiry to promote holistic appraisal of classroom instruction by using student data systematically as a cornerstone for self analysis.

Areas for Feedback

As I begin to shape my dissertation research, I am interested in your recommendations and insights in the following areas:

- Moving from research with prospective teachers to research with practicing teacher will present some challenges. What could be some potential pitfalls associated with researching practicing teachers? What considerations should be made as a result?
- Knowledge of assessment data and data in general will vary as I move toward work with practicing teachers, as a result I anticipate encountering very strong positions about the sources of data utilized with the classroom. How do I negotiate the balance of critical friend with out imposing my stance of data on teachers who don't see the value?
- Another concern is that of 'malpractice' when confronted with data that suggests a need for concern and it is dismissed, what is my moral obligation as a researcher at that point?
- As a university supervisor for prospective teachers my role in the school focuses on supervising the pre-service teachers and collaborating with mentor teachers. Would it be more beneficial to study these tools enacted by actual school supervisors (i.e. principal or assistant principals), or would my own self-study during the coaching process with practicing teachers be relevant?
- What sources of data within the process of inquiry and coaching would be of particular

interest to experts in the field of supervision?

- What levels of data analysis would provide the most beneficial insight for supervisors?
Perspectives of teachers, supervisors, or the co-construction of knowledge between both parties?
- What suggestions can you offer for my own professional development within the field of supervision related to data driven instruction?

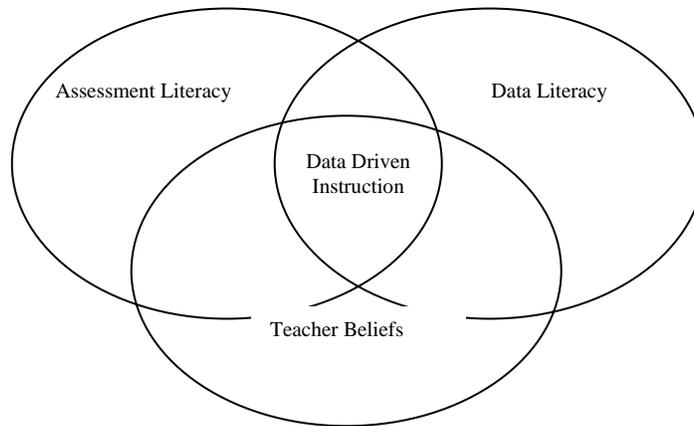
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Figure 1: Conceptual Framework for Supervisory Support for Data Driven



Teachers' knowledge and beliefs influence how they use data (Table 2)			
Vitali (1994)	117 general education teachers	Multivariate design; five different questionnaires	Teachers generally taught toward the method of assessment that was most congruent to their teaching practices. The extent that teachers' classroom practices are aligned with performance-based assessments or paper-and pencil assessments is influenced by multiple factors outside of the assessment method (teacher's grade, knowledge of assessment, opinion of performance-based assessments and teacher efficacy). Feasibility of assessment to drive teacher's classroom practices varies as a function of several factors exogenous to the teacher as well as the assessment.
Fishman, Marx, Best, Tal (2003)	Detroit Public Schools	Interview, Observation, and Student Archival Data	Using student data to guide professional development lead to increased teacher learning thereby increased student performance.
Huffman & Klein (2003)	District level teams of teachers, administrators and parents. 4 teams of 4-8 people	Seminar then survey	Teachers felt that using the data to make decisions gave them evidence of student outcomes which gave them credibility.
Cromey (2000)	Nine Michigan schools- Elementary, Middle and High Schools	Case studies	Educators tend to not rely on data because of lack of analytical or process training and lack of face validity (what a test appears to measure, not what it actually does measure).
Moskal, 1997	1 sixth grade middle school teacher	Case Study	Previously unknown information about student knowledge was learned through analysis of student responses. The teacher used newly acquired knowledge to discuss how she would use information to shape instructional decision making focusing on the class as a whole rather than individual students.
Ingram, D., Seashore Louis, K., & Schroeder, R.G. (2004)	9 high schools, selected because of exemplary use of Continuous Improvement practices	2-4 school visits. Interviews and focus groups with mostly teachers and few administrators. Paper-and-pencil survey. 101 individual participants.	School commitments to continuous improvement did not result in across the board use of data to make decisions. Cultural barriers including: lack of efficacy, reliance on intuition, and disagreement on valuable outcomes influenced the use of data.
Quilter and Gallini (2000)	117 Inservice teachers	Survey of assessment literacy	Knowledge about educational assessment is moderately related to current attitudes towards assessments. Elementary teachers were more likely to report negative experiences with assessment than high school teachers.
Pemberton, Dyck, Horton, and Kaff (2002)	26 teacher in two elementary schools	Teacher interviews after weeks of gathering student data	This study examined how 26 teachers in two elementary schools used performance-charted data provided by a technical support agency. Although teachers did not report using the data extensively to make explicit instructional decisions, most teachers reported using the data to verify their own observations about student progress and as a communication tool with students and parents.
Mertler (2004)	67 pre-service and 10 practicing teachers	Survey of assessment literacy	Practicing teachers performed at higher levels on a survey that measured their assessment literacy. The higher scores indicate that practicing teachers have more assessment literacy than their pre-service counterparts, highlighting that on-the-job training prepares teachers more effectively than formal education coursework alone.

Figure 3: Framework for Infusing Data in Supervisors' Work

