

**SECONDARY TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARD IMPORTANT AND EXISTING
CLASSROOM OBSERVATION PRACTICES THAT PROMOTE
INSTRUCTIONAL IMPROVEMENT**

A dissertation submitted by

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Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree
of Doctor of Education at Dowling College, School of Education,
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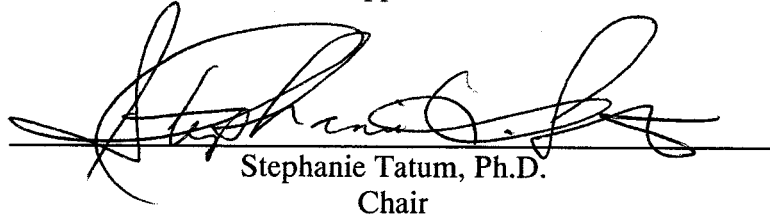
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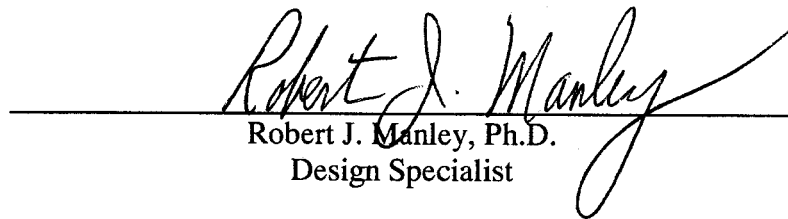
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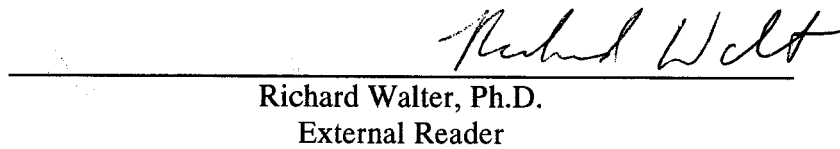
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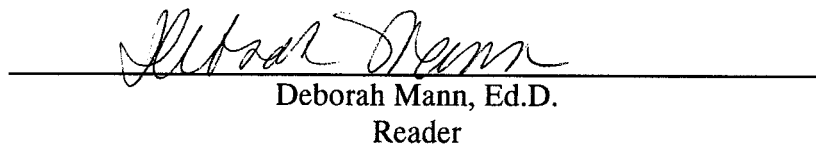
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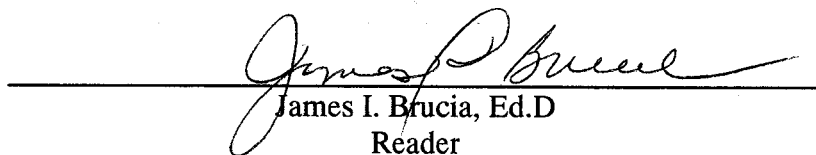
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ABSTRACT

This is a study of secondary teachers' attitudes toward important and existing classroom observation practices that promote instructional improvement. Teachers' attitudes regarding classroom observation practices were analyzed on for dimensions: instructional improvement, purpose, professional trust, and reflective thinking. The participants in this study were limited to five school districts located in Suffolk and Nassau counties in Long Island, New York. The districts purported to use a clinical form of classroom observation as a tool to improve the delivery of instruction. A survey instrument that included 37 items was delivered to 405 secondary teachers at both the middle and high schools in the selected districts. Approximately 165 secondary math, social studies, science, and English teachers completed the survey for a return rate of 41%.

A major finding of this study indicated that professional trust, reflective thinking and purpose were the most significant predictors regarding observation practices that lead to instructional improvement.

DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated in loving memory to my mother Greta Mae Card. I greatly admired and respected her and she will forever be my greatest inspiration and role model. If not for her belief and confidence in me, this dissertation and all that I have accomplished would not be possible. Although she did not live to see me complete this work, I know that her spirit guided me throughout this journey. Thanks mom for always being there both in life and in spirit.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Introduction

On January 8, 2002, President George W. Bush signed into law the No Child Left Behind Act, frequently referred to as NCLB. The law which revised the 1965 Elementary and Secondary Act (ESEA) is considered to be one of the most significant revisions in federal education policy in a generation. U.S. Secretary of Education Rod Paige said “Under No Child Left Behind, our nation made a commitment to ensuring that every student has a great teacher. These new policies will help us keep that promise so that every child can reach his or her potential” (Fact Sheet, New No Child Left Behind Flexibility: Highly Qualified Teachers, 2004, p. 1).

One of the main purposes of NCLB is to ensure that each child in the United States is able to meet the high learning standards of the state where they live. Since the publication of *A Nation at Risk* in 1983, many policy solutions have been recommended to improve student achievement. The implementation of standards and assessments for students continues to be at the center of many state reform efforts. As of January 2003, at least 47 states have created standards for student learning and are adopting new curriculum frameworks to guide instruction and new assessments to test students’ knowledge (Darling-Hammond, 2003).

One of the main goals of NCLB is the requirement that all students will be taught by highly qualified teachers in order to assure the promise that every child can reach his

or her potential. A highly qualified teacher is defined by this law as one in possession of a bachelor's degree, full state certification or licensure, and one who can prove that he or she knows each subject he or she teaches. This is usually demonstrated through passage of a content specific test. NCLB also requires states to measure the extent to which all students have highly qualified teachers, particularly those teaching students from diverse racial and ethnic backgrounds or economically disadvantaged students, adopt goals and plans to ensure that all teachers are highly qualified, and publicly report plans and progress in meeting teacher quality goals.

Although NCLB sets high standards for teacher quality, the law is silent in its guarantee of teacher effectiveness in the classroom. There is some evidence that suggests that qualified teachers may make a difference for student learning at the classroom, school, and district levels, but Darling-Hammond (2000) argues that, "there has been little inquiry into the effects on the achievement that may be associated with large-scale policies and institutional practices that affect the overall level of teacher's knowledge and skills in a state or region" (p. 2). As Marzano (2003) argues ". . . it would not be accurate to assume that the more a teacher knows about the subject matter, the better teacher he will be" (p. 64). Tyler (2003) suggests that NCLB fails to address "effective and precision teaching skills in the classroom" (p. 27).

There is a link between teacher effectiveness and student learning The Informed Educator Series (2000). Highly effective teachers are generally effective with all their students, although lower-achievement students are the first to benefit (pp. 1-2). Sanders and Rivers (1996) documented the impact of teacher effectiveness on student

achievement and found it was more important than socioeconomic status, class size, and prior achievement levels of students (The Informed Educator Series, 2000).

Evaluation of teaching practices is an important part of maintaining and maximizing student learning. Tucker (2001) posits that research has shown that 5 to 15 percent of the 2.7 million teachers in public school classrooms perform at incompetent levels. Tucker argues that through an effective teacher evaluation process, administrators can assess teacher performance and provide feedback to help improve instruction. An effective teacher evaluation process provides both the administrator and teacher with the opportunity to be reflective about teaching practices. The evaluation process should help to ensure that teachers are performing at the highest levels. An effective process provides opportunities for intervention when the administrator and the teacher identify problems related to teaching practices. Effective supervision identifies problems and offers assistance to ensure that teachers are performing at a level that maintains and maximizes student learning and achievement.

Zepeda and Ponticell (1998) noted that studies directly based on teachers' perceptions regarding supervision are limited. However, a survey conducted in 1987 by Levin, Hoffman, and Badiali found that teachers did find "various supervisory practices as helpful. [Teachers reported that they found the evaluation helpful when it] intended to assist them in the improvement of teaching. . ." (p. 1).

Ginsberg (2003) found that instructional improvement, purpose, professional trust, and reflective thinking are key components of the teacher evaluation process. She argued that teachers want to be involved in the evaluation process. Ginsberg suggested that they would be "more likely to use recommendations for instructional improvement"

when their input was sought in the evaluation process (p. 70). To ensure teacher input, according to Ginsberg, the pre-observation conference meeting normally conducted prior to a classroom observation is paramount. She found that in the clinical model of classroom observations, the pre-conference is the point at which the purpose of the observation is established. During the pre-conference, “The observer and teacher examine together the goals for the lesson and plan for instructional improvement” (p. 74). Ginsberg reported that in the post-observation conference, and as a result of developing a trustful and encouraging environment, “teachers are more willing to solicit suggestions by the observer” (p. 76). In addition to instructional improvement, purpose, and professional trust, teachers want the opportunity to be reflective about their practice. Teachers noted that there is a need for reflective thinking in teaching. Ginsberg noted that the respondents in her study demonstrated that “the use of inquiry questions was important” (p. 76) in the post-observation conference.

Teacher effectiveness in the classroom matters and matters more for low-income, black and other minority students than for others (Coleman, Campbell, Hobson, McPartland, Mood, Weinfeld, & York, 1966). Students cannot realistically achieve high standards without effective teachers in the classroom (Howard & McColskey, 2001). One way to ensure teacher effectiveness is through an effective teacher evaluation process. Danielson (2002) suggests that there are two fundamental purposes for teacher evaluation: quality assurance and professional learning. She states:

...teacher evaluation systems are the only systems a school or district has to ensure that every student is taught by a competent professional; the system must be able to make that guarantee. But because the vast majority of teachers are competent—and most are excellent—the evaluation system should help improve as well as assess teacher practice. (p. 64)

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to assess how secondary teachers in selected Long Island public schools differ in their attitudes toward the importance and existence of classroom observation practices on four dimensions: instructional improvement, purpose, professional trust, and reflective thinking.

Statement of the Problem

To what extent is there a difference in teachers' attitudes towards the importance and existence of classroom observation practices in four dimensions: instructional improvement, purpose, professional trust, and reflective thinking?

Research Questions

This study was guided by the following research questions:

Research Question one

How do secondary teachers differ in their attitudes towards the importance and existence of classroom observation practices by observers on four dimensions: instructional improvement, purpose, professional trust, and reflective thinking?

Research Question two

How do teacher attitudes towards the importance and existence of classroom observation practices differ when they are compared by gender, tenure, ethnicity, and type of supervisor?

Research Question three

Is there a relationship among teacher attitudes towards the importance and existence of classroom observation practices and the years of teacher experience?

Research Question four

How do teacher attitudes towards the existence of reflective thinking and purpose of classroom observation practices, modified by the existence of trust, predict the existence of instructional improvement practices?

Research question five

To what extent is there a difference in teacher's attitudes towards existing classroom observation practices when the observer is a content specialist (in the field of math, social studies, science or English) or a building level administrator?

Definition of Major Variables and Terms

Four dimensions were used to measure teacher attitudes towards classroom observation practices as adopted by Ginsberg (2003). The four dimensions are components of a survey instrument that was developed by Ginsberg (2003). These dimensions are defined as:

Instructional Improvement

Provides the framework for which a lesson is developed and ensures that during the pre-conference these elements are clarified. Elements discussed during a pre-conference are: clarifying the goals, objectives, teaching strategies, assessment techniques, and data gathering procedures. Elements assessed during an observation are: clarifying the goals and objectives, differentiated teaching strategies, assessment and closure process both formal and informal. Elements discussed and evaluated during the post-conference are: comparison of planned lesson versus observed lesson, inferred relationships between the teacher's decisions and student achievement during the lesson,

and collaborative conversation between the teacher and evaluator reflecting and constructing ways to improve lesson design (Smalt, 1997).

Purpose of Evaluation

Formal and informal classroom observations are used to promote instructional improvement for the purpose of professional growth (formative) and for the purpose of teacher accountability (summative). Throughout the evaluation process, the teacher should feel supported and encouraged to grow; feeling at the conclusion of the evaluation some internal measure of growth (Smalt, 1997).

Professional Trust

Mutual trust between the teacher and evaluator is a major factor in the overall evaluation process (Peterson, 1982). Trust is promoted by the observer through evidence of the following statements from Smalt's (1977) survey instrument:

Expressing his/her own feelings honestly ... volunteering personal information about himself/herself... maintaining confidentiality ... following through on commitments made to teacher... accepting responsibility for his/her actions... exhibiting an interest in the teacher as an individual beyond his/her role as evaluator... focusing on the teacher's concerns by listening actively, reflectively, and empathetically; expressing a willingness to support ideas and goals... reacting to the teacher in an appropriate manner when that person is in need of support

Reflective Thinking

The practice of documenting or discussing the quality or artifacts of a teacher's work that focuses on improvement. The artifacts of teaching include lesson plans, tests, reading lists, course outlines, samples of students' work, and handouts used in class. A spirit of cooperation and collaboration, encouragement of risk taking and experimentation to create new educational strategies, a learning environment that promotes success for all students, encouragement to seek alternative solutions to problems and the belief that one

of the ways we grow is by analyzing our past mistakes and experiences (Manatt, 1988; Wolf, Whinery & Hagerty, 1995; Smalt, 1997; Osterman & Kottkamp, 2004).

Definition of Other Variables

Supervision

In this study, the term supervision is defined based on the work of Marks, Stoops, and King-Stoops, cited in Wiles and Bondi (1996) that states supervision is, “action and experimentation aimed at improving instruction and the instructional program” (p. 9).

Clinical Supervision

Goldhammer, Anderson, and Krajewski (1980) report that the definition of clinical supervision they have developed is consistent with the following definitions which have common elements:

Morris Cogan (1973) defines clinical supervision as:

The rationale and practice designed to improve the teacher’s classroom performance. It takes its principal data from the events of the classroom. The analysis of these data and the relationship between teacher and supervisor form the basis of the program, procedures, and strategies designed to improve the students’ learning by improving the teacher’s classroom behavior. (p. 9)

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1997) say that clinical supervision:

. . . refers to face-to-face encounters with teachers about teaching, usually in classrooms, with the double-barreled intent of professional development and improvement of instruction. (p. 305)

Flanders (1976) sees clinical supervision as:

a special case of teaching in which at least two persons are concerned with the improvement of teaching and at least one of the individuals is a teacher whose performance is to be studied. . . . [I]t seeks to stimulate some change in teaching, to show that a change did, in fact, take place, and to compare the old and new patterns of instruction in ways that will give a teacher useful insights into the instructional process. (pp. 47-48)

Goldhammer, et al's (1980) definition of clinical supervision is consistent with the definitions of others and enhances the common elements found in each of the definitions. They see clinical supervision as, "that phase of instructional supervision which draws its data from first-hand observation of actual teaching events, and involves face-to-face (and other associated) interaction between the supervisor and teacher in the analysis of teaching behaviors and activities for instructional improvement (pp. 19-20).

Building Level Administrator (BLA)

Defined operationally for the purpose of this study, a building level administrator (BLA) is one who has responsibility for the supervision of all teachers in a middle or high school. A building level administrator is either a principal, vice principal, associate principal, assistant principal, and/or an administrative assistant who has the responsibility for conducting classroom observations.

Content Specialist (CS)

Defined operationally for the purpose of this study, a content specialist is either a Director of a specific department who has K-12 responsibilities, or a department chairperson who supervises teachers and conducts regular classroom observations.

Observer

Defined operationally for the purpose of this study, an observer is any supervisor, building level administrator, or content specialist who is the teacher's primary observer through classroom observations that serve the purpose of a formative assessment, which furthers the teacher's ongoing professional growth.

The Conceptual Rationale

The No Child Left Behind Act of 2002 (NCLB) requires that all teachers be highly qualified in their content area. Marzano (2003) cautions that is not enough. Teacher effectiveness in the classroom matters in ensuring student achievement. Howard and McColskey (2001) state that students cannot realistically achieve high standards without effective teachers in the classroom.

One way to ensure teacher effectiveness is through the clinical supervision process. Weiss (1998) maintains that teachers have “become frustrated with conventional evaluation practices typically used to determine teacher effectiveness” (p. 1). Ginsberg (2003) found that the clinical supervision process is most effective for elementary school teachers in the early years of their careers. For elementary teachers with several years of teaching experience, she reported that the clinical observation process was not very helpful.

Ginsberg (2003) recommended that further research investigate secondary teachers’ perceptions toward classroom observations. Ginsberg sought to assess how elementary teachers differ in their attitudes to existing and desired observation practices on six dimensions: purpose, structure and procedure, practices and behaviors, trust, transformation, and reflective thinking. After a factor analysis was conducted, she found that only four of the six dimensions had any meaning for elementary school teachers. She refined the dimensions to include: instructional improvement, purpose, professional trust, and reflective thinking. Danielson (2002) reported that a carefully designed teacher evaluation system “can offer teachers valuable opportunities to reflect on their practice and enhance their skills” (p. 64). Ginsberg found that negative attitudes existed at the

elementary level regarding existing teacher evaluation practices. In addition, her study revealed that teachers felt that the evaluation was an important component of their professional growth.

If the goal of having a highly effective teacher in every classroom is to be realized in the 21st century, school leaders must know what teachers need and want to support their professional growth. Therefore, teacher attitudes toward the evaluation and observation process should be an integral part of any policy decision regarding the formative evaluation process used in many school districts. This study used a 38-item survey to explore and examine secondary teachers' attitudes toward the importance and existence of classroom observation practices that promote teacher effectiveness.

Significance of the Study

The results from this study should be used to inform building level administrators, central office administrators, and public policy makers on teachers' attitudes toward current classroom observation practices. To improve current evaluation practices and meet the needs of teachers, the findings from this study offer avenues for professional growth and learning and promote effective supervision to guide teaching and student learning.

Limitation of the Study

This study was limited to five school districts in Suffolk and Nassau County, Long Island, New York, which were selected based on the fact that they have clinical supervision practices and that administrators and teachers were willing to participate in the study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RELATED RESEARCH LITERATURE

Introduction

In the midst of an ongoing movement for improved student achievement and accountability in schools, teacher effectiveness is an important concern for parents, school leaders, and state educational policymakers in the United States. Howard and McColskey (2001) noted that teacher quality matters because students will not “meet high standards of achievement without effective teachers in the classroom” (p. 48).

Marzano (2003) indicated that the effect of decisions made by teachers have a significant impact on student achievement. Students do better with teachers who are effective in the classroom. Teacher effectiveness is determined, according to Marzano (2003), in terms of their impact on student achievement (p. 75). Citing studies conducted by William Sanders and his colleagues, Marzano (2003) suggests that students make greater academic progress with a highly effective teacher as opposed to a less effective teacher (p. 72). Wright, Horn, and Sanders (1997) noted:

... that the most important factor affecting student learning is the teacher. In addition, the results [of our study] show wide variation in effectiveness among teachers. The immediate and clear implication of this finding is that seemingly more can be done to improve education by improving the effectiveness of teachers than by any other single factor. Effective teachers appear to be effective with students of all achievement levels regardless of the levels of heterogeneity in their classes. If the teacher is ineffective, students under that teacher’s tutelage will achieve inadequate progress academically, regardless of how similar or different they are regarding their academic achievement. (p. 63)

The study conducted by Wright et al. according to Marzano (2003), illustrates “the profound impact an individual teacher can have on student achievement” (p. 72).

The results of the Wright et al. (1997) study indicate that the achievement differences between students who spend a year with a highly effective teacher as opposed to a less effective teacher is greater (p. 63). Wright et al. (1997) analyzed data for students in 54 Tennessee districts. Using the Tennessee Value-Added Assessment System, an approach designed to factor out and then make estimates of the impact of student, teacher, classroom, and school effects on students’ learning, they addressed the questions: How much learning do individual students gain over the course of the year, and how much of that gain can be attributed to teacher effectiveness? The results of the study documented that the impact of teacher effectiveness was stronger than school socioeconomic status, class size, and prior achievement levels of students.

An effective teacher, according to Tucker and Stronge (2005), “can have an enriching effect on the daily lives of children and their lifelong educational and career aspirations” (p. 1). Tucker and Stronge (2005) suggest that key qualities of effective teachers are: (1) Have formal teacher preparation training. (2) Hold certification of some kind and are certified within their fields. (3) Have taught for at least three years. (4) Are caring, fair, and respectful. (5) Hold high expectations for themselves and their students. (6) Dedicate extra time to instructional preparation and reflection. (7) Maximize instructional time via effective classroom management and organization. (8) Enhance instruction by varying instructional strategies, activities, and assignments. (9) Present content to students in a meaningful way that fosters understanding. (10) Monitor students’ learning by utilizing pre- and post-assessments, providing informative

feedback, and reteaching material to students who did not achieve mastery. (11)

Demonstrate effectiveness with the full range of student abilities in their class regardless of the academic diversity of the students. Tucker and Stronge (2005) indicate that there is a reasonable consensus on what effective teachers do to enhance student learning. They suggest that the meta-analysis by researchers such as Marzano, Pikerling, and Pollock (2001) have begun to quantify the average effects of specific instructional strategies. Additionally, Tucker and Stronge (2005) suggest that the work of Wright, Horn, and Sanders is pivotal “in reasserting the importance of the individual teacher on student learning” (p. 2)

Marzano (2003) believes that school policies that promote student achievement, along with competent teachers, can have a significant impact on student achievement. School-level factors, according to Marzano, are familiar to anyone who has studied the research on school effectiveness over the past 35 years. He indicates that there have been many proposed lists of school-level factors that affect the school’s effectiveness. Marzano (2003) collapsed the school-level factors that affect student achievement to include “a guaranteed and viable curriculum, challenging goals and effective feedback, parent and community involvement, a safe and orderly environment, and collegiality and professionalism between teachers and administrators” (p. 15).

One way to ensure teacher quality and effectiveness in the classroom is through an effective teacher evaluation program. Danielson and McGreal (2000) noted that “teacher evaluation is synonymous with classroom observation” (p. 47). The classroom observation, according to Danielson and McGreal (2000), is a setting and one way in which to witness aspects of teaching.

Danielson (2002) suggests that “There are two fundamental purposes for teacher evaluation: quality assurance and professional learning” (p. 64). She states that:

Teacher evaluation systems are the only systems a school or district has to ensure that every student is taught by a competent professional; the system must be able to make that guarantee. But because the vast majority of teachers are competent—and most are excellent—the evaluation system should help improve as well as assess teacher practice. (Danielson, 2002, p. 64)

Ginsberg (2003) describes classroom observations of teachers as “a tool for teacher improvement and their professional growth” (p. 14). Through regular classroom observations supervisors can gauge a teachers’ effectiveness in the classroom. When necessary, the supervisor can provide assistance to struggling teachers through professional development activities such as peer coaching, classroom inter-visitations, or attendance at workshops related to the teacher’s area of expertise. Schmidt (2003) suggests that “purposeful classroom visits are directly related to improving learning” (p. 24). Danielson & McGreal (2000) indicate that teacher evaluation is important in light of the emergence of content standards for student learning. They indicate that school districts, “have an obligation to ensure that their teachers be able to help students meet the higher standards” (Danielson and McGreal, 2000, p. 8). According to Danielson and McGreal (2000), “the heightened interest on student learning has also [led] to a greater focus on teacher performance” (p. 8).

The review of related research literature will focus primarily on the supervision of teachers, teacher evaluation, and observation. This chapter is organized into six sections; section one will provide a brief historical overview of the evolution of the supervision of teachers and gender issues; sections three through six will focus on each of the four

dimensions to be measured in this study: instructional improvement, purpose, professional trust, and reflective thinking.

History of School Supervision

Glanz & Sullivan (2000) wrote that the word “supervision” established a process entailing “general management, direction, control and oversight” (p. 6). Glanz and Sullivan found in early records the term “inspector” used in a context related to school supervision. These early inspectors were not always educators, but were at times local ministers, selectmen, and other distinguished citizens. Their methods of supervision often stressed strict control and close inspection of school facilities. Glanz and Sullivan explained that from colonization through at least the first half of the 19th century (1700-1850), supervision was conducted by lay supervisors and “was based on the idea of maintaining the existing standards of instruction, rather than on the idea of improving them” (p. 6). These lay supervisors, as they were called were not particularly interested in the improvement of instruction. This particular brand of supervision continued through the middle of the 19th century and is commonly referred to as the “Common Era” (Glanz & Sullivan, 2000, p. 7).

By the late 19th century, supervision as a means of inspection was the main method of administration in schools. Writing in 1875, W. H. Payne argued that teachers were to be held responsible for what they do in the classroom. The supervisor, according to Payne, acted as an expert inspector “overseeing and ensuring that harmony and efficiency were maintained” (Payne, 1875, p. 521). Glanz & Sullivan (2000) suggested that supervision by inspection was a part of the “emerging bureaucratic school system,” that placed an emphasis on the expertise of the “upper echelons of the hierarchy” (p. 8).

In essence, the view was that the supervisor was mainly there to inspect what was happening in the classroom and “not to help the teacher become effective in the art of teaching” (Sullivan & Glanz, 2000, p. 8). Prior to 1900, the supervision model practiced was inspection. School administrators were charged with observing teachers for the purpose of determining their conformity with district expectations. These expectations were centered on teachers’ use of methods of instruction and the proficiency at which students were understanding subject matter (Weber, 1987).

Rabideau (1993) suggested that at the turn of the 20th century, the emphasis of instructional supervision “shifted to the efficiency of teaching” (p. 12). Educational administrators adopted the “scientific management” model from industry developed by Frederick Taylor and Henri Fayol, noted Weber (1987). The scientific management movement emphasized using people effectively in industrial organizations.

According to Hoy and Miskel (2001), “[Frederick] Taylor’s background and experience as laborer, clerk, machinist, supervisor, chief drafter, and finally chief engineer reinforced his belief that individuals could be programmed to be efficient machines” (p. 10). The basis of the scientific management approach is the machine metaphor, which sought ways to use people effectively in industrial organizations (Hoy & Miskel, 2001, p. 10).

Taylor and Fayol thought that workers, motivated by economics and limited by physiology, needed constant direction. Taylor focused on physical production. His time and motion studies sought workers’ physical limits and described the fastest method for performing a given task. He believed that by systematically studying a work task and

timing how long it took to perform the various tasks, it could be determined the most efficient way to complete the task (Hoy & Miskel, 2001, p. 10).

Whereas Taylor focused on physical production, Fayol took a scientific approach to administration. He believed that administrative behavior consists of five functions—planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating, and controlling. For administrative managers, division of labor was a basic principle of organization. Span of control, or the number of workers supervised directly, was a second principle. His last principle of homogeneity of positions implied that “a single department could be formed of positions grouped in any of four different ways: major purpose, major process, clientele, or location (Hoy & Miskel, 2001, p. 11). Hoy and Miskel (2001) suggested that:

Both the human engineers and the scientific managers emphasized formal or bureaucratic organization. They were concerned with the division of labor, the allocation of power, and the specifications for each position; they conspicuously neglected individual idiosyncrasies and the social dynamics of people at work. This perspective, aptly termed a “machine model,” implies that an organization can be constructed according to a blueprint, as one would build a bridge or an engine. (pp. 11-12)

As a result of the adoption of the scientific management model in education, teachers “were viewed as workers who needed specific instructions and methods from administrators” (Rabideau, 1973, p. 12).

This inspectional model, which refers to the function of school administrators to oversee teachers efficiently, created an adversarial relationship between teachers and supervisors. Teachers were not recognized as a part of the decision-making process as it pertained to instructional improvement. Scientific management declined as a model for school supervision in the new political and economic climate that surrounded World War II (Goldsberry, Harvey, Hoffman, Levin, Bodiali, & Vadella, 1984). According to

Ginsberg (2003), “Encouraging the development of democracy among students and faculty was the central theme for evaluation in education from the 1940s to the 1960s.” Administrators began to see the need to cooperate with teachers, and human relations became a major part of supervisory systems. The application of “human relations management” in education caused the focus of instructional supervision to shift from achievement as the end product, to feelings, comfortable relationships, and concern for teachers as individuals (Goldsberry et al. 1984).

As scientific management declined, the human relations perspective gained popularity in the wake of World War II. Elton Mayo is considered to be the father of human relations supervision, which was a successful challenger to traditional scientific management. Human relations supervision had its origins in the democratic administration movement that emerged during the 1930s. Mayo’s classic research study at the Western Electric Hawthorne plant during the 1920s gave testimony to new ideas that suggested that the productivity of workers could be increased by involving them in the decision-making process (Hoy & Miskel, 2001, p. 15). As teachers develop a sense of belonging to the organization they will become motivated to improve their practice. When these ideas were applied to schools, “teachers were to be viewed as ‘whole persons’ in their own right rather than as packages of needed energy, skills, and aptitudes to be used by administrators and supervisors” (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1988, p. 9).

In the 1970s, supervision was linked to instructional leadership (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1993). In the 1980s, Glatthorn (1984) provided his view that if schools are to have an effective supervision model, it must be differentiated using a variety of supervisory approaches from which teachers could select. Glatthorn (1984) indicated

three different types of evaluation methods that depended on the individual needs of the teacher. These models included: cooperative clinical evaluation, cooperative professional development, and self-directed development.

Goldhammer, Anderson, and Krajewski (1969, 1980) addressed the question of what kinds of activities do supervisors engage in and cited the Department of Supervisors and Directors of Instruction of the National Education Association 1931 dictum, which stated:

... all activities by which educational officers may express leadership in the improvement of learning and teaching. Such activities as observation of classroom instruction, conduct of teachers' meetings and of group and individual conferences are clearly within the meaning of this term. The development and execution of plans looking toward increased effectiveness in reading, arithmetic, and some other area of the school program, and the organization or reorganization of curriculum and method are still further examples of what is meant by supervisory activities. (p.12)

Goldhammer et al. states that the definition provided by the Department in 1931 is commendable, although vague. They lament that this ambiguous statement about educational supervision continues to govern current activities by supervisors and is "somewhat less than exacting in the minds of those who propose definitions or who are seeking to learn about them" (pp.12-13). Nevertheless, educational administration is connected with the concept of educational leadership and supervision today is seen as that which is concerned with improving instruction. All definitions, according to Goldhammer et al., imply that supervision is "to stimulate staff growth and development, to influence teacher behaviors in the classroom, [and to] foster the selection, development, use, and evaluation of good instructional approaches and materials" (p.13).

Goldhammer et al. posited that the "well-motivated clinical supervisor uses techniques that have nearly universal applicability" (p. 46). They noted that it would be

impossible for any supervisor to have a strong background in all subject areas and an extensive background and training at all levels of the educational spectrum. They believe, "...most of the techniques that are associated with clinical supervision are relevant to the whole gamut of educational situations, and that a skillful supervisor can work successfully with any teacher of any subject at any level" (p. 47).

Reavis (1978) indicated that Morris Cogan and a group of colleagues at Harvard found that students did not find the suggestions he and his colleagues offered helpful. The clinical supervision approach was developed to change the unproductive pattern identified by Cogan and his colleagues. The clinical supervision model emphasizes teacher growth, while the traditional in-class supervision model emphasizes teacher defects. Reavis writes:

Practitioners of clinical supervision assume that teachers possess the drive and personal resources to solve their problems. Clinical supervision is a five step process that aims at helping the teacher identify and clarify problems, receive data from the supervisor, and develop solutions with the aid of the supervisor. Traditional supervision all too often casts the supervisor in the role of a superior telling the teacher what needs to be changed and how to change it. Clinical supervision tends to produce self-directed teacher[s]; traditional supervision tends to produce an other-directed teacher. (pp. 10-11)

Reavis' comments indicate that the traditional model of supervision does not lead to the development of a teacher who is reflective about his or her practice, whereas the clinical supervision model produces teachers who are self-directed. Since classroom observations are snapshots of what teachers do, observations that use the clinical supervision model where the purpose of the observation is made clear and reflective elements are an integral part of the post-observation conference, should create self-directed teachers.

Pajak (2002) wrote that clinical supervision has had a fairly long history that stretches back more than three decades. He points to the work of Morris Cogan and Robert Goldhammer at Harvard University in the 1960s as the beginning of what has emerged as one of the most widely used modalities of supervision. Pajak (2002, p. 190) suggests that there are Four Families of Clinical Supervision:

Figure 2.1: Four Families of Clinical Supervision

Four Families of Clinical Supervision	
Original Clinical Models	The models proposed by Goldhammer, Mosher and Purpel, and Cogan offer an eclectic blending of empirical, phenomenological, behavioral, and developmental perspectives. These models emphasize the importance of collegial relations between supervisors and teachers, cooperative discovery of meaning, and development of individually unique teaching styles.
Humanistic/Artistic Models	The perspectives of Blumberg and Eisner are based on existential and aesthetic principles. These models forsake step-by-step procedures and emphasize open interpersonal relations and personal intuition, artistry, and idiosyncrasy. Supervisors are encouraged to help teachers understand the expressive and artistic richness of teaching.
Technical/Didactic Models	The work of Acheson and Gall, Hunter, and Joyce and Showers draw on process-product and effective teaching research. These models emphasize techniques of observation and feedback that reinforce certain “effective” behaviors or predetermined models of teaching to which teachers attempt to conform.
Developmental/ Reflective Models	The models of Glickman, Costa and Garmston, Schön, Zeichner and Liston, Garman, Smyth and Retallick, Bowers and Flinders, and Waite are sensitive to individual differences and the organizational, social, political, and cultural contexts of teaching. These models call for

supervisors to encourage reflection among teachers, foster professional growth, discover context specific principles of practices, and promote justice and equity.

Due to the large number of theorists who researched the area of clinical supervision as indicated in Figure. 2.1, Pajak (2002) classified them into the four “families” that are listed. The four families emerged chronologically in approximately the order in which he listed them.

Glickman (1990) suggested that supervision “be an active force that provides focus, structure, and time for matters of curriculum and instruction” (p. 39). The process of supervision, according to Glickman, should be to reduce the norms of the one-room schoolhouse and “increase the norms of public dialogue and action for the benefit of all students” (p. 39). Supervision then should “improve instruction and reshape the norms and beliefs about the work culture of schools” (Glickman, 1990, p. 39). Glickman indicated that a supervisory goal should be to “improve classroom and school instruction that enables teachers to be more adaptive, more thoughtful, and more cohesive in their work” (p. 69). In order to achieve these goals, Glickman (1990) asserted two propositions. First, he indicated that supervision must be a function that responds to the developmental stages of teachers. Second, supervision must be a function that responds to adult life transitions of teachers (p. 69).

Gender Issues

A review of the history of sex and gender issues in organizations revealed that during the 1960s through the 1970s, women became permanent members of the workforce as opposed to temporary workers due to the shortage of males in the

workforce. Kane (2001) indicates that gender is “the behavioral, cultural, or psychological traits typically associated with one sex,” and sex is defined as “either of the two major forms of individuals that occur in many species and that are distinguished respectively as female or male” (p. 1). According to Kane, gender is subjective and sex is biological.

The onset of World War II increased the presence of women in non-traditional occupations such as work in lumber mills, auto and aircraft factories, electrical and munitions industries, and telephone operation. However, women’s experiences in these “traditionally masculine jobs...were transitory.” After the war, women returned to female-dominated work such as teaching, nursing, and clothing manufacture (Cleveland, Stockdale & Murphy, 2000, pp. 9-10). Cleveland et al. suggest that the influx of women into nontraditional occupations “has led to increased attention in the popular media,” particularly in the area of “sex or gender differences between women and men” (p. 19). They raise the question of whether there are differences between men and women in terms of personality, skills, leadership, intelligence, etc. and if these differences really mean anything (p. 19). Furthermore, Cleveland et al. indicates that there is confusion surrounding the understanding and interpretation of research findings comparing men and women. They suggest that the following are sources of the confusion:

1. The approaches, theories, or explanation for observed or unobserved differences between women and men.
2. The terms used to describe such comparisons (i.e., sex, or gender differences).
3. Research biases associated with comparing men and women at work and in other settings (Cleveland et al. 2000, p. 19).

According to Cleveland et al., the beliefs held by a researcher on gender differences as influenced by “observed gender differences and the words one uses to reinforce those beliefs influence and perhaps to some extent, determine the information that both the researcher and student gather about the actual behavior of men and women” (p. 20).

Deaux and Major (1987) indicated that numerous theories and models exist to explain how sex and gender-related behaviors emerge or are acquired (p.20). The approach can be grouped as follows into three major categories: biological, socialization, and structural/cultural models. Cleveland et al. (2000) illustrate as shown in Figure 2.2 that each perspective makes certain assumptions about the bases and changeability of different behaviors among men and women.

Figure 2.2: Key Features of the Perspectives for Understanding Sex and Gender Comparisons

Perspective Key Features	
Biological	Implicitly assumes existing differences between women and men.
	Differences are due to genetic, hormonal, and physical factors.
	Differences are immutable.
	Differences are necessary for survival.
	Research goal is to reinforce detecting differences between men and women.
	Drawback is that differences may be exaggerated.
Socialization	Acknowledges observed differences between men and women.
	Assumes that men and women behave differently as a result of learning.
	Differences observed are not immutable and are subject to change.

	Differences emerge as part of social and cognitive development process.
	Research focus is on describing ways children and adults learn gender identity and social rules that contribute to observed differences.
	Drawback is that small, systematic biological variations among men and women might be ignored.
Structural /cultural	Assumes few inherent differences between men and women.
	Differences observed are the result of social structures and systems that reinforce such differences to reinforce current power hierarchy.
	Differences are changeable.
	Differences exist to keep the powerful in control and the powerless without power.
	Research focus is on identifying similarity or sameness between men and women in similar or identical contexts.
	Drawback is potential to ignore small yet real individual variation among men and women.

Blustain (2000) suggests that the battle between the sexes rages on with primarily women researchers on one side and men on the other. She indicates that much to the dismay of feminists, the debate centers around the extent to which biology shapes one's destiny. One side claims that it is "biology that make us significantly different, and that no amount of feminist agitation will change that" (p. 1). On the other side, the claim made is that "there's a lot more variation to our gender roles," and that it is "Society ... and not our genes, [that] determines how we react to our biological course" (p. 1). Blustain (2000) posits that psychologists studying the origins of gender differences seem divided along gender lines. Researchers, according to Blustain, suggest that the evolutionary psychologists are men and the theories about varied etiology are women.

The evolutionary psychologists claim that differences between the sexes do exist and that we cannot change them.

Looy (2004) reviewed “evolutionary psychology” because it is “one currently popular theoretical framework [used to] explain and predict psychological and behavioral differences between women and men.” This approach has promise but there are “numerous logical, theoretical, and methodological problems yet to be resolved” (p. 1). Nonetheless, according to Looy, evolutionary psychology has something to contribute to the understanding of human sexuality. Looy suggests that:

North American popular media uses images and information to suggest that women and men are virtually different species, while promising to explain the mysteries of one sex to the other. Since the late 1980's, the technology-based surge in the neurosciences and genetics has revealed sex differences in physiological systems, brain structure and function, and cognitive abilities by linking them to genetically driven hormonal effects, which has fueled the popular belief in a deep and immutable gender dichotomy. More recently, a new player has entered the ‘gender wars,’ weighing in heavily in support of innate, genetic origins of an astonishingly wide range of sex differences. Evolutionary psychology (EP) claims that universal differences between females and males reflect the fact that each sex plays different reproductive roles, and therefore has faced different adaptive ‘problems’ during evolutionary history. This has resulted in naturally selected, genetically based differences in everything from physical and physiological characteristics, mate selection strategies, parenting styles, communication and interpersonal skills, to cognitive abilities. (p. 1)

Evolutionary psychology suggests that men and women are different because each sex plays a different role in a given situation and as a result, there has been a natural selection based on these differences in both the physical and physiological realm of both sexes, thus making gender roles an immutable reality. Looy questions the merit of evolutionary psychology. She indicates that the proponents of evolutionary psychology “declare its scientific and philosophical merits,” and suggests that it “provides a powerful and

virtually complete account of human nature...” The detractors, Looy continues, criticize evolutionary psychology for its scientific, political, and philosophical inadequacies (p. 1).

Looy (2004) evaluated the theory of evolutionary psychology and sought to propose constructive adjustments or viable alternatives to the theory. Through a review of the literature on evolutionary psychology, Looy investigated the assumptions focused on sex differences as they related to reproduction. She discovered that evolutionary theory extended “its speculation regarding sex differences into other domains,” which included differences in cognitive, emotional, and behavioral aspects of parenting, navigating, food-seeking, and social relationships that, “have all been predicted by reasoning from the basic distinction in reproductive roles” (p. 4).

Looy concludes that, “[evolutionary psychology] claims that both women and men have a universal human nature and are basically similar, it qualifies this claim by describing a very different, divergent evolutionary history for each sex, resulting in different physical, psychological, and behavioral traits” (p. 4). Furthermore, Looy indicates that Intelligent Design has the “potential to provide us with a theoretical framework that might enable a more complete account of the richness and complexity of human sexuality than a naturalistic version of [evolutionary psychology]” (p. 10).

Instructional Improvement

Goldhammer et al. (1969, 1980) indicated that the supervision of teachers is concerned with improving instructional effectiveness. Goldhammer et al. suggest that today, supervision embraces a wide variety of activities that are directed toward the major goal of instructional improvement, which includes strategies that help students to learn. Glickman (1990) wrote that, “Supervision is not the act of instructing students—that is,

teaching—but rather the actions that enable teachers to improve instruction for students” (p. 6). He indicated that instructional improvement can be “defined as helping teachers acquire teaching strategies that increase the capabilities of students to make wise decisions in varying contexts” (Glickman, 1990, p. 82).

Wise, Darling-Hammond, McLaughlin, and Bernstein (1984) suggested that when teachers become a part of the evaluation process through active participation in the practice, the likelihood of their professional growth increases. Ginsberg (2003) stated that instructional improvement “is a pervasive philosophy among teachers and observers” (p. 71). Instructional improvement includes: the observer encouraging the teacher to clarify objectives and strategies; helping the teacher to clarify data collection procedures; helping the teacher with informal and formal assessment strategies; and collaborative diagnostic decisions between the observer and teacher that lead to interventions (Ginsberg, 2003, p. 71).

Teacher evaluation has two dimensions that are both critical to ensuring accountability and teacher effectiveness. Sousa (2003) suggested that traditional evaluation methods have two categories that include the formative process and another component considered summative. The formative process is “designed to monitor and improve instruction and enhance professional growth” (p. 139). The summative component “assist leaders in making personnel decisions, such as who stays, who goes, and who changes assignment” (p. 139). Sousa describes “clinical supervision” as the most widely used model for formative supervision. He points out that the process:

... involves announced visits to classrooms to observe teacher performance. It consists of a pre-observation conference, the observation visit, an analysis of teacher performance, a post-observation conference, and a post-conference analysis. The underlying principle of this approach

is that appropriate feedback from a knowledgeable professional over time will encourage teachers to consider alternative classroom strategies. Although this process may be effective with struggling teachers, most educators realize that this format does little to enhance the behavior of competent teachers. (p. 140)

Sousa suggests that a major criticism of the observation-checklist approach “is that it treats all teachers alike” and that “there is seldom any connection between the teacher behaviors noted in the observation report and . . . teacher’s professional development” (p. 143).

Danielson and McGreal (2000) have developed a comprehensive design for teacher evaluation that links teaching evaluation with staff development. The model is a three-track design. The first track is for beginning teachers, the second track is for experienced teachers, and the third is for teachers needing assistance. Beginning teachers in Track 1 move to Track 2 in one to three years, depending on whether they had teaching experience before entering the district. Each track serves different but complementary purposes, and teachers are evaluated using the effective teaching standards of (1) classroom environment, (2) preparation and planning, (3) instructional techniques, (4) student assessment strategies, and (5) communication and professional responsibilities. Data are collected from a variety of sources to evaluate a teacher’s performance in all five areas. Danielson and McGreal (2000) suggest:

The evidence clearly points to the need to differentiate both staff development and teacher evaluation to better fit the different pedagogical stages that characterize teaching staffs. This suggests the importance of building evaluation and staff development programs that allow and encourage this necessary differentiation. (p. 16)

Protheroe (2002) found that “educators are recognizing the role that effective teacher observation can play” (p. 51). She suggests that teacher observation can be used

not only to assess competence, but also to help teachers improve their performance. As Zaepeda and Ponticell (1998) reported, “supervision was perceived as helpful when teachers understood that the process of supervision was intended to assist them in the improvement of teaching, when teachers and supervisors jointly identified changes needed in instruction, when supervisors focused teachers’ attention on teaching practices, when supervisors understood teachers’ instructional objectives, and when observations occurred often” (p. 70).

Purpose of Teacher Evaluation

The purpose of the teacher evaluation process is to ensure the overall quality of instruction provided by teachers. Bolton (1973) noted that the purpose of the teacher evaluation is to improve instruction, reward superior performance, modify assignments, protect individuals and the organization, validate the selection process, satisfy policy and law, improve public decisions and operational decisions, provide a basis for career planning, and to contribute to morale and cooperation through communication and trust.

Wise et al. (1984) suggested that teacher evaluation may serve four basic purposes. Figure 2.2 below represents these purposes and levels of decision making.

Figure 2.3: Basic Purposes of Teacher Evaluation

Level \ Purpose	Purpose	Improvement	Accountability
	Individual	Individual staff Development	Individual personnel Decisions (e.g., job status)
	Organizational	School Improvement	School status Decisions (e.g. Accreditation)

According to Wise et al., even though teacher evaluation systems are nominally intended to accomplish all four of these purposes, different processes and methods may better suit one or another of these objectives. Figure 2.3 shows the relationship between the individual and the organization and the purposes of teacher evaluation, which are instructional improvement and accountability. Individual improvement occurs as a result of staff development which secondarily contributes to overall school improvement. Teacher evaluations ensure accountability because they provide information that can help administrators to make personnel decisions, such as, who stays and who goes. This, in turn, impacts overall school accountability in that effective teachers help schools achieve positive results on standardized tests and/or state assessments (Wise et al. 1984)

Danielson and McGreal (2000) pointed out that the purpose of the teacher evaluation system should be clear and govern the design of the system. They suggested that the following purposes must be served in a teacher evaluation system:

- (1) screen out unqualified persons from certification and selection processes;
 - (2) provide constructive feedback to individual educators;
 - (3) recognize and help reinforce outstanding service;
 - (4) provide direction for staff development practices;
 - (5) provide evidence that will withstand professional and judicial scrutiny;
 - (6) aid institutions in terminating incompetent or unproductive personnel; and
 - (7) unify teachers and administrators in their collective efforts to educate students
- (p. 8).

Sawa (1995) indicated that the “general purpose of teacher evaluation is to safeguard and improve the quality of instruction received by students” (p. 5). As a result,

school boards must put in place a process that “allows and encourages supervisors and teachers to work together to improve and enhance classroom instructional practices” to ensure that students achieve at the highest levels (p. 5). Sawa suggests that the literature on teacher evaluation makes clear six main purposes of teacher evaluation:

- (1) It should strive to improve instruction by fostering self-development and peer assistance.
- (2) Staff development activities can be rated and identified.
- (3) The selection process can be validated.
- (4) A well-designed, properly functioning teacher evaluation process provides a major communication link between the school system and teachers.
- (5) Personnel decisions such as retention, transfer, tenure, promotion, demotion, and dismissal can be enhanced through an effective evaluation process.
- (6) Teacher evaluation is capable of protecting students from incompetent teachers by bringing structured assistance to marginal teachers. Since there are no clear-cut standards for judging incompetence, multiple indicators must be utilized to identify marginal teachers. When found, marginal teachers should be required to enter an intensive assistance program (p. 6).

Professional Trust

Blumberg (1980) noted that, “the establishment of productive working relationships is crucial for supervisors” (p. 2). In a study conducted by Heichberger (1975), 70 percent of teachers indicated that they thought of the supervisor as dangerous, which for, Heichberger, was an indication of the continued tension between the supervisor and teacher (p. 210). Beck (1994) suggests that administrators need to be

trustful, and provide a shared vision that is realistic. Peterson (1982) reported that mutual trust between the teacher and the observer is a major factor in the overall effectiveness of the evaluation process. Protheroe (2002) reported that “Teachers will change their thinking and behavior if they feel safe and supported by the teacher-principal relationship” (p. 48).

Van Der Linde (1998) suggested that the teacher evaluation should not be a “psychological obstacle to success” (p. 34). Teaching, according to Van Der Linde, is a complex, interwoven matter, and its evaluation will also be complex and sensitive. Van Der Linde suggests that the “evaluator should not behave as a bureaucratic ‘watchdog’, but rather as a ‘leader’ and a facilitator” (p. 34). Generally, these authors report that without trust between a supervisor and teacher, valid and valuable dialogues that lead to improved practices will not occur.

Reavis (1978) discussed professional trust in terms of “colleagueship.” He noted that colleagueship’s essential element is mutual respect between the supervisor and the teacher. Reavis believed that collegiality was critical in the clinical supervision model. Once the relationship between teacher and supervisor develops, a measure of the mutual respect and trust in the relationship might be the number of times a teacher confides in the supervisor about a problem and asks for suggestions. For Reavis, signs of a non-mutual relationship were passivity on the part of the teacher, defensiveness, evasiveness, effusiveness, and acquiescence. Reavis believes that “the true collegial relationship, founded on mutual respect, may best be characterized by a sharing of concerns and successes,” and that the post-observation conference is the place where this can happen for both teacher and supervisor (p. 21).

Kent (2001) noted that clinical supervision works best when “teachers have the capacity and desire to examine their own teaching practices and to make changes” (p. 229). Two essentials of the clinical supervision model are trust and empowerment. Through a process of pre-observation conferencing, recording objective observation data, and post-observation conferencing, clinical supervision emphasizes the analysis of in-class behaviors of teachers and their students and provides feedback that teachers use to improve teaching.

Reflective Thinking

Starting with John Dewey, the foundations for reflective practices were developed. Dewey (1933) used the term “reflective action” to describe the process of reflective thinking defined by Manatt (1988) as the belief that one of the ways we grow is by analyzing our past mistakes and experiences. A close examination of Dewey’s reflective action theory reveals similarities between the two concepts. Dewey (1933) suggested that reflection was “behavior which involves active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or practice in light of the grounds that support it and the further consequences to which it leads (Grant & Zeichner, 1984, p. 4). Dewey indicated that, “experience is the basis for learning, that learning is a sequential process, and that learning involves reflection” (Giovannelli, 2003, p. 293). Osterman (1990) argued that Dewey believed, “that learning is dependent on the integration of experience with reflection, and of theory with practice” (p. 135). Giovanelli (2003) examined how variations in reflective disposition toward teaching influenced effective teaching of teacher candidates. She found that “reflective disposition toward teaching made a small but statistically significant contribution to effective teaching” (p. 205).

Structured reflection, according to Danielson and McGreal (2000), promote professional learning. They believe that a teacher evaluation system committed to maximizing the professional growth of teachers, should include a focused approach to structured reflection on practice. Danielson and McGreal (2002) noted that structured reflection on practice:

...accounts for the experience of many candidates for NBPTS certification, who report that preparing their portfolios was an extremely rich professional endeavor. But many teachers don't take the time to reflect in a systematic manner unless specifically asked to do so. That is, although many teachers think about their teaching and what they might have done to improve student learning, they frequently don't engage in a formal process of reflection and rarely commit their reflections to writing. When teachers take the time to pause and consider their work systematically, however, they are richly rewarded. The very act of reflection, it appears, is a highly productive vehicle for professional learning. (p. 48)

Danielson (2002) reported that a carefully designed teacher evaluation system "can offer teachers valuable opportunities to reflect on their practice and enhance their skills" (p. 64). She pointed out that teachers can be asked to explain their instructional goals for students, demonstrate their approaches to student assessment, or describe an assignment using samples of student work. Danielson states that, "These activities offer evidence of teachers' skills while also allowing them to engage in self-assessment and reflection, which can lead to improved practice" (p. 64).

Barell (1991) suggested that reflective teachers continually design, monitor, and evaluate their decision-making practices to create a learning experience that promote student learning and achievement.

Summary

This chapter's literature review focused on the history of school supervision and the literature related to the major variables in this study, which were: instructional improvement, purpose of evaluation, professional trust, and reflective thinking.

Teachers' effectiveness can lead to positive outcomes for students. Wright, et al. (1997) demonstrated that teacher effectiveness was stronger than school socioeconomic status, class size, and prior achievement levels of students. Therefore, to ensure student achievement and promote teachers' effectiveness, classroom observation is one way to achieve teachers' instructional improvement.

Early school supervision was focused on inspection rather than on improving the instructional effectiveness of teachers. This model of supervision created an adversarial relationship between the teacher and supervisor. The adoption of Elton Mayo's human relations perspective to supervision paved the way for the development of a more collegial and collaborative approach to supervision.

Goldhammer et al. (1969, 1980) indicated that the supervision of teachers is concerned with improving instructional effectiveness. Glickman (1990) suggested that instructional improvement is what teachers do to increase their students' capabilities to make wise decisions in varying contexts. In order to achieve instructional improvement then, the purpose of evaluation must be clear, a trusting relationship should be developed and nurtured between the supervisor and the teacher, and supervisors must engage teachers in reflective thinking prior to and after the classroom observation.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter provides the methodology and procedures that were used to address the purpose of this study, which focused on secondary teachers' attitudes toward the importance and existence of classroom observation practices that promote instructional improvement. This chapter describes the procedures and methodology that were used in the study, which includes the units of analysis, the instrument, the treatment, the methods used in collecting the data, and the procedures that were used in the analysis of the data. This study measured the attitudes of secondary teachers regarding their classroom observation experience and compared the level of importance and existence they assigned to observation practices.

Research Questions

This study was guided by the following research questions:

1. How do secondary teachers differ in their attitudes towards the importance and existence of classroom observation practices by observers on four dimensions: instructional improvement, purpose, professional trust, and reflective thinking?
2. How do teacher attitudes towards the importance and existence of classroom observation practices differ when they are compared by gender, tenure, ethnicity, and type of supervisor?

3. Is there a relationship among teacher attitudes towards the importance and existence of classroom observation practices and the years of teacher experience?
4. How do teacher attitudes towards the existence of reflective thinking and purpose of classroom observation practices, modified by the existence of trust, predict the existence of instructional improvement practices?
5. To what extent is there a difference in teachers' attitudes towards existing classroom observation practices when the observer is a content specialist (in the field of math, social studies, science, or English) or a building level administrator?

Setting

Suffolk County occupies the eastern two-thirds of Long Island, New York. The county covers roughly a thousand square miles of land and is eighty-six miles long and twenty-six miles wide at the widest point. Long Island extends 120 miles into the Atlantic Ocean. Suffolk is the leading agricultural county in the state of New York. It has a population of approximately 1,475,488 people of multiethnic backgrounds (Suffolk County QuickFacts from the US Census Bureau 2004).

Nassau County occupies the western portion of Long Island, New York and covers approximately 2000 square miles of land. It has a population of about 1,334,641 inhabitants (Nassau County QuickFacts from the US Census Bureau 2004). In Suffolk and Nassau Counties, there are approximately 81 and 56 school districts respectively. The five districts in this study have a student population in grades K-12 of 24,543 collectively with 19% black (not Hispanic); 22% Hispanic; 3% American Indian, Alaskan, Asian, or Pacific Islander; and 56% Caucasian, as reported on the New York

State District Report Card Comprehensive Information Report dated March 10, 2004 for the selected districts.

Demographics of Subjects

Five school districts that purported to utilize a clinical supervision program as a way to evaluate and improve teachers' instructional performance were purposefully selected for participation in this research. The contact person in each district confirmed the use of the clinical supervision process as a form of classroom observation. The selected school districts employ 1,796 teachers. There were approximately 600 math, social studies, science, and English teachers who were invited to participate in this study. The survey was distributed by the building principal or by his/her designee to math, social studies, science, and English teachers in the selected school districts.

The demographic characteristics of the respondents are presented in Table 3.1

Table 3.1: *Demographic Characteristics of Respondents*

	Frequency	Percent
Gender		
Male	63	38%
Female	102	62%
Race		
African American	5	3%
Asian	3	1.8%
Caucasian	141	85%
Latino	5	3%
Native American	1	.6%
Other	6	3.6%
Missing	4	2.4%

The survey instrument was delivered to 405 secondary teachers at both the middle and high schools in the selected districts. Exactly 165 secondary math, social studies, science, and English teachers completed the survey for a return rate of 41%. The median years of experience that the respondents reported were nine years. Respondents reported

a range of experience from one-year to thirty-seven-years of experience. Sixteen respondents were teaching five years and represented 10.2% of the survey respondents. Appendix A provides a frequency distribution of the years of experience.

Respondents were asked to indicate their race and of the total respondents, 2.4% chose to leave this question blank. Since 85% of the respondents are Caucasian, the data do not have sufficient respondents to draw any conclusions regarding racial or ethnic comparisons. Therefore, the topic of race was not addressed in research question 2 and the research question was modified to reflect this information.

Data Collection Procedure

The Teachers' Analysis of Their Principals' Evaluation Style (TAPES) questionnaire developed by Smalt (1997), and modified by Ginsberg (2003) was used to obtain teacher attitudes towards their observation practices that they believed promoted their effectiveness. The version of the survey used in this study consisted of 38 items that examined teacher attitudes towards four dimensions of supervision: instructional improvement, purpose, professional trust, and reflective thinking. The survey was administered during the 2004 – 2005 school year at the school site. The principals of the middle and high school and the superintendents of the selected districts were sent a letter informing them of this survey research (Appendix A). Once permission was granted from the district office, the research instrument was sent directly to the school site. The middle and high school principals or their designees were asked to assist in the distribution and collection of the survey. The survey was distributed at faculty meetings and/or in teachers' mailboxes. Teachers returned the completed surveys to a box in the main office that was labeled "Classroom Observation Practices Survey Drop Box."

The survey research method was chosen to allow the researcher to gather data from a relatively large number of subjects. After the survey instrument was returned, the researcher compiled the data into SPSS for analysis. The identity of each school district was veiled through a numbering system that was assigned to each returned survey instrument.

The subjects were asked to respond to each of the 38 questions using a Likert scale by circling the number of the response chosen to indicate the level of agreement or non-agreement with the item based on the following scale: (1) Almost Never, (2) Seldom, (3) Sometimes, (4) Frequently, or (5) Almost Always. Teachers were asked to respond to “A Survey of Your Classroom Observation Practice” individually circling two responses per question; one responding to the importance of the item (left column) and a second response to the existing practice (right column) (Appendix B). To address research questions number two, three, and five several descriptive questions were asked regarding sex, race, years of teaching experience, and who supervises the teacher (i.e. principal, department chair, other, etc...).

Research Instrument

Permission was received from Dr. Ann Marie Ginsberg to use her modified survey instrument on August 23, 2004. Ginsberg (2003) modified a survey instrument that was developed by Smalt in 1997, which she titled “A Survey of Your Observation Experience.” This was developed to address elementary teachers’ attitudes toward their observation experience. The original questionnaire, The Teachers’ Analysis of Their Principals’ Evaluation Style (TAPES) is a data collection instrument of 69 items in length and was developed over a period of three years. In its original form, this research

instrument contained an additional questionnaire where principals assessed their supervisory style. Ginsberg (2003) deleted this section in her study and asked teachers to respond to how frequently the “observer” behaved in the actual fashion described and how important the behavior was as an action that would help to “improve” teacher performance and effectiveness. Her instrument was further refined through a factor analysis (see the section below titled Content Validity).

For consistency, the word “principal” in this survey was changed to “observer.” The survey indicates that the word “observer” refers to the teacher’s primary evaluator. The expected time to complete the survey is 15 minutes, which increases the chances of teachers participating in this survey.

Content Validity

Ginsberg (2003) established content validity of the survey instrument. She selected experienced elementary teachers who were recognized by their peers and supervisors for their effective teaching strategies and methodologies. These participants took the 69 items found in Smalt’s survey instrument and placed each statement into one of the six subscales: purpose, structure and procedure, practices and behavior, trust, transformation, and reflective thinking. Ginsberg reported that the “jury of experts arrived at consensus that the overall statements placed in the subscales represented the content that the survey was designed to measure” (p. 43). Further revisions were made to the survey instrument by Ginsberg due to the expert panel not forming a consensus about the category to which certain items should be assigned. Ginsberg conducted a factor analysis on the desired responses for 308 participants in her study to establish construct validity for the instrument.

Reliability

At the elementary level, the reliability of the survey instrument was determined by Ginsberg (2003) who examined the internal consistencies of the instrument.

Reliability estimates were run for each of the four sub-categories of the survey instrument for importance and existing responses. The reliability estimates were used to evaluate how a set of items in a scale contributed to the internal consistency of the scale and to evaluate the effectiveness of each item in conjunction with the other items in the scale (Bishop & Lester, 2000). Table 3.2 presents the reliability coefficient Alpha scores for each sub-category for both the importance and existence of supervisory behavior in the elementary schools that Ginsberg studied.

Table 3.2: Reliability Analysis – Scale (Alpha)

	Importance Alpha Score	Existing Alpha Score
Instructional Improvement	.88	.72
Purpose	.93	.94
Professional Trust	.90	.92
Reflective Thinking	.85	.83

In this study, after a factor analysis of the importance responses was used to reduce the data, the coefficient of internal consistency (Alpha) was calculated for new scales measuring the importance and the existence of four dimensions in classroom observation (Table 3.3).

Table 3.3: Reliability Analysis – Scale (Alpha)

	Important Alpha Score	Existing Alpha Score
Instructional Improvement	.88	.91
Purpose	.83	.92
Professional Trust	.72	.77
Reflective Thinking	.85	.91

Factor Analysis

A factor analysis was performed on the existing data that was reported by the 165 participants in this study in order to establish validity for the instrument. Using Principal Component as the extraction method and Varimax as the rotation method, the factor analysis of respondents' responses for importance confirmed the sub-categories of the survey instrument as follows: Instructional Improvement, Purpose, Professional Trust, and Reflective Thinking. In addition, several items that Ginsberg employed in her study were dropped from the scales or moved to another factor. Overall, the items were reduced from 38 to 28 and are presented in Table 3.4. The reliability estimates (Alpha coefficient) for the newly constructed factors are presented in Table 3.3. The factor loadings are presented in Appendix C and D.

Data Analysis

Once the data were compiled, SPSS was used to retrieve descriptive statistics that enabled the calculation of mean scores to compare teacher attitudes on the importance and existence of certain supervisory behaviors. A correlation matrix was employed to see if there is a relationship between years of experience, and importance and existence of

observational practices in the four dimensions of classroom observation practices that promote teachers' effectiveness: instructional improvement, purpose, professional trust, and reflective thinking.

Table 3.4: Research Instrument after Factor Analysis

Instrument Components	Item #	Raw Score Range
Instructional Improvement	3, 4, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 14, 15, 16	10 – 50
Purpose	20, 32, 36, 37, 38	5 – 25
Professional Trust	12, 13, 21, 23, 24	5 – 25
Reflective Thinking	27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 33, 34, 35	8 – 40

The first research question asks, “How do secondary teachers differ in their attitudes towards the importance and existence of observation practices by observers on four dimensions: instructional improvement, purpose, professional trust, and reflective thinking?” A related mean *t*- test on each sub-category was employed to determine whether teachers perceive any differences between the importance and existence of classroom observation practices in the four dimensions under investigation.

The second research question asks, “How do teacher attitudes toward the importance and existence of classroom observation practices differ when they are compared by gender, tenure status, and type of supervisor. A *t*-test analysis was employed to determine if teacher attitudes differ by gender, tenure status, and type of supervisor (building administrator or content specialist).

The third research question asks, “Is there a relationship among teacher attitudes toward the importance and existence of classroom practices and the years of teacher

experience.” A correlation analysis for years of teaching experience was utilized to identify significant relationships between teaching experience and teacher attitudes towards supervisory behavior.

The fourth research question asks, “How do teacher attitudes toward the existence of reflective thinking and purpose of classroom observation practices; modified by the existence of trust, predict the existence of instructional improvement practices?” A linear regression analysis was conducted to determine how teacher attitudes toward the existence of reflective thinking and purpose of classroom observation practices modified by the existence of trust predict the existence of instructional improvement.

The fifth research question asks, “To what extent is there a difference in teachers’ attitudes towards existing classroom observation practices when the observer is a content specialist in their field of math, social studies, science, or English or a building level administrator? A one-way analysis of variance with a Scheffe post hoc analysis was employed to determine whether there was a significant difference in teachers’ attitudes on the four dimensions of instructional improvement, purpose, professional trust, and reflective thinking when the primary observer is either a content specialist in their area or a building level administrator.

CHAPTER IV

DATA ANALYSIS AND FINDINGS

This chapter reports the results of teachers' responses to a survey measuring their attitudes toward important and existing classroom observation practices that promote their effectiveness. The following research questions guided the data analysis.

1. How do secondary teachers differ in their attitudes towards the importance and existence of classroom observation practices by observers on four dimensions: instructional improvement, purpose, professional trust, and reflective thinking?
2. How do teacher attitudes towards the importance and existence of classroom observation practices differ when they are compared by gender, tenure, and type of supervisor?
3. Is there a relationship among teacher attitudes towards the importance and existence of classroom observation practices and the years of teacher experience?
4. How do teacher attitudes towards the existence of reflective thinking and purpose of classroom observation practices, modified by the existence of trust, predict the existence of instructional improvement practices?
5. To what extent is there a difference in teachers' attitudes towards existing classroom observation practices when the observer is a content specialist (in their field of math, social studies, science or English) or a building level administrator?

Instrument Reliability

The reliability of the survey instrument was determined by examining the internal consistencies of the instrument. Reliability estimates were run for each of the four subcategories of the survey instrument for important and existing responses. The reliability estimates are used to evaluate if a set of items in a scale contribute to the internal consistency of the scale and to evaluate the effectiveness of each individual item in conjunction with the other items in the scale (Bishop and Lester, 2000). Table 4.1 presents the reliability coefficient Alpha scores for each sub-category both important and existing.

Table 4.1: Reliability Analysis – Scale (Alpha)

	Important Alpha Score	Existing Alpha Score
Instructional Improvement	.88	.91
Purpose	.83	.92
Professional Trust	.72	.77
Reflective Thinking	.85	.91

Table 4.1 demonstrates that the survey instrument has strong internal consistency and that the items identified within the subcategories are contributing to a reasonable degree to the measurement of the same underlying attributes.

Research Question One

The first research question asked, “How do secondary teachers differ in their attitudes towards the importance and existence of classroom observation practices by observers on four dimensions: instructional improvement, purpose, professional trust,

and reflective thinking?” A paired t -test on each sub-category was used to determine whether teachers perceive any differences between important and existing observation practices in the four domains under investigation.

The data from a random sample of 30 respondents were used to conduct the paired-sample t -test. In some instances, less than 30 respondents comprised the sample because of missing data. The random sample in this study was used to reduce the large number of respondents so that a significant difference in the mean scores would be the result of valid comparisons.

Instructional Improvement

The sub-category of Instructional Improvement is defined as follows: Provides the framework for which a lesson is developed and ensures that during the pre-conference elements such as goals, teaching strategies, assessment techniques, and data gathering procedures are clarified. During the post-observation-conference the observer engages the teacher in a discussion about the following matters related to the lesson: a comparison of the planned lesson versus observed lesson, inferred relationships between the teacher’s decisions and student achievement during the lesson, and collaborative conversation between the teacher and evaluator reflecting on and constructing ways to improve the lesson design.

On the sub-category of Instructional Improvement as presented in Table 4.2, the respondents reported that there was a mean of 44.4 for the importance of the practice and a mean of 35.8 for the existence of the practice. A mean of 50 indicates strong agreement that teachers feel that classroom observation practices promote instructional

improvement. A mean of 10 would indicate strong disagreement. The reported results indicate that the respondents feel strongly about the importance of classroom observation

Table 4.2: Paired *t*-test Statistics: Instructional Improvement (Important and Existing)

Paired Samples Statistics				
Title	N	Range	Mean	Std. Deviation
Instructional Improvement - Important	25	10-50	44.4	5.1
Instructional Improvement - Existing	25	10-50	35.8	10.4

Paired Samples Test					
	Mean Difference	Std. Error Mean	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Instructional Improvement Important and Existing	8.640	2.044	4.226	24.000	0.000

practices that promote instructional improvement. The respondents reported that the practices that promote instructional improvement happen less than frequently in their classroom observation practice.

The results of the *t*-test between Instructional Improvement Important and Instructional Improvement Existing was: $t(25)=4.23$, $p<.00$. There was a significant difference between existing and important instructional practices in that the mean for the existing practice was lower than that of the mean for the importance of classroom observation practices that promote instructional improvement. The respondents indicated that practices that lead to instructional improvement should happen almost always, but in reality, they reported such practices only occurred less than frequently. An item analysis demonstrated that Questions 3, 6, 7, 14, and 16 produced the greatest difference (Tables 4.3 through 4.7).

Question 3, Table 4.3, indicates that teachers feel that honesty is an important attribute of the observer as evidenced by 96% of the participants responding that observers should always and frequently express their feelings honestly. Eighteen percent of the participants indicated that their observers sometimes, seldom, and almost never expresses their feelings honestly.

Table 4.3: Item Analysis for Instructional Improvement Question 3

Question 3: My observer expresses his/her feelings honestly.				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Sometimes	7	4.2	4	4
Frequently	36	21.8	23	27
Almost Always	115	69.7	73	100
Total	158	95.8	100	
Existence of Practice				
Almost Never	3	1.8	2	2
Seldom	9	5.5	6	7
Sometimes	17	10.3	10	18
Frequently	49	29.7	30	48
Almost Always	84	50.9	52	100
Total	162	98.2	100	

Table 4.4 indicates that 81% of respondents in Question 6 believe that it is important for their observer to provide them with information relating to educational resources that may assist them in creating students' success. Twenty-seven percent of participants indicated that almost this never or seldom happens in their classroom observation practice.

Question number 7, Table 4.5, asked teachers if formal classroom observations are used by their observer to promote instructional improvement. About 84% of respondents reported that this is an important aspect of their classroom observation practice and

should almost always and frequently be the reason for classroom observations. In practice though, almost 12% of respondents reported that formal

Table 4.4: Item Analysis for Instructional Improvement Question 6

Question 6: My observer identifies educational resources needed to assist me in creating students' successes.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Almost Never	1	0.6	1	1
Seldom	2	1.2	1	2
Sometimes	24	14.5	15	17
Frequently	56	33.9	35	52
Almost Always	77	46.7	48	100
Total	160	97.0	100	
Existence of Practice				
Almost Never	27	16.4	16	16
Seldom	18	10.9	11	27
Sometimes	46	27.9	28	55
Frequently	27	16.4	16	72
Almost Always	46	27.9	28	100
Total	164	99.4	100	

Table 4.5: Item Analysis for Instructional Improvement Question 7

Question 7: My observer's formal classroom observations are used to promote instructional improvement.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Seldom	4	2.4	3	3
Sometimes	16	9.7	10	13
Frequently	41	24.8	26	38
Almost Always	98	59.4	62	100
Total	159	96.4	100	
Existence of Practice				
Almost Never	19	11.5	12	12
Seldom	9	5.5	6	17
Sometimes	32	19.4	20	37
Frequently	43	26.1	26	63
Almost Always	60	36.4	37	100
Total	163	98.8	100	

classroom observations are almost never used for the purpose of instructional improvement. Only 19% reported that it sometimes promoted instructional improvement.

Table 4.6 indicates that 95% percent of teachers reported that it is important for their observer to encourage them to identify possible relationships between their teaching strategies and desired outcomes. Of the 95%, 52% felt this should almost always occur and 32% reported that it should frequently happen. Forty-one percent of respondents reported that encouragement by their observer to identify possible relationships between teaching strategies and desired outcomes happened sometimes (24%), seldom (11%), and almost never (7%).

Table 4.6: Item Analysis for Instructional Improvement Question 14

Question 14: My observer encourages me to identify possible relationships between my particular teaching strategies and desired outcomes.				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Almost Never	1	0.6	1	1
Seldom	2	1.2	1	2
Sometimes	18	10.9	11	13
Frequently	52	31.5	33	46
Almost Always	86	52.1	54	100
Total	159	96.4	100	
Existence of Practice				
Almost Never	11	6.7	7	7
Seldom	18	10.9	11	18
Sometimes	39	23.6	24	42
Frequently	44	26.7	27	69
Almost Always	50	30.3	31	100
Total	162	98.2	100	

Question 16, Table 4.7, asked teachers if their observer encourages clarification of student achievement assessment techniques to be used during the lesson. Eighty-five percent of respondents reported that this is an important part of the classroom observation

practice. Only 59% of respondents reported that this almost always or frequently Table

4.7: Item Analysis for Instructional Improvement Question 16

Question 16: My observer encourages me to clarify student achievement assessment techniques to be used during my lesson.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Seldom	2	1.2	1	1
Sometimes	19	11.5	12	13
Frequently	65	39.4	40	53
Almost Always	75	45.5	47	100
Total	161	97.6	100	
Existence of Practice				
Almost Never	8	4.8	5	5
Seldom	18	10.9	11	16
Sometimes	38	23.0	23	40
Frequently	50	30.3	31	70
Almost Always	48	29.1	30	100
Total	162	98.2	100	

happens in their classroom observation practice. About 16% reported that this seldom and almost never occurs.

Purpose

The sub-category of Purpose is defined as follows: Throughout the evaluation process, the teacher should feel supported and encouraged to grow; feeling at the conclusion of the evaluation some internal measure of growth.

On the sub-category of Purpose, Table 4.8, the respondents reported that there was a mean of 23.9 for the importance of the practice and a mean of 20.1 for the existence of the practice. A mean of 25 indicates strong agreement that teachers feel that their classroom observation practice is used to promote instructional improvement for the purpose of professional growth (formative) and for the purpose of teacher accountability (summative). A mean of 5 would indicate strong disagreement. The reported results

Table 4.8: Paired *t*-test Statistics: Purpose (Important and Existing)

Paired Samples Statistics				
Title	N	Range	Mean	Std. Deviation
Purpose - Important	24	5-25	23.9	1.2
Purpose - Existing	24	5-25	20.1	5.8

Paired Samples Test					
	Mean Difference	Std. Error Mean	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Purpose Important and Existing	3.750	1.139	3.291	23	0.003

indicate that the respondents agree that the purpose of their classroom observation is to promote instructional improvement by ensuring ongoing professional growth.

The results of the *t*-test between Purpose Important and Purpose Existing was: $t(24)=3.291$, $p<.05$. There was a significant difference between existing and important practices that support the purpose of classroom observation. Participants indicated that the purpose of classroom observations should almost always lead to some measure of professional growth. They indicate that this frequently occurs in their current experience with their observer.

An item analysis demonstrated that Questions 20 and 32 produced the greatest difference (Tables 4.9 and 4.10).

Question 20, Table 4.9, asked teachers if their observer should accept responsibility for their actions. Seventy-four percent of teachers reported that this is almost always important and 19% reported that it is frequently important. Although 97% of respondents felt that observers should be responsible for their actions, 25% of respondents reported that this happens sometimes, seldom, and almost never.

Table 4.9: Item Analysis for Purpose Question 20

Question 20: My observer accepts responsibility for his/her actions.				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Sometimes	6	3.6	4	4
Frequently	32	19.4	20	24
Almost Always	122	73.9	76	100
Total	160	97.0	100	
Existence of Practice				
Almost Never	10	6.1	6	6
Seldom	11	6.7	7	13
Sometimes	20	12.1	12	25
Frequently	42	25.5	26	51
Almost Always	79	47.9	49	100
Total	162	98.2	100	

Table 4.10: Item Analysis Purpose Question 32

Question 32: My observer focuses on my concerns by listening actively, reflectively, and empathetically.				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Almost Never	1	0.6	1	1
Seldom	1	0.6	1	1
Sometimes	11	6.7	7	8
Frequently	45	27.3	28	37
Almost Always	100	60.6	63	100
Total	158	95.8	100	
Existence of Practice				
Almost Never	7	4.2	4	4
Seldom	10	6.1	6	10
Sometimes	25	15.2	15	26
Frequently	48	29.1	30	56
Almost Always	72	43.6	44	100
Total	162	98.2	100	

Table 4.10 reveals that 95% of respondents reported that it is important for their observer to focus on their concerns by listening actively, reflectively, and empathetically. Almost fifteen percent of respondents indicated that this sometimes happens, 6% reported

that it seldom happens, and 4% reported that it almost never happens in their existing classroom observation practice.

Professional Trust

The sub-category of Professional Trust is defined as follows: Mutual trust between teacher and evaluator is a major factor in the overall evaluation process. The observer promotes trust by volunteering personal information about himself/herself, maintaining confidentiality, following through on commitments made to the teacher and reacting to the teacher in an appropriate manner when that person is in need of support.

Table 4.11: Paired *t*-test Statistics: Professional Trust (Important and Existing)

Paired Samples Statistics				
Title	N	Range	Mean	Std. Deviation
Trust – Important	25	5-25	22.3	2.2
Trust - Existing	25	5-25	20.2	4.7

Paired Samples Test					
	Mean Difference	Std. Error Mean	t	Df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Trust Important and Existing	2.160	0.759	2.847	24.000	0.009

On the sub-category of Professional Trust, Table 4.11, respondents reported that there was a mean of 20.2 for the existence of this dimension as it relates to their classroom observation practices that promote their effectiveness. The respondents reported a mean of 22.3 for the importance of professional trust as a dimension of their classroom observation practices. A mean of 25 indicates strong agreement that teachers feel that their observers can be trusted to respond to them with praise, is accepting of their ideas, and is interested in them as an individual beyond his/her role as their

supervisor. A mean of 5 would indicate strong disagreement. From the reported results, the respondents strongly agree that professional trust is an important part of classroom observation practices that promote their effectiveness.

The results of the *t*-test on the importance of and existence of professional trust as it relates to promoting teachers' effectiveness through classroom observation practices was: $t(25)=2.85$, $p<.01$. There was a statistically significant difference between important and existing classroom observation practices that brought about a sense of professional trust among the respondents. There was a slight difference in the means ($MD=2.16$). Respondents indicated that practices that promote professional trust are almost always important and occur frequently.

Reflective Thinking

The sub-category of Reflective Thinking is defined as follows: The practice of documenting or discussing the quality or artifacts of a teacher's work that focuses on improvement. The artifacts of teaching include lesson plans, tests, reading lists, course outlines, samples of students' work, and handouts used in class. A spirit of cooperation and collaboration, encouragement of risk taking and experimentation to create new educational strategies, a learning environment that promotes success for all students, encouragement to seek alternative solutions to problems and to analyze past mistakes and experiences are the hallmarks of supervisors who engender reflective thinking among personnel.

On the sub-category of Reflective Thinking, Table 4.12, the respondents reported that there was a mean of 32.7 for the importance of this dimension of classroom observation practices by their observer that promote their effectiveness and a mean of

23.9 for the existence of the practice. A mean of 40 indicates strong agreement that teachers feel that reflective thinking is an important aspect of classroom observation practices. A mean of 8 would indicate strong disagreement. The reported results for the importance of this sub-category indicate that respondents feel that the practices that foster reflective thinking should almost always occur.

The results of the *t*-test between Reflective Thinking Important and Existing was: $t(25)=4.6, p<.00$. There was a significant difference between existing and important classroom observation practices by observers that promote teachers' reflective thinking. The mean for the existence of the practice was substantially lower ($MD=8.8$) than the mean of the importance of the practice. The respondents indicated that observers should engage them in reflective thinking almost always, but only did so sometimes.

Table 4.12: Paired *t*-test Statistics: Reflective Thinking (Important and Existing)

Paired Samples Statistics					
Title	N	Range	Mean	Std. Deviation	
Reflective Thinking - Important	23	8-40	32.7	5.1	
Reflective Thinking - Existing	23	8-40	23.9	10.1	
Paired Samples Test					
	Mean Difference	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Reflective Thinking Important and Existing	8.8	1.9	4.6	24.000	0.00

An item analysis demonstrated that Questions 27 and 35 produced the greatest difference (Table 4.13 and 4.14).

Table 4.13 reveals that 95% of the respondents reported in Question 27 that it is almost always, frequently, and sometimes important for their observer to encourage them to compare what they planned for lessons with how the lesson actually went. Only 37%

of respondents reported that this almost always happens, while about 13% reported that it almost never and seldom occurs.

Table 4.13: Item Analysis for Reflective Thinking Question 27

Question 27: My observer encourages me to compare what I planned for my lessons with how the lesson actually went.				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Seldom	2	1.2	1	1
Sometimes	16	9.7	10	11
Frequently	46	27.9	29	40
Almost Always	95	57.6	60	100
Total	159	96.4	100	
Existence of Practice				
Almost Never	13	7.9	8	8
Seldom	9	5.5	6	14
Sometimes	38	23.0	23	37
Frequently	41	24.8	25	62
Almost Always	61	37.0	38	100
Total	162	98.2	100	

Table 4.14: Item Analysis for Reflective Thinking Question 35

Question 35: My observer helps me clarify my instructional strategies.				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Almost Never	3	1.8	2	2
Seldom	4	2.4	3	4
Sometimes	25	15.2	16	20
Frequently	52	31.5	33	54
Almost Always	73	44.2	46	100
Total	157	95.2	100	
Existence of Practice				
Almost Never	19	11.5	12	12
Seldom	16	9.7	10	22
Sometimes	34	20.6	21	43
Frequently	39	23.6	24	67
Almost Always	53	32.1	33	100
Total	161	97.6	100	

Ninety-one percent of respondents reported in Question 35, Table 4.14, that it is almost always, frequently, and sometimes important for their observer to help them clarify instructional strategies. Only 32% of respondents reported that this almost always happens and about 21% reported that it seldom and almost never occurs.

The results from the paired *t*-test reveal that teachers view classroom observation practices as important to promoting their effectiveness.

Research Question Two

The second research question asks, “How do teacher attitudes towards the importance and existence of classroom observation practices differ when they are compared by gender, tenure, ethnicity, and the type of supervisor.” A *t*-test analysis was employed to determine if teacher attitudes differ by gender (male/male, female/female, and male/female), tenure, and expertise of supervisor.

The data from a random sample of 50 respondents, 25 males and 25 females, was used to conduct the paired samples *t*-test in comparing respondents by gender, tenure, and expertise of supervisor.

Instructional Improvement

Table 4.15: Paired *t*-test Statistics: Instructional Improvement (Important and Existing) by Gender

Paired Samples Statistics - Instructional Improvement - Important and Existing						
Gender	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Paired Differences Mean	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Male						
(Important)	43.00		7.02			
(Existing)	38.53	19.00	7.76	4.47	2.93	0.01
Female						
(Important)	47.73		2.85			
(Existing)	38.91	22.00	9.79	8.82	4.16	0.00

On the sub-category of Instructional Improvement, Table 4.15, the result of the *t*-test between important and existing for males was: $t(19)=2.93, p<.01$. Male respondents reported that there was a mean of 43 for the importance of the practice and a mean of 38.53 for the existence of the practice. A mean of 50 indicates strong agreement that teachers feel that classroom observation practices promote instructional improvement. A mean of 10 would indicate strong disagreement. Female respondents reported that there was a mean of 47.73 for the importance of the practice and a mean of 38.91 for the existence of the practice. The result of the *t*-test between important and existing for females was: $t(22)=4.16, p<.00$.

Table 4.15 indicates that there was a significant difference between the important and existing classroom observation practices that lead to instructional improvement for both male and female respondents. An item analysis demonstrated that Questions 3, 4, 6, 7, 9, 10, 11, 14, and 16 produced the greatest difference for female respondents; and Questions 6 and 10 for male respondents.

The possible range of scores for Instructional Improvement, important and existing, was between 10 and 50. The mean score for the importance of the practice was 47.73 and 38.91 for the existence of the practice for female respondents. An item analysis for the questions that provided the greatest differences is provided in Tables 4.16 – 4.24, which shows the frequency distribution for the female respondents on each item.

Question 3 asked female respondents if their observer expresses his/her feelings honestly. Ninety-eight percent of female respondents indicated that their observer expressing his/her feelings is an important aspect of their classroom observation practice that promotes instructional improvement. Almost 18% of the female respondents

indicated that their observer sometimes, seldom, and almost never expresses their feelings honestly.

Table 4.16: Item Analysis for Female Respondents on Question 3 on the Sub-category of Instructional Improvement

Question 3: My observer expresses his/her feelings honestly.				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Sometimes	2	2.0	2	2
Frequently	24	23.5	24	26
Almost				
Always	74	72.5	74	100
Total	100	98.0	100	
Missing	2	2.0		
Total	102	100		
Existence of Practice				
Almost				
Never	3	2.9	3	3
Seldom	8	7.8	8	11
Sometimes	7	6.9	7	18
Frequently	27	26.5	27	45
Almost				
Always	55	53.9	55	100
Total	100	98.0	100	
Missing	2	2.0		
Total	102	100		

Question 4 asked if the observer encouraged the respondents to understand in greater depth their thinking regarding all aspects of the lesson. Ninety-five percent of female respondents indicated this was important, but 42% indicated it happened sometimes, seldom, and almost never.

Ninety-eight percent of female respondents indicated for Question 6 that it is important for the observer to identify educational resources needed to assist them in creating students' successes. Twenty-seven percent of respondents indicated that this seldom and almost never happens in their current practice.

Table 4.17: Item Analysis for Female Respondents on Question 4 on the Sub-category of Instructional Improvement

Question 4: My observer encourages me to understand in greater depth my thinking regarding all aspects of my lessons.				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Seldom	2	2.0	2.0	2.0
Sometimes	9	8.8	9.1	11.1
Frequently	25	24.5	25.3	36.4
Almost Always	63	61.8	63.6	100
Total	99	97.1	100	
Missing	3	2.9		
Total	102	100		
Existence of the Practice				
Almost Never	10	9.8	10	10
Seldom	8	7.8	8	18
Sometimes	25	24.5	25	43
Frequently	24	23.5	24	67
Almost Always	33	32.4	33	100
Total	100	98.0	100	
Missing	2	2.0		
Total	102	100		

Question 7, Table 4.19, asked whether formal classroom observations were used to promote instructional improvement. Ninety-six percent of female respondents indicated that this was important, but only 61% indicated that this was the case.

Question 9, Table 4.20, asked respondents if their observer encouraged them to be cognizant of their educational goals, objectives, and/or instructional strategies. Ninety-seven percent of female respondents indicated that this was an important aspect of their classroom observation practices. However, 23% of female respondents indicated that this practice only occurred sometimes, seldom, and almost never.

Question 10, Table 4.21, asked respondents if their observer frequently hears from teachers about the spirit of cooperation that exists in their school. Eighty-eight percent of

female respondents indicated this was important, while almost 29% indicated that it seldom or almost never occurred in their school.

Table 4.18: Item Analysis for Female Respondents on Question 6 on the Sub-category of Instructional Improvement

Question 6: My observer identifies educational resources needed to assist me in creating students' successes.				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Sometimes	11	10.8	11	11
Frequently	36	35.3	36	47
Almost				
Always	53	52.0	53	100
Total	100	98.0	100	
Missing	2	2.0		
Total	102	100		
Existence of Practice				
Almost				
Never	20	19.6	19.8	19.8
Seldom	8	7.8	7.9	27.7
Sometimes	29	28.4	28.7	56.4
Frequently	12	11.8	11.9	68.3
Almost				
Always	32	31.4	31.7	100
Total	101	99.0	100	
Missing	1	1.0		
Total	102	100		

Question 11, Table 4.22 asked if respondents were encouraged by their observer to clarify teaching strategies for their lesson. Ninety-eight percent of female respondents indicated that this was important, but only 54% indicated that this frequently and almost always occurred. Question 14, Table 4.23 asked whether observers encouraged respondents to identify possible relationships between their particular teaching strategies and the desired outcomes. Nine-nine percent of female respondents indicated that this was important, but only 57% indicated the existence of this practice in their current building almost always and frequently.

Table 4.19: Item Analysis for Female Respondents on Question 7 on the Sub-category of Instructional Improvement

Question 7: My observer's formal classroom observations are used to promote instructional improvement.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Seldom	2	2.0	2	2
Sometimes	9	8.8	9	11
Frequently	24	23.5	24	35
Almost Always	65	63.7	65	100
Total	100	98.0	100	
Missing	2	2.0		
Total	102	100		
Existence of Practice				
Almost Never	15	14.7	15	15
Seldom	3	2.9	3	18
Sometimes	21	20.6	21	39
Frequently	23	22.5	23	61
Almost Always	39	38.2	39	100
Total	101	99.0	100	
Missing	1	1.0		
Total	102	100		

Question 16, Table 4.24 asked if respondents' observer encouraged them to clarify student achievement assessment techniques to be used during the lesson. Ninety-seven percent of female respondents indicated that this was important, but only 57% indicated that the practice existed frequently and almost always.

The mean score for male respondents on the importance of the practice was 43 and 38.53 for the existence of the practice. An item analysis for the questions that produced the greatest differences is provided in Tables 4.25 and 4.26, which shows the frequency distribution for the male respondents on each item.

Table 4.20: Item Analysis for Female Respondents on Question 9 on the Sub-category of Instructional Improvement

Question 9: My observer encourages me to be cognizant of my educational goals, objectives, and/or instructional strategies.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Sometimes	5	4.9	5	5
Frequently	28	27.5	28	33
Almost Always	66	64.7	67	100
Total	99	97.1	100	
Missing	3	2.9		
Total	102	100		
Existence of Practice				
Almost Never	5	4.9	5	5
Seldom	6	5.9	6	11
Sometimes	12	11.8	12	23
Frequently	23	22.5	23	46
Almost Always	54	52.9	54	100
Total	100	98.0	100	
Missing	2	2.0		
Total	102	100		

Table 4.21: Item Analysis for Female Respondents on Question 10 on the Sub-category of Instructional Improvement

Question 10: My observer frequently hears from teachers about the spirit of cooperation that exists in our school.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Almost Never	3	2.9	3	3
Seldom	2	2.0	2	5
Sometimes	20	19.6	21	26
Frequently	30	29.4	32	58
Almost Always	40	39.2	42	100
Total	95	93.1	100	
Missing	7	6.9		
Total	102	100		
Existence of Practice				
Almost Never	17	16.7	18	18
Seldom	13	12.7	13	31

Sometimes	32	31.4	33	64
Frequently	22	21.6	23	87
Almost				
Always	13	12.7	13	100
Total	97	95.1	100	
Missing	5	4.9		
Total	102	100		

Table 4.22: Item Analysis for Female Respondents on Question 11 on the Sub-category of Instructional Improvement

Question 11: My observer encourages me to clarify teaching strategies for my lesson.				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Seldom	1	1.0	1	1.0
Sometimes	15	14.7	15	15.8
Frequently	33	32.4	33	48.5
Almost				
Always	52	51.0	51	100
Total	101	99.0	100	
Missing	1	1.0		
Total	102	100		
Existence of the Practice				
Almost				
Never	9	8.8	9	9
Seldom	8	7.8	8	17
Sometimes	27	26.5	27	44
Frequently	23	22.5	23	68
Almost				
Always	32	31.4	32	100
Total	99	97.1	100	
Missing	3	2.9		
Total	102	100		

Table 4.23: Item Analysis for Female Respondents on Question 14 on the Sub-category of Instructional Improvement

Question 14: My observer encourages me to identify possible relationships between my particular teaching strategies and desired outcomes.				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Sometimes	13	12.7	13	13
Frequently	32	31.4	32	45
Almost	56	54.9	55	100

Always				
Total	101	99.0	100	
Missing	1	1.0		
Total	102	100		
Existence of Practice				
Almost				
Never	7	6.9	7	7
Seldom	10	9.8	10	17
Sometimes	26	25.5	26	43
Frequently	27	26.5	27	69
Almost				
Always	31	30.4	31	100
Total	101	99.0	100	
Missing	1	1.0		
Total	102	100		

Table 4.24: Item Analysis for Female Respondents on Question 16 on the sub-category of Instructional Improvement

Question 16: My observer encourages me to clarify student achievement assessment techniques to be used during my lesson.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Seldom	1	1.0	1	1
Sometimes	11	10.8	11	12
Frequently	40	39.2	40	51
Almost				
Always	49	48.0	49	100
Total	101	99.0	100	
Missing	1	1.0		
Total	102	100		
Existence of the Practice				
Almost				
Never	5	4.9	5	5
Seldom	11	10.8	11	16
Sometimes	25	24.5	25	41
Frequently	28	27.5	28	70
Almost				
Always	30	29.4	30	100
Total	99	97.1	100	
Missing	3	2.9		
Total	102	100		

Table 4.25: Item Analysis for Male Respondents on Question 6 on the Sub-category of Instructional Improvement

Question 6: My observer identifies educational resources needed to assist me in creating students' successes.				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Almost Never	1	1.6	2	2
Seldom	2	3.2	3	5
Sometimes	13	20.6	22	27
Frequently	20	31.7	33	60
Almost Always	24	38.1	40	100
Total	60	95.2	100	
Missing	3	4.8		
Total	63	100		
Existence of Practice				
Almost Never	7	11.1	11	11
Seldom	10	15.9	16	27
Sometimes	17	27.0	27	54
Frequently	15	23.8	24	78
Almost Always	14	22.2	22	100
Total	63	100	100	

Question 6 asked if the observer identified educational resources needed to assist the respondent in creating students' successes. Eighty-seven percent of male respondents indicated that this was an important aspect of classroom observation practices that promote instructional improvement. Twenty-seven percent of male respondents indicated that this seldom and almost never happened.

Question 10, Table 4.26 asked whether the observer heard from teachers about the spirit of cooperation that exists in their school. Eighty-eight percent of the male respondents indicated that this was important, but only 29% of male respondents indicated that this seldom or almost never occurred.

Table 4.26: Item Analysis for Male Respondents on Question 10 on the Sub-category of Instructional Improvement

Question 10: My observer frequently hears from teachers about the spirit of cooperation that exists in our school.				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Almost Never	2	3.2	3	3
Seldom	4	6.3	7	10
Sometimes	15	23.8	25	36
Frequently	19	30.2	32	68
Almost Always	19	30.2	32	100
Total	59	93.7	100	
Missing	4	6.3		
Total	63	100		
Existence of the Practice				
Almost Never	5	7.9	8	8
Seldom	9	14.3	15	23
Sometimes	20	31.7	33	57
Frequently	16	25.4	27	83
Almost Always	10	15.9	17	100
Total	60	95.2	100	
Missing	3	4.8		
Total	63	100		

Table 4.27: Independent Samples t-test – Instructional Improvement – Male / Female Comparison

Independent Samples Statistics and t-test										
	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Mean Difference	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)	
INSTIMPI	M	20	42.85	6.87	1.54					
	F	23	47.83	2.82	0.59	-4.98	-3.18	41	0.00	
INSTIMPE	M	21	38.14	7.59	1.66					
	F	22	38.91	9.79	2.09	-0.77	-0.29	41	0.78	

As shown in Table 4.27, female respondents reported a mean of 47.83 compared to a mean of 42.85 for males on the importance of classroom observation practices that lead to instructional improvement. The mean difference between males and females was 4.98. Female respondents indicated that the practices that lead to instructional

improvement are almost always important, whereas male respondents indicated that the practices are frequently important. The results of a *t*-test between the means for males and females on the importance of classroom observation practices that lead to instructional improvement indicated that there is statistical significance regarding the difference in attitudes between males and females in this domain. However, a *t*-test of means on the existence of the practice indicated that there was no statistical significance between males and females ($M=38.14$ (Males), $F=38.91$ (Females)).

An item analysis indicated that Questions 6 and 14 produced the greatest difference between males and females on the importance of the practice within the sub-category of Instructional Improvement. The items that created the greatest difference are presented in Tables 4.28 and 4.29, which show the frequency distribution for the male and female respondents on Questions 6 and 14.

Table 4.28: Item Analysis for Instructional Improvement – Male / Female Question 6

Question 6: My observer identifies educational resources needed to assist me in creating students' successes.					
Gender		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice					
Male	Almost Never	1	1.6	1.7	1.7
	Seldom	2	3.2	3.3	5.0
	Sometimes	13	20.6	21.7	26.7
	Frequently	20	31.7	33.3	60
	Almost Always	24	38.1	40	100
	Total	60	95.2	100	
	Missing	3	4.8		
	Total	63	100		
Female	Sometimes	11	10.8	11	11
	Frequently	36	35.3	36	47
	Almost Always	53	52.0	53	100
	Total	100	98.0	100	
	Missing	2	2.0		
	Total	102	100		

On Question 6, 87% of female respondents indicated that it is frequently and almost always important that observers “identify educational resources needed to assist me in creating students’ successes.” Only 69% of male respondents viewed this practice as almost always and frequently important. Twenty-seven percent of both male and female respondents indicated that the practice occurred seldom and almost never.

Table 4.29: Item Analysis for Instructional Improvement – Male / Female Question 14

Question 14: My observer encourages me to identify possible relationships between my particular teaching strategies and desired outcomes.					
Important of Practice					
Gender		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	Almost Never	1	1.6	1.7	1.7
	Seldom	2	3.2	3.4	5.2
	Sometimes	5	7.9	8.6	13.8
	Frequently	20	31.7	34.5	48.3
	Almost Always	30	47.6	51.7	100
	Total	58	92.1	100.0	
	Missing	5	7.9		
	Total	63	100.0		
Female	Sometimes	13	12.7	12.9	12.9
	Frequently	32	31.4	31.7	44.6
	Almost Always	56	54.9	55.4	100
	Total	101	99.0	100	
	Missing	1	1.0		
	Total	102	100		

Question 14 reveals that 99% of female respondents believe it is important for their observer to encourage them to identify possible relationships between their particular teaching strategies and desired outcomes. Eighty-seven percent of male respondents indicated that this was important to them. Nineteen percent of male respondents and seventeen percent of female respondents indicated that this practice occurred seldom and almost never.

Table 4.30: Independent Samples *t*-test – Instructional Improvement – Tenure (T) / Non-Tenure (NT) Comparison

Independent Samples Statistics and <i>t</i> -test									
	Current Position	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Mean Difference	<i>t</i>	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
INSTIMPI	T	27	45.63	6.09	1.17				
	NT	16	45.31	4.98	1.24	0.32	0.18	41	0.86
INSTIMPE	T	28	37.68	9.62	1.82				
	NT	15	40.13	6.64	1.72	-2.45	-0.88	41	0.38

On the sub-category of Instructional Improvement for both the importance and existence of practices that promote instructional improvement, Table 4.30 shows that the *t*-test indicated that there is no statistical significance between tenured and non-tenured teachers on this sub-category.

Table 4.31: Independent Samples *t*-test – Instructional Improvement – Content Specialist (CS) / Building Level Administrator (BLA) Comparison

Independent Samples Statistics and <i>t</i> -test									
	Position of Observer	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Mean Difference	<i>t</i>	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
INSTIMPI	CS	31	45.23	6.20	1.11				
	BLA	12	46.25	3.98	1.15	-1.02	-0.53	41	0.60
INSTIMPE	CS	31	38.42	9.03	1.62				
	BLA	12	38.83	8.12	2.34	-0.41	-0.14	41	0.89

On the sub-category of Instructional Improvement for both the importance and existence of practices that promote instructional improvement, Table 4.31 shows that the *t*-test indicated that there is no statistical significance when the observer is a content specialist or a building level administrator who may or may not have a specialty in the area of the teacher being observed on this sub-category.

Purpose

Table 4.32: Paired *t*-test Statistics: Purpose (Important and Existing) by Gender

Paired Samples Statistics - Purpose - Important and Existing						
Gender	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Paired Differences Mean	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Male						
(Important)	22.77		2.76			
(Existing)	20.32	22	5.19	2.45	2.50	0.02
Female						
(Important)	23.83		2.58			
(Existing)	21.33	24	5.17	2.50	2.41	0.02

On the sub-category of Purpose, Table 4.32, the result of the *t*-test between important and existing for males was: $t(22)=2.50$, $p<.02$. Male respondents reported that there was a mean of 22.77 for the importance of the practice and a mean of 20.32 for the existence of the practice. A mean of 25 indicates strong agreement that teachers feel that classroom observation practice is used to promote instructional improvement for the purpose of professional growth (formative) and for the purpose of teacher accountability. A mean of 5 would indicate strong disagreement. Female respondents reported that there was a mean of 23.83 for the importance of the practice and a mean of 21.33 for the existence of the practice. The result of the *t*-test between important and existing for females was: $t(24)=2.41$, $p<.02$.

Table 4.32 indicates that there was a significant difference between the important and existing classroom observation practices for both male and female respondents on the sub-category of Purpose. In both cases, the mean scores indicated that the respondents agreed that there was a clear purpose and they assigned a higher value to the level of importance. An item analysis demonstrated that Question 20 produced the greatest difference for female respondents; and Question 32 for male respondents.

Table 4.33: Item Analysis for Female Respondents on Question 20 on the Sub-category of Purpose

Question 20: My observer accepts responsibility for his/her actions.				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Sometimes	3	2.9	3	3
Frequently	16	15.7	16	19
Almost Always	81	79.4	81	100
Total	100	98.0	100	
Missing	2	2.0		
Total	102	100		
Existence of Practice				
Almost Never	9	8.8	9	9
Seldom	9	8.8	9	18
Sometimes	12	11.8	12	30
Frequently	19	18.6	19	49
Almost Always	50	49.0	51	100
Total	99	97.1	100	
Missing	3	2.9		
Total	102	100		

Question 20, Table 4.33, asked respondents whether their observer accepts responsibility for their actions. Ninety-eight percent of female respondents indicated that this was an important aspect of the classroom observation practices. Only 79% of female respondents indicated that this practice occurred sometimes, frequently, and almost always. Eighteen percent of female respondents revealed that this practice seldom and almost never occurred.

Question 32, Table 4.34, asked if respondents' observer focuses on their concerns by listening actively, reflectively, and empathetically. Ninety-two percent of male respondents indicated that this was an important aspect of classroom observation practices. Twenty-six percent of male respondents indicated that this practice happened sometimes, seldom, and almost never.

Table 4.34: Item Analysis for Male Respondents on Question 32 on the Sub-category of Purpose

Question 32: My observer focuses on my concerns by listening actively, reflectively, and empathetically.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Seldom	1	1.6	2	2
Sometimes	5	7.9	8	10
Frequently	19	30.2	32	42
Almost Always	34	54.0	58	100
Total	59	93.7	100	
Missing	4	6.3		
Total	63	100		
Existence of Practice				
Almost Never	2	3.2	3	3
Seldom	4	6.3	6	10
Sometimes	10	15.9	16	26
Frequently	18	28.6	29	55
Almost Always	28	44.4	45	100
Total	62	98.4	100	
Missing	1	1.6		
Total	63	100		

Table 4.35: Independent Samples *t*-test – Purpose – Male / Female Comparison

Independent Samples Statistics and <i>t</i> -test									
	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Mean Difference	<i>t</i>	df	Sig (2-tailed)
PURPI	M	22	22.77	2.76	0.59				
	F	24	23.83	2.58	0.53	-1.06	-1.35	44	0.18
PURPE	M	24	20.29	4.96	1.01				
	F	24	21.33	5.17	1.06	-1.04	-0.71	46	0.48

As shown in Table 4.35, female respondents reported a mean of 23.83 compared to a mean of 22.77 for males on the importance of classroom observation practices that promote their professional growth. The mean difference between males and females was 1.06. Both female and male respondents indicated that the practices that promote their professional growth are almost always important. The results of a *t*-test between the

means for males and females on the importance of classroom observation practices that promote their professional growth yielded no statistical significance regarding the difference in attitudes between males and females on this sub-category. Both male and female respondents indicated that the existence of practices that promote their professional growth frequently occurs. A *t*-test on this domain between male and female attitudes toward the existence of practices that promote their professional growth yielded no statistical significance.

Table 4.36: Independent Samples *t*-test – Purpose – Tenure (T) / Non-Tenure (NT) Comparison

Independent Samples Statistics and <i>t</i> -test									
	Current Position	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Mean Difference	<i>t</i>	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
PURPI	T	30	23.60	2.90	0.53				
	NT	16	22.81	2.26	0.56	0.79	0.94	44	0.79
PURPE	T	32	20.53	5.73	1.01				
	NT	16	21.38	3.36	0.84	-0.84	-0.54	46	-0.84

On the sub-category of Purpose, Table 4.36, for both the importance and existence of the practice, the *t*-test indicated that there is no statistical significance between tenured and non-tenured teachers on this sub-category.

Table 4.37: Independent Samples *t*-test – Purpose – Content Specialist (CS) / Building Level Administrator (BLA) Comparison

Independent Samples Statistics and <i>t</i> -test									
	Position of Observer	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Mean Difference	<i>t</i>	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
PURPI	CS	34	23.21	3.00	0.51				
	BLA	12	23.67	1.56	0.45	-0.46	-0.51	44	0.62
PURPE	CS	36	20.86	5.14	0.86				
	BLA	12	20.67	4.96	1.43	0.19	0.11	46	0.91

On the sub-category of Purpose, Table 4.37, for both the importance and existence of the practice, the *t*-test indicated that there is no statistical significance when the observer is a content specialist or a building level administrator who may or may not have a specialty in the area of the teacher being observed on this sub-category.

Professional Trust

Table 4.38: Paired t-test Statistics: Professional Trust (Important and Existing) by Gender

Paired Samples Statistics - Professional Trust - Important and Existing						
Gender	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Paired Differences Mean	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Male						
(Important)	21.20		3.99			
(Existing)	20.70	20	3.31	0.50	0.83	0.42
Female						
(Important)	23.29		1.46			
(Existing)	21.08	24	4.60	2.21	2.71	0.01

On the sub-scale of Professional Trust, Table 4.38, the results of the *t*-test between important and existing for males was: $t(20)=0.83$, $p<.42$. Male respondents reported that there was a mean of 21.20 for the importance of the practice and a mean of 20.70 for the existence of the practice. A mean of 25 indicates strong agreement that teachers feel that their observers can be trusted to respond to them with praise, are accepting of their ideas, and show interest in them as individuals beyond the role as their supervisor. A mean of 5 would indicate strong disagreement. Female respondents reported that there was a mean of 23.29 for the importance of the practice and a mean of 21.08 for the existence of the practice. The result of the *t*-test between important and existing for females was: $t(24)=2.71$, $p<.01$.

Table 4.38 shows that there was a significant difference between the important and existing classroom observation practices on the sub-category of Professional Trust

for female respondents. The mean was slightly lower for the existence of the practice than the importance of the practice. An item analysis demonstrated that Questions 12, 13, 21, and 24 produced the greatest difference for female respondents. The possible range of scores for Professional Trust, important and existing practice, was between 5 and 25. The mean score for the importance of the practice was 23.29 and 21.08 for the existence of the practice for female respondents. An item analysis for the questions that provided the greatest differences is provided in Tables 4.39 – 4.43, which shows the frequency distribution for the female respondents on each item.

Table 4.39: Item Analysis for Female Respondents on Question 12 on the Sub-category of Professional Trust

Question 12: My observer responds frequently to me in the form of praise.				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Sometimes	13	12.7	13	13
Frequently	34	33.3	34	47
Almost Always	54	52.9	53	100
Total	101	99.0	100	
Missing	1	1.0		
Total	102	100		
Existence of Practice				
Almost Never	6	5.9	6	6
Seldom	3	2.9	3	9
Sometimes	18	17.6	18	27
Frequently	35	34.3	35	61
Almost Always	39	38.2	39	100
Total	101	99.0	100	
Missing	1	1.0		
Total	102	100		

Question 12 asked female respondents if their observer responds to them in the form of praise. Ninety-nine percent of female respondents indicated that it is important for their observer to respond to them in the form of praise. Twenty-six percent of female

respondents, however, indicated that this sometimes, seldom, and almost never occurs in their current classroom observation practices.

Table 4.40: Item Analysis for Female Respondents on Question 13 on the Sub-category of Professional Trust

Question 13: My observer maintains confidentiality.				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Frequently	10	9.8	10	10
Almost Always	90	88.2	90	100
Total	100	98.0	100	
Missing	2	2.0		
Total	102	100		
Existence of Practice				
Almost Never	5	4.9	5	5
Seldom	4	3.9	4	9
Sometimes	7	6.9	7	16
Frequently	21	20.6	21	37
Almost Always	62	60.8	63	100
Total	99	97.1	100	
Missing	3	2.9		
Total	102	100		

Ninety-eight percent of female respondents indicated in Question 13 that it is important for their observer to maintain confidentiality. Eighty-one percent indicated that this almost always and frequently occurs, while 16 percent indicated that it happens sometimes, seldom and almost never.

Question 21 asked female respondents if their observer generally spoke positively about supervision. Ninety-five percent indicated that this was an important aspect of classroom observation practices that promote professional trust, while 86% indicated that their observer spoke positively about supervision almost always, frequently and sometimes.

Question 24 asked if respondents' observer exhibited an interest in them as an individual beyond their role as a supervisor. Ninety percent indicated that this was important; twenty-one percent indicated that it existed seldom and almost never.

Table 4.41: Item Analysis for Female Respondents on Question 21 on the Sub-category of Professional Trust

Question 21: My observer generally speaks positively about supervision.				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Almost Never	1	1.0	1	1
Seldom	1	1.0	1	2
Sometimes	17	16.7	17	19
Frequently	34	33.3	34	54
Almost Always	46	45.1	46	100
Total	99	97.1	100	
Missing	3	2.9		
Total	102	100		
Existence of Practice				
Almost Never	5	4.9	5	5
Seldom	5	4.9	5	10
Sometimes	14	13.7	14	24
Frequently	25	24.5	26	50
Almost Always	49	48.0	50	100
Total	98	96.1	100	
Missing	4	3.9		
Total	102	100		

Table 4.42: Item Analysis for Female Respondents on Question 24 on the Sub-category of Professional Trust

Question 24: My observer exhibits an interest in me as an individual beyond his/her role as my supervisor.				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Almost Never	2	2.0	2	2
Seldom	5	4.9	5	7
Sometimes	19	18.6	19	26
Frequently	28	27.5	28	55
Almost Always	45	44.1	45	100
Total	99	97.1	100	
Missing	3	2.9		
Total	102	100		
Existence of Practice				

Almost Never	8	7.8	8	8
Seldom	13	12.7	13	21
Sometimes	22	21.6	22	43
Frequently	17	16.7	17	61
Almost Always	39	38.2	39	100
Total	99	97.1	100	
Missing	3	2.9		
Total	102	100		

As shown in Table 4.43, female respondents reported a mean of 23.29 compared to a mean of 21.20 for males on the importance of classroom observation practices that lead to a trusting relationship between the teacher and observer. The mean difference between males and females was 2.39. Female respondents indicated that the practices that lead to a trusting relationship are almost always important, whereas male respondents indicated that the practices are frequently important. The results of a *t*-test between the means for male and female respondents on the importance of classroom observation practices that lead to a trusting relationship between the teacher and observer indicated that there is statistical significance regarding the difference in attitudes between males and females on this sub-category. However, a *t*-test of means on the existence of the practice indicate that there is no statistical significance between males and females

Table 4.43: Independent Samples *t*-test – Professional Trust – Male / Female Comparison

Independent Samples Statistics and <i>t</i> -test									
	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Mean Difference	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
TRUSTI	M	20	21.20	3.99	0.89				
	F	24	23.29	1.46	0.30	-2.09	-2.39	42	0.02
TRUSTE	M	22	20.64	3.17	0.68				
	F	24	21.08	4.60	0.94	-0.45	-0.38	44	0.71

(M=20.64 Males, M=21.08 Females). An item analysis indicated that Question 13 produced the greatest difference between males and females on the importance of the practice on the sub-category of Professional Trust.

Table 4.44: Item Analysis for Professional Trust – Male / Female Question 13

Question 13: My observer maintains confidentiality.					
Gender		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
	Importance of Practice				
Male	Seldom	1	1.6	2	2
	Sometimes	2	3.2	3	5
	Frequently	9	14.3	15	20
	Almost Always	47	74.6	80	100
	Total	59	93.7	100	
	Missing	4	6.3		
	Total	63	100		
Female	Frequently	10	9.8	10	10
	Almost Always	90	88.2	90	100
	Total	100	98.0	100	
	Missing	2	2.0		
	Total	102	100		

Table 4.44 presents the frequency distribution for male and female respondents on Question 13 which asked if respondents' observer maintained confidentiality. Ninety-eight percent of female respondents indicated that this practice is an important aspect of professional trust. Conversely, 89% of male respondents considered this aspect of their classroom observation practice as important. Further analysis of the responses by both male and females indicated that 92% of males indicated that the practice does exist, while only 81% of females indicated the same.

On the sub-category of Professional Trust, Table 4.45, for both the importance and existence of the practice, the *t*-test indicated that there is no statistical significance between tenured and non-tenured teachers on this sub-category.

Table 4.45: Independent Samples *t*-test – Professional Trust – Tenure (T) / Non-Tenure (NT) Comparison

Independent Samples Statistics and <i>t</i> -test									
	Current Position	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Mean Difference	<i>t</i>	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
TRUSTI	T	28	22.64	2.83	0.54				
	NT	16	21.81	3.43	0.86	0.83	0.87	42	0.39
TRUSTE	T	30	20.70	4.24	0.77				
	NT	16	21.19	3.41	0.85	-0.49	-0.40	44	0.69

On the sub-category of Professional Trust, Table 4.46, for both the importance and existence of the practice, the *t*-test indicated that there is no statistical significance when the observer is a content specialist or a building level administrator who may or may not have a specialty in the area of the teacher being observed on this sub-category.

Table 4.46: Independent Samples *t*-test – Professional Trust – Content Specialist (CS) / Building Level Administrator (BLA) Comparison

Independent Samples Statistics and <i>t</i> -test									
	Position of Observer	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Mean Difference	<i>t</i>	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
TRUSTI	CS	33	22.12	3.31	0.58				
	BLA	11	23.00	2.05	0.62	-0.88	-0.82	42	0.41
TRUSTE	CS	35	20.91	4.15	0.70				
	BLA	11	20.73	3.35	1.01	0.19	0.14	44	0.89

Reflective Thinking

Table 4.47: Paired *t*-test Statistics: Reflective Thinking (Important and Existing) by Gender

Paired Samples Statistics - Reflective Thinking - Important & Existing						
Gender	Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Paired Differences Mean	<i>t</i>	Sig. (2-tailed)
Male						
(Important)	33.52		4.23			
(Existing)	28.47	21.00	8.18	5.05	3.48	0.00
Female						
(Important)	35.00		5.18			
(Existing)	29.08	24.00	9.6	5.92	3.02	0.01

On the sub-category of Reflective Thinking, Table 4.47, the results of the *t*-test between important and existing for males was: $t(21)=3.48$, $p<.00$. Male respondents reported that there was a mean of 33.52 for the importance of the practice and a mean of 28.47 for the existence of the practice. A mean of 40 indicates strong agreement that teachers feel that their observer promotes reflective thinking through classroom observation practices currently in place at their school. A mean of 8 would indicate strong disagreement. Female respondents reported that there was a mean of 35 for the importance of the practice and a mean of 29.08 for the existence of the practice. The results of the *t*-test between important and existing for females was: $t(24)=3.02$, $p<.01$.

Table 4.47 indicates that there was a significant difference between the important and existing classroom observation practices for both males and females on the sub-category of Reflective Thinking. In both cases, the mean was lower for existence of the practice. Male and female respondents indicated that the practices that promote reflective thinking are almost always important; however, those practices occurred less than frequently for both male and female respondents. An item analysis demonstrated that Questions 27, 29, 30, 31, 33, 34 and 35 produced the greatest difference for female respondents; and Questions 27, 29, 30, 31, 34 and 35 for male respondents. The possible range of scores for Reflective Thinking, important and existing, was between 8 and 40. The mean score for the importance of the practice was 35 and 29.08 for the existence of the practice for female respondents. An item analysis for the questions that demonstrated the greatest differences is provided in Tables 4.48 through 4.53, which shows the frequency distribution for the female respondents on each item.

Table 4.48: Item Analysis for Female Respondents on Question 27 on the Sub-category of Reflective Thinking

Question 27: My observer encourages me to compare what I planned for my lessons with how the lesson actually went.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Seldom	2	2.0	2	2
Sometimes	8	7.8	8	10
Frequently	25	24.5	25	35
Almost Always	65	63.7	65	100
Total	100	98.0	100	
Missing	2	2.0		
Total	102	100		
Existence of Practice				
Almost Never	8	7.8	8	8
Seldom	6	5.9	6	14
Sometimes	19	18.6	19	33
Frequently	25	24.5	25	57
Almost Always	43	42.2	43	100
Total	101	99.0	100	
Missing	1	1.0		
Total	102	100		

Question 27 asked female respondents if their observer encouraged them to compare what they planned for the lesson and how the lesson actually went. Ninety-six percent of female respondents indicated that this was an important aspect of classroom observation practices that promote reflective thinking. However, only 67% of female respondents indicated that this practice occurred frequently and almost always. One-third of respondents indicate that the practice only occurs sometimes, seldom, and almost never.

Question 29 inquired as to whether the observer encouraged the respondents to infer relationships between their decisions and student achievement during the lesson. Ninety percent of female respondents indicated that this was important, while only 46% indicated that it happened frequently and almost always.

Table 4.49: Item Analysis for Female Respondents on Question 29 on the Sub-category of Reflective Thinking

Question 29: My observer encourages me to infer relationships between my decisions and student achievement during my lesson.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Almost Never	2	2.0	2	2
Seldom	4	3.9	4	6
Sometimes	22	21.6	23	29
Frequently	29	28.4	30	59
Almost Always	40	39.2	41	100
Total	97	95.1	100	
Missing	5	4.9		
Total	102	100		
Existence of Practice				
Almost Never	15	14.7	15	15
Seldom	10	9.8	10	26
Sometimes	26	25.5	27	52
Frequently	19	18.6	19	71
Almost Always	28	27.5	29	100
Total	98	96.1	100	
Missing	4	3.9		
Total	102	100		

Table 4.50: Item Analysis for Female Respondents on Question 30 on the Sub-category of Reflective Thinking

Question 30: My observer is continually examining ways to improve his/her observation performance.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Almost Never	1	1.0	1	1
Seldom	4	3.9	4	5
Sometimes	16	15.7	17	22
Frequently	33	32.4	35	57
Almost Always	41	40.2	43	100
Total	95	93.1	100	
Missing	7	6.9		
Total	102	100		
Existence of Practice				
Almost Never	20	19.6	21	21
Seldom	12	11.8	13	33
Sometimes	26	25.5	27	60
Frequently	18	17.6	19	79
Almost Always	20	19.6	21	100

Total	96	94.1	100
Missing	6	5.9	
Total	102	100	

Question 30 asked respondents if they believed that their observer was continually examining ways to improve their observation performance. Eighty-nine percent of female respondents indicated that this was important, but only 37% indicated that it happened frequently and almost always. Almost 20% reported that it almost never occurred.

Table 4.51: Item Analysis for Female Respondents on Question 31 on the Sub-category of Reflective Thinking

Question 31: My observer rephrases, paraphrases, translates, and/or summarizes my ideas.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Almost Never	3	2.9	3	3
Seldom	4	3.9	4	7
Sometimes	25	24.5	26	33
Frequently	34	33.3	35	67
Almost Always	32	31.4	33	100
Total	98	96.1	100	
Missing	4	3.9		
Total	102	100		
Existence of Practice				
Almost Never	12	11.8	12	12
Seldom	9	8.8	9	21
Sometimes	21	20.6	21	42
Frequently	27	26.5	27	70
Almost Always	30	29.4	30	100
Total	99	97.1	100	
Missing	3	2.9		
Total	102	100		

Question 31 asked respondents if their observer rephrased, paraphrased, translated and/or summarized their ideas. Ninety percent of female respondents indicated that this

was sometimes, frequently, and almost always important. Fifty-six percent of female respondents indicated that this practice only occurred frequently and almost always.

Table 4.52: Item Analysis for Female Respondents on Question 33 on the Sub-category of Reflective Thinking

Question 33: My observer encourages me to recall student and teacher behavior during my formal observation.				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Almost Never	2	2.0	2	2
Seldom	2	2.0	2	4
Sometimes	13	12.7	13	17
Frequently	43	42.2	43	61
Almost Always	39	38.2	39	100
Total	99	97.1	100	
Missing	3	2.9		
Total	102	100		
Existence of Practice				
Almost Never	10	9.8	10	10
Seldom	10	9.8	10	20
Sometimes	21	20.6	21	41
Frequently	26	25.5	26	68
Almost Always	32	31.4	32	100
Total	99	97.1	100	
Missing	3	2.9		
Total	102	100		

Question 33 asked respondents if their observer encouraged them to recall student and teacher behavior during the formal observation. Eighty percent of female respondents indicated that this practice is frequently and almost always important. However, only 57% of female respondents indicated that it occurred frequently and almost always. Forty percent indicated that it occurred sometimes, seldom, and almost never.

Table 4.53: Item Analysis for Female Respondents on Question 34 on the Sub-category of Reflective Thinking.

Question 34: My observer encourages me to observe my colleagues' teaching style.				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Almost Never	9	8.8	9	9
Seldom	4	3.9	4	13
Sometimes	16	15.7	16	29
Frequently	28	27.5	28	58
Almost Always	42	41.2	42	100
Total	99	97.1	100	
Missing	3	2.9		
Total	102	100		
Existence of Practice				
Almost Never	31	30.4	31	31
Seldom	14	13.7	14	45
Sometimes	17	16.7	17	62
Frequently	17	16.7	17	79
Almost Always	21	20.6	21	100
Total	100	98.0	100	
Missing	2	2.0		
Total	102	100		

Question 34 asked if the observer encouraged respondents to observe their colleagues' teaching style. Sixty-nine percent indicated that this is important, but only 37% indicated that it happened frequently and almost always. Question 35 asked if the observer helped the respondent to clarify instructional strategies. Seventy-nine percent indicated that this was important, while only 52% reported that it frequently and almost always occurred.

The possible range of scores for Reflective Thinking, important and existing, was between 8 and 40. The mean score for the importance of the practice was 33.52 and 28.47 for the existence of the practice for male respondents. An item analysis for the questions that demonstrated the greatest differences is provided in Tables 4.54 through 4.59, which shows the frequency distribution for the male respondents on each item.

Table 4.54: Item Analysis for Male Respondents on Question 27 on the Sub-category of Reflective Thinking

Question 27: My observer encourages me to compare what I planned for my lessons with how the lesson actually went.				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Sometimes	8	12.7	14	14
Frequently	21	33.3	36	49
Almost Always	30	47.6	51	100
Total	59	93.7	100	
Missing	4	6.3		
Total	63	100		
Existence of Practice				
Almost Never	5	7.9	8	8
Seldom	3	4.8	5	13
Sometimes	19	30.2	31	44
Frequently	16	25.4	26	70
Almost Always	18	28.6	30	100
Total	61	96.8	100	
Missing	2	3.2		
Total	63	100		

Question 27 asked respondents if their observer encouraged them to compare what they planned for their lesson with how the lesson actually went. Eighty-one percent of male respondents indicated that this was an important aspect of classroom observation practices that promoted reflective thinking. Only 54% of male respondents indicated that the practice occurred frequently and almost always.

Question 29 asked male respondents whether their observer encouraged them to infer relationships between their decisions and student achievement during the lesson.

Seventy-five percent of male respondents indicated that this was important, while 62% indicated that it occurred frequently and almost always.

Table 4.55: Item Analysis for Male Respondents on Question 29 on the Sub-category of Reflective Thinking

Question 29: My observer encourages me to infer relationships between my decisions and student achievement during my lesson.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Almost Never	1	1.6	2	2
Seldom	3	4.8	5	7
Sometimes	8	12.7	14	20
Frequently	18	28.6	31	51
Almost Always	29	46.0	49	100
Total	59	93.7	100	
Missing	4	6.3		
Total	63	100		
Existence of Practice				
Almost Never	4	6.3	6	6
Seldom	9	14.3	15	21
Sometimes	10	15.9	16	37
Frequently	17	27.0	27	65
Almost Always	22	34.9	35	100
Total	62	98.4	100	
Missing	1	1.6		
Total	63	100		

Table 4.56: Item Analysis for Male Respondents on Question 30 on the Sub-category of Reflective Thinking

Question 30: My observer is continually examining ways to improve his/her observation performance.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Almost Never	1	1.6	2	2
Seldom	1	1.6	2	3
Sometimes	10	15.9	17	21
Frequently	23	36.5	40	60
Almost Always	23	36.5	40	100
Total	58	92.1	100	
Missing	5	7.9		
Total	63	100		
Existence of Practice				
Almost Never	10	15.9	17	17
Seldom	6	9.5	10	27
Sometimes	14	22.2	24	51
Frequently	18	28.6	31	81
Almost Always	11	17.5	19	100
Total	59	93.7	100	
Missing	4	6.3		
Total	63	100		

Question 30 inquired whether respondents' observer continually examined ways to improve their observation performance. Seventy-three percent of male respondents indicated that this was important in promoting reflective thinking, but only 46% indicated that it occurred frequently and almost always.

Table 4.57: Item Analysis for Male Respondents on Question 31 on the Sub-category of Reflective Thinking

Question 31: My observer rephrases, paraphrases, translates, and/or summarizes my ideas.				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Almost Never	1	1.6	2	2
Seldom	2	3.2	4	5
Sometimes	14	22.2	25	30
Frequently	17	27.0	30	60
Almost Always	23	36.5	40	100
Total	57	90.5	100	
Missing	6	9.5		
Total	63	100		
Existence of Practice				
Almost Never	5	7.9	8	8
Seldom	7	11.1	12	20
Sometimes	13	20.6	22	42
Frequently	20	31.7	33	75
Almost Always	15	23.8	25	100
Total	60	95.2	100	
Missing	3	4.8		
Total	63	100		

Question 31 asked if the observer rephrased, paraphrased, translated, and/or summarized the ideas of the respondent. Sixty-four percent indicated this was important, but 56% of male respondents indicated that it frequently and almost always occurred.

Table 4.58: Item Analysis for Male Respondents on Question 34 on the Sub-category of Reflective Thinking

Question 34: My observer encourages me to observe my colleagues' teaching style.				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Almost Never	4	6.3	7	7
Seldom	3	4.8	5	12
Sometimes	17	27.0	29	41
Frequently	16	25.4	27	68
Almost Always	19	30.2	32	100
Total	59	93.7	100	
Missing	4	6.3		
Total	63	100		
Existence of Practice				
Almost Never	9	14.3	15	15
Seldom	12	19.0	20	34
Sometimes	14	22.2	23	57
Frequently	15	23.8	25	82
Almost Always	11	17.5	18	100
Total	61	96.8	100	
Missing	2	3.2		
Total	63	100		

Question 34 asked respondents if the observer encouraged them to observe their colleagues' teaching style. Fifty-six percent of male respondents indicated that this is an important aspect of classroom observation practices that promotes reflective thinking. Forty-one percent of male respondents indicated that this only occurred frequently and almost always. One-third of male respondents indicated that their observer seldom and almost never encouraged them to observe their colleagues' teaching style.

Table 4.59: Item Analysis for Male Respondents on Question 35 on the Sub-category of Reflective Thinking

Question 35: My observer helps me clarify my instructional strategies.				
	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Importance of Practice				
Almost Never	2	3.2	3	3
Seldom	1	1.6	2	5
Sometimes	10	15.9	17	22
Frequently	20	31.7	34	57
Almost Always	25	39.7	43	100
Total	58	92.1	100	
Missing	5	7.9		
Total	63	100		
Existence of Practice				
Almost Never	6	9.5	10	10
Seldom	7	11.1	11	21
Sometimes	9	14.3	15	36
Frequently	18	28.6	30	66
Almost Always	21	33.3	34	100
Total	61	96.8	100	
Missing	2	3.2		
Total	63	100		

Question 35 asked if the observer helped to clarify instructional strategies.

Seventy-one percent of the male respondents indicated that this is an important aspect of their classroom observation practices that promoted reflective thinking. Only 62% of male respondents indicated that this practice occurred frequently and almost always.

Table 4.60: Independent Samples t-test – Reflective Thinking – Male / Female Comparison

Independent Samples Statistics and <i>t</i> -test									
	Gender	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Mean Difference	t	df	Sig (2-tailed)
REFLECTI	M	21	33.14	4.23	0.92				
	F	24	35.00	4.86	0.99	-1.48	-1.04	43	0.31
REFLECTE	M	23	28.30	8.06	1.68				
	F	24	29.08	9.6	1.75	-0.78	-0.30	45	0.77

Female respondents reported a mean of 35.00 compared to a mean of 33.14 for males on the importance of classroom observation practices that encourage reflective thinking for the purpose of teachers improving their effectiveness. The mean difference between males and females was 2.07. Both female and male respondents indicated that practices that promote reflective thinking are frequently important. The results of a *t*-test between the means for males and females on the importance of classroom observation practices that encourage reflective thinking revealed no statistical significance regarding the difference in attitudes between males and females on this domain. A *t*-test of means on the existence of the practices that promote reflective thinking also indicated no statistical significance between male and female respondents on this sub-category.

Table 4.61: Independent Samples t-test – Reflective Thinking – Tenure (T) / Non-Tenure (NT) Comparison

Independent Samples Statistics and <i>t</i> -test									
	Current Position	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Mean Difference	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
REFLECTI	T	29	34.28	5.11	0.94				
	NT	16	34.28	4.22	1.06	-0.01	-0.07	43	0.95
REFLECTE	T	31	28.19	9.50	1.70				
	NT	16	29.69	7.42	1.85	-1.49	-0.55	45	0.59

On the sub-category of Reflective Thinking, Table 4.61, for both the importance and existence of the practice, the *t*-test indicated that there is no statistical significance between tenured and non-tenured teachers on this sub-category.

On the sub-category of Reflective Thinking, Table 4.62, for both the importance and existence of the practice, the *t*-test indicated that there is no statistical significance when the observer is a content specialist or a building level administrator who may or may not have a specialty in the area of the teacher being observed on this sub-category.

Table 4.62: Independent Samples t-test – Reflective Thinking – Content Specialist (CS) / Building Level Administrator (BLA) Comparison

Independent Samples Statistics and t-test									
	Position of Observer	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	Mean Difference	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
REFLECTI	CS	33	33.88	5.00	0.87				
	BLA	12	35.50	4.00	1.15	-1.62	-1.01	43	0.32
REFLECTE	CS	35	28.91	8.72	1.47				
	BLA	12	28.08	9.37	2.70	0.83	0.28	45	0.78

Research Question 3

The third research question asks, “Is there a relationship among teacher attitudes towards the importance and existence of classroom observation practices and the years of teacher experience?” A 9 x 9 correlation matrix was utilized to identify significant relationships between years of teaching experience and teacher attitudes towards supervisory behavior in the sub-categories of Instructional Improvement, Purpose, Professional Trust, and Reflective Thinking.

Table 4.63: Correlation Matrix for Years of Teacher Experience

Correlations									
Person Correlation	YTE	INSTIMPI	INSTIMPE	PURPI	PURPE	TRUSTI	TRUSTE	REFLECTI	REFLECTE
YTE	1.00	-0.06	-0.07	-0.01	0.05	0.00	0.04	-0.16	-0.10
INSTIMPI		1.00	0.41	0.39	0.23	0.44	0.29	0.60	0.31
INSTIMPE			1.00	0.34	0.74	0.41	0.68	0.32	0.85
PURPI				1.00	0.45	0.51	0.34	0.50	0.33
PURPE					1.00	0.47	0.85	0.22	0.72
TRUSTI						1.00	0.57	0.49	0.49
TRUSTE							1.00	0.24	0.69
REFLECTI								1.00	0.45
REFLECTE									1.00

A comparison of years of teaching experience, Table 4.63, indicates that there is no significant correlation between years of teaching experience and the important and existing classroom observation practices that promote teacher effectiveness. The respondents report that there is a small negative relationship between years of teaching

experience and Reflective Thinking, Instructional Improvement, and Purpose for the dimension of importance.

The correlation matrix also reveals that the existing practice of Instructional Improvement is strongly correlated to the existing practices of Professional Trust, Reflective Thinking, and Purpose. Instructional Improvement accounted for 55% of the variance in Trust, 72% of the variance in Reflective Thinking, and 55% of the variance in Purpose of the observation.

Research Question Four

The fourth research question asked, “How do teacher attitudes towards the existence of reflective thinking and purpose of classroom observation practices, modified by the existence of trust, predict the existence of instructional improvement practices?”

Table 4.64: Regression Model of Professional Trust, Reflective Thinking, and Purpose

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	R Square Change	Sig. F Change
Professional Trust	0.689	0.475	0.471	6.261	0.475	0.000
Reflective Thinking	0.866	0.749	0.745	4.344	0.274	0.000
Purpose	0.878	0.770	0.765	4.176	0.021	0.001

Table 4.64 indicates that Professional Trust predicted 48 percent of the variance in instructional improvement among teachers. Reflective Thinking and Purpose predicted an additional 27 percent and 2 percent of the variance in instructional improvement respectively.

Research Question Five

The fifth research question asked, “To what extent is there a difference in teacher attitudes toward existing classroom observation practices when the observer is a content

specialist (in their field of math, social studies, science, or English) or a building level administrator?”

Table 4.65: One-Way Analysis of Variance on Teacher Attitudes when the Observer is a Content Specialist Versus a Building Level Administrator

One-Way Analysis of Variance						
		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
INSTIMPI	Between Groups	58.31	4	14.58	0.55	0.70
	Within Groups	3678.52	138	26.66		
	Total	3736.83	142			
INSTIMPE	Between Groups	742.77	4	185.69	2.39	0.05
	Within Groups	10733.89	138	77.78		
	Total	11476.66	142			
PURPI	Between Groups	30.85	4	7.71	1.40	0.24
	Within Groups	816.69	148	5.52		
	Total	847.54	152			
PURPE	Between Groups	159.42	4	39.86	1.70	0.15
	Within Groups	3542.48	151	23.46		
	Total	3701.90	155			
TRUSTI	Between Groups	25.55	4	6.39	0.96	0.43
	Within Groups	964.61	145	6.65		
	Total	990.16	149			
TRUSTE	Between Groups	92.30	4	23.07	1.61	0.18
	Within Groups	2084.24	145	14.37		
	Total	2176.54	149			
REFLECTI	Between Groups	110.84	4	27.71	1.11	0.36
	Within Groups	3559.82	142	25.07		
	Total	3670.67	146			
REFLECTE	Between Groups	474.53	4	118.63	1.89	0.12
	Within Groups	8916.50	142	62.79		
	Total	9391.03	146			

A one-way analysis of variance, Table 4.65, was conducted to determine whether there was a significant difference in teacher attitudes on the four dimensions of instructional improvement, purpose, professional trust, and reflective thinking when the primary observer is either a content specialist in their area—math, social studies, science, English—or a building level administrator. The analysis of variance indicates that there was statistical significance on the sub-category of Instructional Improvement (existing

practice): $F(4,138) = 2.39, p = .05$. A follow-up test was conducted to evaluate the differences among the means of each type of observer, Table 4.66.

Table 4.66: Post hoc Scheffe Analysis between Types of Observers

Multiple Comparisons – Scheffe							
Dependent Variable	(I) Primary Observer	(J) Primary Observer	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
INSTIMPE	English	Math	0.29	2.32	1.00	-6.95	7.52
		Science	6.37	2.59	0.20	-1.71	14.44
		Social Studies	1.45	2.55	0.99	-6.50	9.40
		Building Admin	4.07	2.07	0.43	-2.40	10.53
	Math	English	-0.29	2.32	1.00	-7.52	6.95
		Science	6.08	2.62	0.26	-2.10	14.27
		Social Studies	1.16	2.58	1.00	-6.90	9.23
		Building Admin	3.78	2.11	0.53	-2.82	10.38
	Science	English	-6.37	2.59	0.20	-14.44	1.71
		Math	-6.08	2.62	0.26	-14.27	2.10
		Social Studies	-4.92	2.83	0.55	-13.74	3.90
		Building Admin	-2.30	2.41	0.92	-9.81	5.21
	Social Studies	English	-1.45	2.55	0.99	-9.40	6.50
		Math	-1.16	2.58	1.00	-9.23	6.90
		Science	4.92	2.83	0.55	-3.90	13.74
		Building Admin	2.62	2.36	0.87	-4.76	9.99
	Building Admin	English	-4.07	2.07	0.43	-10.53	2.40
		Math	-3.78	2.11	0.53	-10.38	2.82
		Science	2.30	2.41	0.92	-5.21	9.81
		Social Studies	-2.62	2.36	0.87	-9.99	4.76

A *post hoc* Scheffe was performed to determine statistical significance between the types of observers. Table 4.66 reveals that there were no statistically significant differences among groups on the sub-category of Instructional Improvement when they are compared individually, although the science supervisor tended to receive lower mean scores from their teachers than English, math, or social studies supervisors received.

Summary

Teachers indicated that instructional improvement, purpose, professional trust, and reflective thinking are important aspects of classroom observation practices that promote their effectiveness. However, the teachers in this study indicated on each sub-category that the level of the existing practice was marginal in current observation practices that promote their effectiveness.

On each of the sub-categories, for both male and female respondents, there was some tension between what they saw as important classroom observation practices and what was actually happening in their current practice. Further analysis between male and female respondents, however, indicated that they did not always agree on the items that actually created the tension. For example, female respondents indicated that their observer expressing feelings honestly was very important, but in actual practice was done infrequently. Male respondents, on the other hand, did not seem to find this aspect of their classroom observation practice as important as their female counterparts.

In a comparison between tenured and non-tenured teachers, the respondents in this study did not indicate any significant differences between important and existing classroom observation practices. In an analysis based on the expertise of the supervisor, the respondents once again did not indicate any significant differences. Respondents in this study also did not indicate any significant correlation on each sub-category, important and existing practices, with years of teaching expertise.

The study revealed that the sub-categories of professional trust, Reflective Thinking, and Purpose contribute to instructional improvement in a meaningful way. In other words, the respondents indicated that when an atmosphere of professional trust

exists, and their observer engages them in reflective thinking through their questioning techniques and the purpose of classroom observation practices is clear and unambiguous, instructional improvement does occur.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to assess how secondary teachers in selected Long Island public schools differed in their attitudes toward the importance and existence of classroom observation practices on four dimensions: instructional improvement, purpose, professional trust, and reflective thinking.

The participants in this study were limited to five school districts located in Suffolk and Nassau counties in Long Island, New York. The districts purported to use a clinical form of classroom observation as a tool to improve the delivery of instruction. The survey instrument was delivered to 405 secondary teachers at both the middle and high schools in the selected districts. Approximately 165 secondary math, social studies, science, and English teachers completed the survey for a return rate of 41%.

Research Summary

Of the 165 respondents, 102 (62%) were female and 63 (38%) were male. Thirty-nine of the male respondents and 51 of the female respondents indicated that they were assigned to a high school, while 23 males and 49 females indicated that they were assigned to a middle school. The median years of experience reported was nine years. Of the total respondents, 52 (32%) were non-tenured, while 113 (69%) were tenured teachers. One hundred and forty-one (86%) of the respondents reported that they were Caucasian, 5 (3%) African-American, 5 (3%) Latino, 3 (1.8%) Asian, 1 (.6 %) Native-

American, and 6 (3.6) indicated “Other” as their ethnic background. The respondents held certifications as follows: 47 (29%) English, 48 (29%) math, 29 (18%) science, 31 (19%) Social Studies, and 10 (6%) did not report their certification area (Appendix E). One hundred twenty-four of the respondents (75%) indicated that their districts follow the clinical supervision model as their practice of classroom observations for the purpose of instructional improvement. Thirty-four of the respondents or approximately 21% indicated that the clinical model is not followed, although their districts purport to implement the model as a way to improve instruction (Appendix F).

Approximately 75% of respondents indicated that “observation leads to effectiveness,” while 20% indicated that it did not and approximately 6% did not indicate either way (Appendix G). This seems to indicate that a majority of the respondents believe that classroom observation practices can lead to teacher effectiveness and instructional improvement. Many of the teachers indicated on the sub-category of Instructional Improvement that classroom observation practices by their observer as a part of the evaluation process were important to promoting instructional improvement.

The demographic information provided by the respondents suggests that females were more likely to respond to the survey than their male counterparts. Teachers with less than 10 years of service were also more likely than their more veteran colleagues to respond to the survey. A review of the participating districts’ “New York State District Report Card Comprehensive Information Report,” did not provide sufficient information to draw any conclusions pertaining to the ethnic and racial diversity of each participating district.

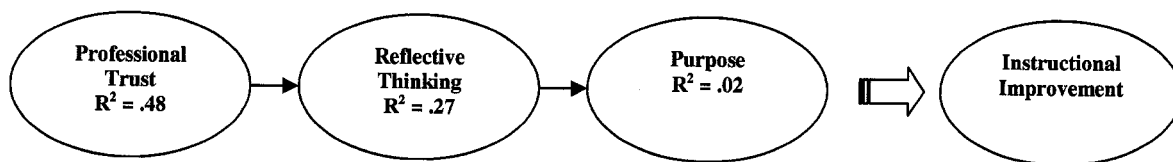
The district report card did not provide information regarding the total number of tenured or non-tenured personnel. Additionally, information regarding the ethnic and racial diversity of the teachers in the district was not available on the district report card.

The diversity among certification areas provided a sufficient basis to draw conclusions related to respondents' preference to have a content specialist versus a building administrator as their primary observer. The results of the survey in this study indicated that respondents did not have any preference for a content specialist over a building administrator. Goldhammer et al. (1969, 1980) argued: "a skilful supervisor can work successfully with any teacher of any subject at any level" (p. 47), which implies that a supervisor need not be a specialist in the area they are charged to supervise. An understanding of the teaching of English, for example, is not necessary if the observer is capable of understanding classroom dynamics or the use of space and materials. A well-trained observer can indeed transform a mediocre teacher into a good one by engaging them in reflective thinking (Goldhammer et al. 1969, 1980). Supervisors should encourage teachers to reflect upon the lesson to determine students' level of understanding and how they might change their practice to further improve student achievement.

Conclusions

After a factor analysis was performed with the data collected from the 165 participants in this study, a regression analysis revealed that professional trust, reflective thinking and purpose were the most significant predictors regarding observation practices that lead to instructional improvement (Model 5.1).

Model 5.1: Predictors of Instructional Improvement



Zepeda and Ponticell (1998) found that teachers viewed supervisory practices as helpful when they are intended to improve teaching. Professional trust is the bedrock of instructional improvement that will lead to greater student achievement. The trust that is developed between the supervisor and teacher is critical to instructional improvement. Teachers want supervisors who will be honest in their assessment of their teaching practice. Professional trust then can be defined as the positive relationship that develops between the teacher and their supervisor that will lead to a teacher's receptiveness to feedback and guidance geared toward instructional improvement.

Instructional Improvement

Instructional improvement occurs when observers encourage teachers to clarify their teaching objectives and strategies, and clarify their data collection procedures (Ginsberg, 2003). Protheroe (2003) argued that teacher observation could be used not only to assess competence, but also to help teachers improve their performance. The findings of this study support Sousa's (2003) contention that through the formative evaluation process, instruction can be monitored and improved. In fact, the respondents in this study indicated that instructional improvement will indeed occur when the purpose of evaluation is clear, when there is professional trust between the teacher and the supervisor, and when teachers are engaged in reflective thinking.

This research indicated that teachers believed classroom observation practices could promote instructional improvement. Goldhammer et al. (1969, 1980) are supported by the results of this study in so far as they asserted that supervisors should be concerned with improving instructional effectiveness. However, the teachers in this study indicated that observers are engaged in practices that promote instructional improvement too infrequently. They indicated that observers need to express their feelings honestly and should provide them with information relating to educational resources that are associated with student success. The failure of observers to reflect honestly with teachers during the post conference precludes active participation on the part of teachers during this critical juncture of the clinical supervision process. As Wise, Darling-Hammond, McLaughlin & Bernstein (1984) indicated, teachers should be included in the evaluation process through active participation. If the supervisor is dishonest or insincere when providing feedback to teachers about their instructional performance, it can lead to alienation and circumvent the true intent of classroom observation practices that focus on instructional improvement. Teachers will then, as Danielson and McGreal (2000) indicated, see the “point of this evaluation exercise is just to get through it” (p. 1). If the goal of classroom observation is to improve instruction, teachers’ participation should not be passive.

Looy (2004) indicated that evolutionary psychology has something to contribute to the understanding of human sexuality. She explored the viability of evolutionary psychology as a reasonable way in which to explain human sexuality and to seek alternatives to the theory. Looy suggests that evolutionary psychology claims that “both women and men have a universal human nature and are basically similar,” but because it

uses a “divergent evolutionary history for each sex,” the end result are differences in the physical, psychological, and behavioral traits of males and females (p. 10). The results of this study support the basic tenants of evolutionary psychology in that the males and females in this study differed in their attitudes regarding practices important for instructional improvement. Although there was a general consensus among the respondents in this study that classroom observation practices promoted instructional improvement, there were slight differences between males and females on the practices that were important for instructional improvement. Female respondents were more likely than their male counterparts to indicate that observers needed to identify educational resources to assist them in their efforts to encourage student success. Additionally, female respondents were more likely than males to seek from their observers encouragement in identifying possible relationships between teaching strategies and desired outcomes.

Purpose of Teacher Evaluation

Bolton (1973), Haefele (1993), and Sawa (1995) share the common belief that classroom observation practices should improve the quality of instruction received by students and provide for teacher professional growth and development. Sawa (1995) went as far as suggesting that school boards need to have in place a system that “allows and encourages supervisors and teachers to work together to improve and enhance classroom instructional practices” (p. 5). Teachers viewed their current practice of classroom observations as important to promoting instructional improvement and ensuring their ongoing professional growth. In fact, the teachers in this study indicated that there should always be some measure of professional growth from the observation

experience. From the teachers' perspective, their observer should accept responsibility for his/her actions as they relate to the observation process. Observers, according to the respondents, should listen actively, reflectively, and empathetically. In so doing, the respondents in this study seem to suggest that these leader behaviors related to observation improve instruction.

Professional Trust

Kent (2001) suggested that clinical supervision could lead to teachers examining their teaching practices and developing the capacity to do so and make changes. The essential elements that allow improvement to occur, according to Kent, are trust and empowerment. This study revealed that teachers view professional trust as an important aspect of classroom observation practices related to teaching effectiveness.

The respondents indicated a desire for their observer to respond to them with praise, show acceptance for their ideas, and exhibit interest in them as individuals far beyond the role of supervisor. When observers exhibit interest in teachers' ideas, acceptance of their insights, and praise good work, they demonstrate to teachers a sincere desire to help them improve their instructional performance. Respondents in this study suggested these actions fostered an atmosphere of professional trust. Van Der Linde (1998) suggested that teacher evaluation should not be an obstacle to success and that the observer should act as a leader and facilitator.

Considering that in this study professional trust accounts for 47% of the variance in instructional improvement, it seems prudent for observers to be mindful of this important element of classroom observation practices. A productive working environment is a critical component of classroom observation practices that promote

instructional improvement (Blumberg, 1980). Teacher growth and professional learning rests upon a foundation of trust. Heichberger and Young (1975) found that when teachers viewed the supervisor as dangerous, mutual trust did not exist. A mutual sense of professional trust should be a fundamental goal of supervisors so that teachers do not feel that their supervisor may do them more harm than good.

The respondents, in this study, indicated that it was important to them to hear praise from their observer, especially, if the supervisor's words indicated acceptance and appreciation of their efforts. In addition to the use of praise, teachers also indicated a desire for their supervisor to maintain confidentiality. This seems to suggest that observers need to be mindful not to share information regarding a teacher's classroom observation with the teacher's colleagues. In so doing, this may be seen by the observed teacher as a direct affront to their professional relationships and the collegial culture that they desire.

It is interesting to note that although male and female respondents generally agree that professional trust is an important aspect of classroom observation practices that promote instructional improvement, there was some difference in their feelings regarding confidentiality as an element of trust. Female respondents, 98%, were more inclined to view this as important to developing and maintaining trust. While only 89% of male respondents felt the same. When questioned as to the existence of the practice of confidentiality, 92% of males indicated that it existed as a current practice while only 81% of female respondents indicated that this practice currently occurs. The discrepancy between the male and female perspective on the issue of confidentiality is dramatic and worth further analysis. This finding supports the basic proposition put forth by

evolutionary psychology, according to Looy (2004), that male and females have differences that include communication and interpersonal skills

Reflective Thinking

According to Manatt et al. (1988), individuals grow by analyzing their past mistakes and experiences. Danielson and McGreal (2000) wrote that evaluation systems should focus on structured reflection about teaching practices to ensure professional growth. The teachers in this study concurred in that they indicated that reflective thinking is an important aspect of classroom observation practices that promote their instructional improvement. The results of the analysis conducted in this study indicated that teachers want their supervisors to engage them in reflective thinking about their instruction. Reflective thinking accounted for 27% of the variance in instructional improvement. This seems to suggest that teachers believe that when their supervisor encourages them to reflect on their teaching practices during the post-observation conference, instructional improvement occurs. Teachers indicated that it was very important for their observer to encourage them to compare what they planned for lessons with how the lesson actually went. Furthermore, teachers felt that it was important for their observer to help them clarify instructional strategies used in the delivery of instruction that would further promote student learning and success.

Ideally, reflective thinking should be encouraged during the pre and post conference where analyses of the lesson plan and the observation take place. Glickman (1990) indicated that it is during the post conference that a plan for instructional improvement is discussed. The post conference is the point at which the observer “let[s] the teacher in on the observation—to reflect back to the teacher what was seen”

(Glickman, 1990, p. 284). Goldhammer et al. indicated that the post conference is essential for training teachers “in techniques for self-supervision, [and the development of] incentives for professional self-analysis” (p. 43).

Danielson and McGreal (2002) indicated that structured reflection promotes professional learning. It is apparent that teachers want to engage in practices that are structured if they help them to reflect upon their practice. Confirming Looy’s (2004) assertion that differences exist between males and females based on evolutionary psychology theory, female respondents in this study considered encouragement by their observer to compare what they planned for their lesson with how the lesson actually was delivered as an essential component of classroom observation practices. Teachers who take the time to engage in reflection or to write about their experiences are richly rewarded. According to Danielson and McGreal (2002), the very act of reflection is a highly productive vehicle for professional learning and growth.

Recommendations from this Research

1. Honest feedback is an important element of classroom observation practices that promote instructional improvement. Supervisors must be honest in their feedback to teachers regarding their instructional performance as viewed through the observation process.
2. Supervisors responsible for classroom observation must be trained to engage teachers in practices that promote teachers’ reflective thinking practices.

Attendance at conferences that focus on the development of supervisory practices that promote teacher effectiveness would certainly be a step in the right direction.

3. Teacher evaluation programs that utilize classroom observation practices as the formative component of the evaluative process should be clear and unambiguous.
4. Supervisors responsible for classroom observations should be given opportunities for training in the development of mutual trust, reflective practices, and clear purposes for observations.
5. Districts that purport to use the clinical supervision model should implement all elements of the clinical supervision model which include a pre-conference, observation, analysis of results, and post-conference to truly support teachers and instructional improvement.

Recommendations for Future Research

1. Future research should be conducted utilizing a qualitative approach that seeks to address the concerns of underrepresented groups of teachers at the secondary level. Specifically minority teachers and non-tenured teachers at the secondary level.
2. Future research should be conducted utilizing a qualitative approach to further assess the differences in attitudes regarding certain aspects of classroom observation practices that male and female teachers do not hold similar opinions about.
3. Future research should be conducted to evaluate the impact of instructional improvement on student outcomes on standardized tests and state assessments.
4. Further research should be conducted with a longitudinal methodology that includes supervisory training in reflective practice and trust developmental

exercises that are examined as part of an academic and instructional improvement effort.

5. Further research should investigate the perspectives of male and female teachers as they relate to supervisory practices.

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APPENDIX A

November 19, 2004

Dear Fellow Educator,

“Teacher quality matters. Students cannot meet high standards of achievement without effective teachers in the classroom.”

Barbara Howard and Wendy McColskey

(2001)

In an effort to ensure that teachers receive the support they need and want to be effective in the classroom, teachers' attitudes toward important and existing classroom observation practices are being sought. I am conducting a study at Dowling College in the area of Classroom Observation Practices. Dr. Stephanie Tatum and Dr. Robert Manley will oversee this study. I am hoping to gain insight into what teachers perceive their observation practice to be and what they hope it can be.

Understanding that teacher quality matters, the observation process is one way to ensure instructional improvement that promotes teacher effectiveness that leads to higher student achievement. This study will measure, using a survey instrument, secondary teachers' attitudes toward the importance and existence of classroom observation practices that promote teacher effectiveness.

Your thoughts are invaluable to this endeavor. The enclosed survey should take approximately 15 minutes to complete. After you have completed the survey, please return it to the envelope and seal it. There is a box in the main office of your building where you can drop the envelope.

I would like to thank you in advance for taking the time to fill out this survey. If you would like to know the results of this study you may contact me at (631) 643-1239 or at cardk@optonline.net. You may also contact Dr. Tatum or Dr. Manley at tatums@dowling.edu and manleyr@dowling.edu respectively for further information regarding this study.

Sincerely,

Kenneth A. Card, Jr.
Enclosure

November 19, 2004

Principal

Dear ,

“Teacher quality matters. Students cannot meet high standards of achievement without effective teachers in the classroom.”

Barbara Howard and Wendy McColskey

(2001)

In an effort to ensure that teachers receive the support they need and want to be effective in the classroom, teachers' attitudes toward important and existing classroom observation practices are being sought. I am conducting a study at Dowling College in the area of Classroom Observation Practices. Dr. Stephanie Tatum and Dr. Robert Manley will oversee this study. I am hoping to gain insight into what teachers perceive their observation practice to be and what they hope it can be.

Understanding that teacher quality matters, the observation process is one way to ensure instructional improvement that promotes teacher effectiveness that leads to higher student achievement. This study will measure, using a survey instrument, secondary teachers' attitudes toward the importance and existence of classroom observation practices that promote teacher effectiveness.

Your school district has been selected to participate in this important research. I would appreciate you distributing the enclosed survey to your staff. Teachers can return the completed surveys to the box I will leave in your main office. Your teachers' thoughts are invaluable to this endeavor. I would like to thank you in advance for facilitating and supporting this study. If you have any questions about this research project, please contact me at (631) 643-1239 or at cardk@optonline.net. You may also contact Dr. Tatum or Dr. Manley at tatums@dowling.edu and manleyr@dowling.edu respectively for further information regarding this study.

Thank you again for your assistance in this process.

Sincerely,

Kenneth A. Card, Jr.
Enclosure

November 18, 2004

Superintendent

Dear ,

“Teacher quality matters. Students cannot meet high standards of achievement without effective teachers in the classroom.”

Barbara Howard and Wendy McColskey

(2001)

In an effort to ensure that teachers receive the support they need and want to be effective in the classroom, teachers' attitudes toward important and existing classroom observation practices are being sought. I am conducting a study at Dowling College in the area of Classroom Observation Practices. Dr. Stephanie Tatum and Dr. Robert Manley will oversee this study. I am hoping to gain insight into what teachers perceive their observation practice to be and what they hope it can be.

Understanding that teacher quality matters, the observation process is one way to ensure instructional improvement that promotes teacher effectiveness that leads to higher student achievement. This study will measure, using a survey instrument, secondary teachers' attitudes toward the importance and existence of classroom observation practices that promote teacher effectiveness.

I would greatly appreciate permission to conduct this survey in the middle and high schools in your district. This would necessitate each of your secondary principals or their designee distributing and collecting the enclosed survey to their staff. All responses, as well as the school district, will be kept confidential.

Your assistance in conducting this education study is greatly appreciated. If you have any questions about this research project, please contact me at (631) 643-1239 or at cardk@optonline.net. You may also contact Dr. Tatum or Dr. Manley at tatums@dowling.edu and manleyr@dowling.edu respectively for further information regarding this study.

Sincerely,

Kenneth A. Card, Jr.
Enclosure

APPENDIX B

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For Official Use Only:

A Survey of Your Classroom Observation Practice

ALL REPONSES ARE CONFIDENTIAL: Please answer all questions on the following pages and return in the envelope provided.

Part I: Demographic Data

1. Current Position:
 - ☐ Tenured Teacher
 - ☐ Non-Tenured Teacher
2. Certification Area:
 - ☐ English
 - ☐ Math
 - ☐ Science
 - ☐ Social Studies
3. Length of Service (Total number of Years)
4. Gender:
 - ☐ Male
 - ☐ Female
5. Ethnic Background:
 - ☐ African American
 - ☐ Latino
 - ☐ Asian
 - ☐ Caucasian
 - ☐ Native American
 - ☐ Other
6. Primary Observer: (Individual responsible for majority of your observations)
 - ☐ English Chair/Director
 - ☐ Math Chair/Director
 - ☐ Science Chair/Director
 - ☐ Social Studies Chair/Director
 - ☐ Building Level Administrator
7. Type of School:
 - ☐ High School
 - ☐ Middle/Junior High School
8. A clinical supervision process is used in classroom observations that include a pre-observation conference, observation, and post-observation conference?
 - ☐ Yes
 - ☐ No
9. My classroom observer has the knowledge to discuss the content of my classes with me.
 - ☐ Yes
 - ☐ No
10. My experience in the classroom observation process has helped me to improve and become a more effective teacher.
 - ☐ Yes
 - ☐ No

Part II: Survey Questions

The purpose of this survey is to measure your attitude on classroom observation practices. You will respond twice for each statement. The first response titled **IMPORTANCE** is measuring your attitude of how important the item is in the observation practice. The second response titled **EXISTING** is measuring your attitude of what is really happening when you are observed. For the purpose of this survey the word "observer" will refer to your primary observer. The numerical scale is rated as follows:

1 (Almost Never) 2 (Seldom) 3 (Sometimes) 4 (Frequently) 5 (Almost Always)

Survey Instrument for Teachers

IMPORTANCE OF PRACTICE		EXISTING PRACTICE
1-Almost Never		1-Almost Never
2-Seldom		2-Seldom
3-Sometimes	A SURVEY OF TEACHER OBSERVATION PRACTICE	3-Sometimes
4-Frequently		4-Frequently
5-Almost Always		5-Almost Always
1 2 3 4 5	1. My observer encourages me to clarify goals for my lesson.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	2. My observer discusses the ground rules for the supervisory process.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	3. My observer expresses his/her feelings honestly.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	4. My observer encourages me to understand in greater depth my thinking regarding all aspects of my lessons.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	5. My observer encourages me to experiment with creative educational strategies, teacher and student behaviors.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	6. My observer identifies educational resources needed to assist me in creating students' successes.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	7. My observer's formal classroom observations are used to promote instructional improvement.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	8. My observer attempts to respond favorably to my responses in either the pre-conference or post-conference.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	9. My observer encourages me to be cognizant of my educational goals, objectives, and/or instructional strategies.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	10. My observer frequently hears from teachers about the spirit of cooperation that exists in our school.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	11. My observer encourages me to clarify teaching strategies for my lesson.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	12. My observer responds frequently to me in the form of praise.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	13. My observer maintains confidentiality.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	14. My observer encourages me to identify possible relationships between my particular teaching strategies and desired outcomes.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	15. My observer believes he/she is creating with teachers a learning environment that promotes success for all students.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	16. My observer encourages me to clarify student achievement assessment techniques to be used during my lesson.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	17. My observer follows through on commitments to me.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	18. My observer suggest the use of questions such as, "What made you think of that?" in my lesson in response to unusual questions posed by students.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	19. My observer encourages me to clarify the data gathering procedures to be used during my lesson.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	20. My observer accepts responsibility for his/her actions.	1 2 3 4 5

Survey Instrument for Teachers

IMPORTANCE OF PRACTICE		EXISTING PRACTICE
1-Almost Never		1-Almost Never
2-Seldom		2-Seldom
3-Sometimes	A SURVEY OF TEACHER OBSERVATION PRACTICE	3-Sometimes
4-Frequently		4-Frequently
5-Almost Always		5-Almost Always
1 2 3 4 5	1. My observer encourages me to clarify goals for my lesson.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	2. My observer discusses the ground rules for the supervisory process.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	3. My observer expresses his/her feelings honestly.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	4. My observer encourages me to understand in greater depth my thinking regarding all aspects of my lessons.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	5. My observer encourages me to experiment with creative educational strategies, teacher and student behaviors.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	6. My observer identifies educational resources needed to assist me in creating students' successes.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	7. My observer's formal classroom observations are used to promote instructional improvement.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	8. My observer attempts to respond favorably to my responses in either the pre-conference or post-conference.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	9. My observer encourages me to be cognizant of my educational goals, objectives, and/or instructional strategies.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	10. My observer frequently hears from teachers about the spirit of cooperation that exists in our school.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	11. My observer encourages me to clarify teaching strategies for my lesson.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	12. My observer responds frequently to me in the form of praise.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	13. My observer maintains confidentiality.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	14. My observer encourages me to identify possible relationships between my particular teaching strategies and desired outcomes.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	15. My observer believes he/she is creating with teachers a learning environment that promotes success for all students.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	16. My observer encourages me to clarify student achievement assessment techniques to be used during my lesson.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	17. My observer follows through on commitments to me.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	18. My observer suggest the use of questions such as, "What made you think of that?" in my lesson in response to unusual questions posed by students.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	19. My observer encourages me to clarify the data gathering procedures to be used during my lesson.	1 2 3 4 5
1 2 3 4 5	20. My observer accepts responsibility for his/her actions.	1 2 3 4 5

APPENDIX C

Rotated Factor Matrix

Item	Factor				
	1	2	3	4	5
I9	.723				
I7	.648				
I11	.642	.382			
I6	.609				
I4	.602				
I16	.591	.355			
I15	.589				
I14	.573	.393			
I10	.566				
I8	.423			.418	
I3	.411				
I1					
I2					
I30		.659			
I28		.655			
I29		.653			
I34		.597			
I35		.578			
I33		.565			
I27		.513			
I31		.442			
I26					
I37			.741		
I36			.731		
I32			.691		
I38			.682		
I20			.429		
I12				.715	
I23				.599	
I24				.550	
I13				.458	-.379
I21				.353	
I5					
I25	.423				.601
I19	.467				.585
I22					.500
I17					-.397
I18					

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser

Normalization.

a. Rotation converged in 11 iterations.

APPENDIX D

Varimax Rotated Factor Structure
Classroom Observation Practice Survey
N = 165
Instructional Improvement

Factor Loading	Item Number	Item	h ²
.723	9	My observer encourages me to be cognizant of my educational goals, objectives, and/or instructional strategies.	.631
.648	7	My observer's formal classroom observations are used to promote instructional improvement.	.458
.642	11	My observer encourages me to clarify teaching strategies for my lesson.	.592
.609	6	My observer identifies educational resources needed to assist me in creating students' successes.	.402
.602	4	My observer encourages me to understand in greater depth my thinking regarding all aspects of my lessons.	.395
.591	16	My observer encourages me to clarify student achievement assessment techniques to be used during my lesson.	.566
.589	15	My observer believes he/she is creating with teachers a learning environment that promotes success for all students.	.444
.573	14	My observer encourages me to identify possible relationships between my particular teaching strategies and desired outcomes.	.609
.566	10	My observer frequently hears from teachers about the spirit of cooperation that exists in our school.	.463
.411	3	My observer expresses his/her feelings honestly.	.258
Eigenvalue = 10.969			
Percent of Variance = 28.9			

Varimax Rotated Factor Structure
Classroom Observation Practice Survey
N = 165
Reflective Thinking

Factor Loading	Item Number	Item	h2
.659	30	My observer is continually examining ways to improve his/her observation performance.	.500
.655	28	My observer encourages me to encourage students to be reflective.	.551
.653	29	My observer encourages me to infer relationships between my decisions and student achievement during my lesson.	.640
.597	34	My observer encourages me to observe my colleagues' teaching style.	.382
.578	35	My observer helps me clarify my instructional strategies.	.525
.565	33	My observer encourages me to recall student and teacher behavior during my formal observation.	.497
.513	27	My observer encourages me to compare what I planned for my lessons with how the lesson actually went.	.317
.442	31	My observer rephrases, paraphrases, translates, and/or summarizes my ideas.	.396
Eigenvalue = 2.73			
Percent of Variance = 7.2			

Varimax Rotated Factor Structure
Classroom Observation Practice Survey
N = 165
Professional Trust

Factor Loading	Item Number	Item	h2
.715	12	My observer responds frequently to me in the form of praise.	.649
.599	23	My observer demonstrates an acceptance of my ideas.	.446
.550	24	My observer exhibits an interest in me as an individual beyond his/her role as my supervisor.	.439
.458	13	My observer maintains confidentiality.	.444
.353	21	My observer generally speaks positively about supervision.	.292
Eigenvalue = 2.03			
Percent of Variance = 5.33			

Varimax Rotated Factor Structure
Classroom Observation Practice Survey
N = 165
Purpose

Factor Loading	Item Number	Item	h2
.741	37	My observer supports goals that are within my abilities.	.670
.731	36	My observer expresses a willingness to support my ideas.	.691
.691	32	My observer focuses on my concerns by listening actively, reflectively, and empathetically.	.627
.682	38	My observer reacts to me in an appropriate manner when I need support.	.512
.429	20	My observer accepts responsibility for his/her actions.	.350
Eigenvalue = 2.3			
Percent of Variance = 6.1			

APPENDIX E

Certification Area

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	10	6.1	6.1	6.1
English	47	28.5	28.5	34.5
Math	48	29.1	29.1	63.6
Science	29	17.6	17.6	81.2
Social Studies	31	18.8	18.8	100
Total	165	100	100	

APPENDIX F

Clinical Process

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	7	4.2	4.2	4.2
Yes	124	75.2	75.2	79.4
No	34	20.6	20.6	100
Total	165	100	100	

APPENDIX G

Observation leads to Effectiveness

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	9	5.5	5.5	5.5
Yes	123	74.5	74.5	80.0
No	33	20.0	20.0	100.0
Total	165	100	100	