A STUDY OF CLINICAL SUPERVISION AND THE

JOB SATISFACTION OF ELEMENTARY

TEACHERS IN OKLAHOMA

By

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was and gave me the confidence to succeed.

Lastly, I appreciate the never ending support, understanding and confidence that my wife, Christie, my parents, grandmother and friends have had for me.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Teachers have been treated as the problem of school reform
for 20 years. Isn't it time they were recognized as the
solution (Glickman, 1989, p. 10)?

The quality of a school depends directly upon the effectiveness

and success of those who work there. The roles of the public school

principal are basically the same in all schools - communicating,

supervising, organizing, planning, listening, making decisions,

managing, evaluating, providing leadership, conducting public

relations, dealing with conflict, improving school climate, and

motivating students, teachers, and staff. But the most important

role behavior and most effective way to enhance education, appears

to be assisting teachers in improving their abilities, skills,

behaviors and communication through effective supervision (Powell,

1988).

Those role descriptors may be delineated into two main

categories; school management and instructional leadership. There

is no doubt that management is important. We can relate it to the

first two levels of Maslow's theory of Self Actualization in which

the safety and basic needs of students and staff are the

first priority (Glickman, 1985). Infact, many principals stop in

the manager's mode and never move on.

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What is not the same in all schools is that better principals facilitate and assist individuals (whether faculty, students or parents) to strive for the highest level of self-awareness possible through reflection and self-analysis. This reflective process not only enhances instruction but hopefully maximizes the satisfaction of the students, teachers and parents. These principals enable others to venture higher on Maslow's model towards self-actualization.

The supervising principal's role encompasses these basic components: administrative, curricular, and instructional. It is difficult, if not virtually impossible, to view these as mutually exclusive entities of the supervisor's role, or for that matter, of the instructional supervisor's role. In fact, it may not be desirable to separate them completely (Goldhammer, 1980).

Problem

Under typical circumstances, education in Oklahoma has suffered hard times. Financial support has been low and educators have felt a lack of confidence on the part of many in the community. In recent years, teachers have labored under pressure to produce better results than ever before at a time when their administrators, legislators, and even the communities they have faithfully served seem to have abandoned them. Their morale has appeared to be at an all-time low. The flight of teachers toward states that appreciate and support education has resulted in a record number of resignations. It seems that this is the time for principals to

become more sensitive to teachers' needs and to work in a collegial relationship. The climate for teachers and for education must be improved.

One way to empower teachers is to implement clinical supervision. Research indicates that this collaborative style may directly relate to more positive job satisfaction among teachers. Clinical Supervision is supported in the literature by Cogan (1973), Goldhammer (1969-80), Acheson and Gall (1980), Glickman (1985-89), Sergiovanni (1981), and others who favor its nonthreatening style, techniques, and philosophy. With its focus on instruction, Clinical Supervision brings out the opportunity for teacher involvement, internal motivation, and professional growth in addition to enhanced instruction.

Traditionally, administrators' vertical communication and state mandated summative evaluations have caused teachers to have a lack of trust and security with administrators. This has become an obstacle for communication, supervision, productivity, and job satisfaction.

Purpose

The purpose of the study was to determine how Clinical Supervision relates to teacher job satisfaction in Oklahoma's public elementary schools.

Significance of Study

As both teacher alienation and student productivity become
increasingly problematic in American school systems, more and more
administrators are turning to Clinical Supervision as a technique to
enhance instruction and a philosophical strategy for organizational
change. This organizational reform is proposed to initiate trust
through the development of horizontal, two-way communication which
has a positive effect on teacher autonomy, social interaction,
school climate, morale, job commitment, enthusiasm, and continuous
academic and professional growth.

Hopefully this study will open the minds of those principals
who know no other way but the traditional "Theory X" way of
inspection and provide them with better cognitive maps (as
Sergiovanni (1981) would call them) from which strategies of
supervision can be developed.

The answers to the research questions may enlighten and give
direction to educators, particularly elementary principals,
regarding the philosophy, procedures and process of clinical
supervision and (if used properly) its relationship to teacher job
satisfaction. In doing so, this study may be useful in assisting
principals and/or supervisors in adjusting their supervisory style
to better meet the needs of students, teachers, principals, and the
schools.

A moderate amount of research on teacher job satisfaction and
its relationship to school effectiveness has been done. The
philosophy, goals and objectives of Clinical Supervision epitomize

the collaborative process that research has proven creates the

climate for teacher job satisfaction. The 1986 release of the

report "A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century" proposed

many recommendations; one being the internal restructuring of many

schools. William Bennett (1986) believes that teachers need to be

given more control over their work and more opportunities to take

the initiative to improve their own effectiveness, therefore,

empowering teachers.

Definition of Terms

Specific definitions for the terms used in this

study are provided as follows:

Action Research is used in many schools under various names

ranging from "organizational development committees," to "leadership

councils," to "quality circle groups." Regardless of the name,

action research is a vehicle for bringing together individual

teacher needs with organizational goals. Action research is focused

on the needs to improve instruction as perceived by the faculty

(Glickman, 1985).

Autonomy is the amount of freedom and independence the

individual teacher has in making decisions in relation to

implementing work, teaching, scheduling, curriculum, etc.

Clinical Supervision is that phase of instructional

supervision which draws its data from first-hand observation of

actual teaching events, and involves face-to-face interaction

between the supervisor and teacher in the analysis of teaching

behaviors and activities for instructional improvement (Goldhammer, 1980). The entire process is based on rapport and built on trust and shaped from the teachers' viewpoint.

Collaborative Supervision is based on the belief that teaching is primarily problem solving, whereby two or more persons jointly pose hypotheses to a problem, experiment, and implement those teaching strategies that appear to be most relevant in their own surroundings. The supervisor's role is to guide the problem-solving process, be an active member of the interaction, and keep the teacher(s) focused on their common problems (Glickman, 1989).

Directive Supervision is an approach based on the belief that teaching consists of technical skills with known standards and competencies for all teachers to be effective. The supervisor's role is to inform, direct, model, and assess those competencies (Glickman, 1989).

Evaluation is a check of teachers' performance against standards intended to maintain and improve the quality of instruction. This tends to support the assumption that improved teaching guarantees improved student learning.

Formative evaluations or developmental appraisals are nonthreatening assessments in which improvement of instruction is the objective. Their role is seen as a constructive, consultive, and helpful one that is possible only in an atmosphere of mutual confidence and freedom from suspicion (McGreal, 1983).

Nondirective Supervision has as its premise that learning is primarily a private experience in which individuals must come up

with their own solutions to improving the classroom experience for students. The supervisor's role is to listen, be nonjudgmental, and provide self-awareness and clarification experiences for teachers (Glickman, 1989).

Summative evaluations are made for re-employment purposes. They are to affirm or deny the initial and continuing certification of employees (McGreal, 1983).

Supervision of Instruction is what school personnel do with adults and things to maintain or change the school operation in ways that directly influence the teaching processes employed to promote pupil learning. Supervision of instruction is directed toward both maintaining and improving the teaching-learning processes of the school (Harris, 1985).

Supervision is anyone with direct responsibility for improving classroom and school instruction. Typical supervisors are school principals, assistant principals, instructional lead teachers, department heads, master teachers and other peer teachers. In this study, the descriptors "principal" or "supervisor" are interchangeable and represent any of the before mentioned.

Theory X views people as lazy, therefore, the average human being has an inherent dislike of work and will avoid it if possible (McGregor, 1960).

Theory Y views people as good, therefore, the expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is as natural as play or rest (McGregor, 1960).

In this chapter the problem of teachers' low morale has been proposed. It is the purpose of this paper to investigate one avenue (Clinical Supervision) to alleviate this problem.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

History

Clinical Supervision has evolved by its departure from the
original concept of supervision in which the underlying goal was the
inspection of teachers (Sullivan, 1980). Searching through the
major eras of supervision will help clarify this proposition. The
era 1642-1800 in American education was characterized by inspection
of the school by religious officers or committees. The focus was on
conforming to standards based on autocratic rules and the culling of
weak teachers. In the late 1800's to 1930 there was a move toward
supervision by public educators, focusing on the instructional
program of the teacher. The turn of the century brought the rise of
the "scientific movement" and stress on efficiency and measurement,
furthering the "inspection" concept. The 1930-1950 era brought a
shift to a human relations philosophy using cooperative group effort
to improve instruction. Beginning with this era, we began to see
supervision as more cooperative. Education in the 1960's was
influenced by an emphasis on scientific research. The government
began supplying funds for research in education and supervision
(Sullivan, 1980). All of these schools of thought highlight a lack
of trust (more or less) in the teacher's ability and willingness to
have an interest in the welfare of the students and their academic

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progress (Sergiovanni, 1976).

Clinical Supervision is based on assumptions quite different from its predecessors. Clinical Supervision assumes that supervision of instruction is a joint responsibility of the teacher and the principal. The emphasis is on the teacher's strengths with curriculum and learning demonstrated in the teacher's actions. A major belief is that teachers are willing and able to improve, given the right climate. Therefore, the inspection concept (summative) has been replaced by a collegial (formative) style (McGreal, 1982).

The term Clinical Supervision was created by Morris L. Cogan because of the similar face-to-face, on-the-scene involvement of the medical field. He says "Clinical Supervision was born out of great travail and the pain of the process was shared by many supervising teachers, student teachers and university supervisors" (Cogan, 1973, p. 6). When working with student teachers and frustrated supervisors in the MAT program at Harvard in the 1950's, Cogan identified many supervision problems. In their research, Cogan and his colleagues found techniques that were helpful. For instance, longer periods of time in more sustained sequences of planning, observation, and analysis were used. The post-teaching conferences became a precise study of observational notes to understand what had taken place in the lesson. Teachers and supervisors began to feel that they were being helped (Cogan, 1973).

Cogan developed a model that was constantly used, studied and changed by him and his colleagues. In the beginning it was used in Harvard's preservice program, such as the Harvard-Lexington program

of 1955. It was quickly adapted for use with experienced teachers
at the Harvard-Newton and Harvard-Boston summer programs (Sullivan,
1980). A short time afterwards, public schools became interested in
using Clinical Supervision with their intern teachers. Cogan was in
demand for lectures on his model by the late 1950's. Clinical
Supervision had been accepted by a number of educators and
universities by 1963 (Cogan, 1973). The Clinical Supervision model
was more clearly defined during the Harvard-Lexington summer program
(1961-65) which was offered to experienced teachers and
administrators seeking training (Krajewski and Anderson, 1980).

The second major name in Clinical Supervision is Robert
Goldhammer. His contribution took shape in the Harvard-Lexington
summer program of 1962, where he first studied Clinical Supervision
(Goldhammer, 1969). Goldhammer gives credit to Cogan, his mentor,
for sharing his ideas during the years of study together.
Goldhammer's influence on Clinical Supervision was abbreviated by
his death in 1967. His book, Clinical Supervision, has been
instrumental in the further development of Clinical Supervision.
When Goldhammer wrote his book, many schools were in dire need of
improvement in instruction. He offered a practical method that
could be put to immediate use (Krajewski and Anderson, 1980). After
Goldhammer's death, his colleagues, Anderson and Krajewski, carried
on the Clinical Supervision concept.

Goals and Characteristics

> A central objective of the entire clinical process
> is the development of the professionally responsible
> teacher who is analytical of his own performance,
> open to help from others, and withal self-dircting
> (Cogan, 1973, p. 12).

Cogan expresses a basic McGregor Theory Y belief, assuming that

"teachers are willing and able to improve, that teachers have large

reservoirs of talent, unused, and that teachers derive satisfaction

from challenging work" (Sergiovanni and Starratt, 1979, p. 310).

To execute Clinical Supervision properly, the principal's

objectives must include: the expectation of professional classroom

supervision; the establishment of Clinical Supervision as definitely

needed service; and the establishment of philosophy, procedures, and

relationships intended to reduce teachers' anxiety (Cogan, 1973).

Cogan believes that the success of the program will depend a great

deal upon the quality and extent of participation by the teacher and

supervisor. They must decide what aspects of instruction to improve

and how to go about it.

Acheson and Gall (1980) state that to accomplish the goals and

objectives the following characteristics and assumptions about

Clinical Supervision must be understood:

1. The improvement of instruction requires that
   teachers learn specific intellectual and behavioral
   skills.

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

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

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

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

    d. Skills of teaching performance.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

12. Supervision is itself patterned and amendable to comparable processes of complex perception, rational analysis, and improvement.

13. The supervisor has both the freedom and the responsibility to analyze and evaluate his own

> supervision in a manner similar to a teacher's
> analysis and evaluation of his instruction.
> (Acheson and Gall, 1980, p. 11)

In summary, distinctive features of Clinical Supervision

are: the cycle of supervision, emphasis on identification of

patterns of teaching behavior, the imperative need for a collegial

relationship between teacher and supervisor, a formative (not

summative) approach, and emphasis on teacher and principal.

The Clinical Supervision cycle first addresses the need for

improved teaching behaviors. The framework of Clinical Supervision

is shaped to be congruent with the teacher's viewpoint. It is

defined in terms of what teachers need and how to help produce it.

Therefore, the basic propositions are based on teaching (Sullivan,

1980).

> (a) Teaching behavior is behavior by teachers and
> students, with performance and results. (b) Teaching is
> patterned. If behaviors are regular, the teaching can
> be studied by classification and analysis. (c) Teaching
> behavior can be understood and controlled by teacher.
> (d) Teaching is the crucial behavior, making the
> teacher's input to analysis as important as the
> supervisor's. School teaching is one of the professions
> that has been least effective in raising the level of
> its average performance (Cogan, 1973).

To raise the level of teachers' performance, we must focus on

the improvement of instruction. The implementation of Clinical

Supervision has the potential of achieving this effectively.

> The training of enough clinical supervisors
> to make a difference in the quality of instruction
> would cost a great deal, but could anything be as
> expensive as the wasteful and ineffective teaching
> so many schools are paying for? (Cogan, 1973, p. 5).

Major Perspectives of Clinical Supervision

The major leaders in the field define Clinical Supervision and add the following perspectives:

Cogan (1973, p. 9) defines Clinical Supervision
as the rationale and practice designed to improve the
teacher's classroom performance. It takes the principle
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.

Goldhammer (1980, p. 19) understands 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.

Sergiovanni (1979, p. 305) says 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.

Flanders (1970, pp. 47-48) 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. It 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.

The Clinical dimension of supervision is more clearly
defined and causes less role confusion than do the more
general dimensions of instructional supervision, or
general supervision. Because it is more specific, and
because of the greater amount of interaction and
participation on the part of the teacher and the
supervisor, it is probably easier for the parties to
understand and accept their respective roles. Because
in each case of Clinical Supervision a specific teacher

is the direct client of the supervisor and has a direct
stake in the outcome of the supervisory process, it is
more likely that the teacher will connect with the
supervisor's services than when a supervisor engages in
instructional supervision activities that are aimed at
groups of teachers (Goldhammer, 1980, p. 20).

These theorists have many common concepts. Some of them

are: Building rapport, observation, communication through

interaction (face-to-face), with the intent to improve classroom

instruction. These perspectives support the Clinical Supervision

model and cycles.

Clinical Supervision Model

The definition, objectives, and rationale of Clinical

Supervision are realized in a process-based model called "the cycle"

of supervision. The person responsible for initiating the model is

the teacher. It is the teacher, with the aid of the supervisor, who

determines the goals of supervision. This is necessary for the

cycle to be meaningful to the teacher.

The process of specific tasks and experiences is the cycle of

supervision. The number of stages in the cycle and their names

vary, but the general emphasis is on planning, observation and

evaluation.

Cogan's cycle describes eight phases:

1. Establish the teacher-supervisor relationship and
    establish the meaning of Clinical Supervision.
    Confirm with the teacher his/her new role in the
    supervision process.

2. Plan with the teacher, a lesson, a series of
    lessons, or a unit.

3. Plan the objectives, process, and arrangement for the observation. Provide a mental framework to reduce anxiety.

4. Observe instruction in the classroom and collect data organized around target behaviors. Use systematic and established techniques.

5. Teacher and supervisor analyze the teaching-learning process, dealing with critical incidents and pattern analysis.

6. Plan the conference strategy. The supervisor may plan alone or with the teacher.

7. The conference. The teacher and supervisor try to decide what happened in the classroom. The teacher begins to make decisions about his/her behavior.

8. Renewed planning. The teacher and supervisor begin planning for further instruction and determine the desired changes to be made (Cogan, 1973, Sullivan, 1980).

Goldhammer's (1969) five-phase cycle is very similar to that of Cogan's eight phases and has the approval of many of his colleagues in the field.

The phases are:

1. Preobservation conference. The supervisor and teacher should reach an explicit agreement about the reasons for supervision and how it will occur.

2. Observation. The essential commitment is to capture the realities of the lesson, not give value judgments.

3. Analysis and strategy. Make data intelligent by unearthing logical relationships. Determine the management plan of the conference, what issues to treat, data to cite, goals, how to begin, and where to end.

4. Supervision conference. This is the most important phase of the cycle. Because the teacher is under stress during observation, at this stage the supervisor must play an "open hand" and in a sense put his/her own work on the line.

The conference is intended to:

a.   provide time to plan future teaching with
     another educator;
b.   provide time to redefine the supervisory
     contract;
c.   provide a source of adult rewards;
d.   assess progress in mastering competencies on
     which the teacher has been working;
e.   to define treatable issues;
f.   to offer didactic assistance to the teacher,
     either directly or by referral;
g.   to train the teacher in techniques of self-
     supervision and develop incentives for
     professional self-analysis;
h.   to deal with the array of factors that may
     affect the teacher's vocational satisfaction;

5.   <u>Post-conference analysis</u>. Sometimes called the
     "postmortem,' this phase serves as the clinical
     supervisor's superego and conscience. It's the
     occasion for the supervisor's practice to be
     examined (Goldhammer, 1969).

Acheson and Gall's (1980) three interrelated phases represent

an even more condensed model and have gained wide acceptance. They

use the same basic ideas as Goldhammer and Cogan (see Figure 1).

No matter how the phases are identified, the outstanding

features of the Clinical Supervision model are that interactive

replaces directive, democratic replaces authoritarian, and all

processes center on the teacher rather than on the principal. Its

most distinctive feature is its focus on teacher-principal

interaction (Acheson and Gall, 1980).

Despite the slow growth of Clinical Supervision, Cogan,

Goldhammer, and colleagues have developed a model of supervision

that has a new approach to supervision. Many principals have begun

to ask new questions and try new techniques. The adoption of the

ACHESON & GALL	GOLDHAMMER	COGAN
1. Preobserva- tion conference (Planning)	1. Preobserva- tion conference	1. Establish clinical supervision relationship
		2. Plan teaching
		3. Plan obser- vation strategy
2. Observation (Classroom)	2. Observation	4. Observation
	3. Analysis and strategy	5. Analyze teach- ing data
		6. Plan confer- ence strategy
3. Post-conference (Feedback)	4. Supervision	7. The conference
	5. Post-confer- ence analysis	8. Renewed planning

Source: Glickman, C. Supervision of Instruction, A Developmental
Approach. Boston, MA: Allyn Bacon, 1985.

Figure 1. Clinical Supervision Cycles

model plus the philosophy intended to support the model have been beneficial to more and more schools.

Summary

The purpose of this section was to review the literature related to Clinical Supervision. There is evidence which points to the validation of the model and indicates that the goals of Clinical Supervision are compatible with the desires of teachers and principals (Eaker, 1972).

Overview of Leadership and How
It Affects Supervision

As teachers become more professional and assume more responsible organizational roles outside their classrooms, the status and the authority of school administrators will shift. Their authority will derive more directly from their expertise in the core functions of schooling than from their heir-archial positions in the school bureaucracy. This is mandatory if the movement toward professionalism is to progress (Shibles, 1988, p. 10).

The principal as a leader in the area of instruction has become a major topic in administrative research that deals with the improvement of educational quality. In recent years, emphasis has been made on the principal as the key to the éducational effectiveness of the school as an educational institution. Instructional leadership can, therefore, be defined to be the ability to influence the behavior of others towards effective schools. Recent studies place responsibility for continued diversified efforts toward better quality in education at the

building level. The principal's leadership behavior as both

educator and administrator must, also, include responsibility for

school curriculum with the district providing the necessary support

for school reform (Blank, 1987).

Most leadership studies in education, as well as other fields,

have emphasized the implementation of human conceptual skills.

Studies determining the dimensions of leadership behavior have

usually identified two definite categories. They are: concern for

task, and concern for individuals and their interpersonal

relationships. Many studies indicate that the most effective

leaders score high on establishing structure, ability to organize,

and the ability to relate personably to subordinates (Hoy and

Miskel, 1982).

These studies tend to support Likert's (1961) System 4,

participative climate. Likert's theory, in viewing organization

life, places organizations along a continuum according to the

character of their superordinate/subordinate relationships.

Organizational types range from System 1, Exploitative-

Authoritative, to System 4, Participative. This theory is supported

by the research at Ohio State and emphasizes the importance of the

human characteristic in leadership (Hoy and Miskel, 1982).

Freed and Sheppard (1983), in developing a climate for

educational effectiveness, have focused on the principal's

leadership styles in determining the importance of people and

products in decision-making. These studies on the principalship

have increasingly recognized strong administrative leadership as a

priority for effective schools, but many principals find it difficult to offer leadership that maintains a balance between concern for people and productivity. Freed and Sheppard maintain that teacher and student success concerns are complementary and must be integrated to achieve effective schools. Through the use of the two models, the Managerial Grid and Maturity Level of Subordinates, the principal may collect the data to describe the maturity level of teachers in order to select the supervisory behavior appropriate for a particular person. In identifying the maturity levels, ranging from willing and able to unwilling and unable, principals may determine those in need of more or less directive supervision. This view of leadership maintains that the principal, with applicable incentive for determining the teachers' various maturation levels, can influence teacher effectiveness (Freed and Sheppard, 1983).

Trider (1985) studied the variables that influence principals' behaviors when confronted with obstacles to the development of their own effectiveness. There were three categories of obstacles viewed as significant in relation to principals: the lack of knowledge and skill, the lack of incentives to change, and the lack of appropriate organizational arrangement. Principals did not view a critical lack of leadership skill on their part to be a serious barrier, although the lack of skill and knowledge was recognized by the central administration and teachers to be the primary barrier facing principals (Trider, 1985).

Trider found that principals' professional experiences, beliefs, and values significantly influenced what they do. He also

found that principals perceive themselves to be strongly influenced by the amount of planning, the attitude and level of assistance of the central office, the working relationship with the staff in and out of school, and the amount of direction the staff will accept from the principal (Trider, 1985).

According to Blase (1987), the primary effects of a principal's leadership may be indirect and linked to school climate, teacher morale, and organizational performance. His study described two dimensions of leadership: task-relevant competencies and consideration activities that recognize people and enhance their work satisfaction and self-esteem. The nine prominent task-related themes were: accessibility, consistency, knowledge/expertise, clear and reasonable expectations, decisiveness, goals/directives, follow through, and the ability to manage time and solve problems. The five consideration-related themes were: support in confrontations/ conflicts, participation/consultation, fairness/equitability, recognition, and willingness to delegate authority. His research discovered that proficient school principals contribute to the development of cohesive social and cultural patterns of the schools. The study also pointed out that each effective principal possessed all the qualities listed, in varying degrees (Blase, 1987).

Sergiovanni (1981) maintained that the symbolic aspects of leadership are the key, not the behavior or style. What the leader stands for and the ability of the leader to communicate this standard may be more important than what the leader does or how he or she behaves. He proposes that, symbolically, how a principal

uses his or her time communicates to others what is important. In
this way the principal sets the climate of the school. How people
act, think, and behave are results of their beliefs in and
commitment to prior cultural events and not of behavior itself. He
finds that direct supervision can occasionally change structures and
labels but usually does not effect attitudes, beliefs, or behaviors
(Sergiovanni, 1981).

Manasse (1986) refers to the vision which creates focus on
meaning. Vision is the cognitive movement from common practice to
acting in another way, designing the future from known facts with
hopes and dreams. The presence of personal vision on the part of
the principal, shared with the faculty, may be what separates true
leaders from managers. The principal's vision is based on
personalized professional values, personal images of possibilities,
and personal assessments of a situation. This approach often runs
counter to the current programed endeavors to create effective
schools. The key to the success of visionary principals is the
ability to communicate and sell their visions to others. The
leadership differences seem to come, not from what the principals
"do" during the day, but from how they think, and their behavior
while they are "doing it". "Leadership is distinguished from
management primarily by its change orientation. The role of leaders
is to do the right thing while the role of managers is to do things
right" (Manasse, 1986 p. 170).

Grace et al. (1987), in studying common characteristics of
outstanding principals, maintain that schools cannot run smoothly or

be progressive without effective leadership. Their study found that principals who relate well with people, build a sense of family among students and faculty, and create a comfortable climate in which staff members can work and learn effectively, are modeling the essential characteristics of the leaders of today. The article proposes that the school needs this strong leadership because of its direct impact on today's society and our future.

Supervisory Behavior

There are several theories for conceptualizing supervisory behavior. The following are some of the supervisory models and persepectives that support the Clinical Supervision model.

Getzel's and Guba's Social
System Model

Getzels and Guba delineate a theory of social system formulation. In this theory it is proposed that humans are psychological and social beings. Their behavior is influenced and shaped by the psychological and sociological dimensions of the social system. In the sociological aspect of the system, each role is associated with a set of expectations that people have about how someone occupying that role will behave (Getzels and Guba, 1957).

Fiedler's Contingency Model

A situational view of leadership, as in Fred Fiedler's contingency model, is a theoretical framework for a leader's

personality or leadership style. Leader-member relations, task structure, and leader-position power determine situation favorableness. The supervisor's behavior can be viewed as emerging from the combined effects of the situation and the leader's personality (Fiedler, 1974).

Halpin and Croft's School Climate

The way a person behaves in an organization is a function of individual characteristics and organizational climate. One of the most famous conceptualizations of organizational climate is a study by Halpin and Croft. School climates were placed on a continuum from an open climate (high degree of trust and esprit, and low disengagement) to a closed climate (low trust and esprit, and high disengagement). The implication is that an open climate of sharing and trust where leader direction is supportive and considerate provides for a healthy organization in which teachers are more loyal and satisfied. Principals who provide an atmosphere where relationships of this nature are fostered, and which should, theoretically, enhance the improvement of instruction (Halpin and Croft, 1962).

Recent Perspectives

It is widely accepted that schools exist for students, not for the teacher's benefit. However, it is becoming understood by educators that teachers who receive little or no satisfaction from what they do are not likely to be effective (Eisner, 1985).

The fragile environment of the school can produce conditions

for success or just the opposite.

> Excellent teachers are strong, proud people and
> strong, proud people only take jobs which entrust
> them with important things and which are structured
> in such a way that success is reasonably possible
> (Sizer, 1984, p. 10).

It is said the classroom door often provides the only measure

of autonomy for many teachers. The lack of professional feedback

and collegial support further contribute to teachers' concerns about

the extent to which they are effective. Deficient communication

evokes the perceived unimportance of the teacher's position.

Professional success and personal job satisfaction will be the

catalyst for linking effective teachers to their profession (Sizer,

1984).

Principals who value the faculty as professionals automatically

create supportive collaborative environments for learning. Research

suggests that principals and teachers develop more cooperative

methods for decision-making in curriculum development, staff

selection, budgeting of time and money as well as material

selection. This valuable teacher-principal involvement would be a

vital initial step in empowering teachers in decisions that affect

their day-to-day satisfaction and effectiveness.

Goodlad (1984), in his studies, related that understanding

schools is a prerequisite to improving them. The first people who

must come to that understanding are the school professionals, the

teachers and their principal, who should know their school better

than anyone. He stressed that school improvement can only be

accomplished through the autonomy of its students, teachers, and principals. The education of children must be a partnership. The partnership of the principal, teachers, parents, students, and community is based on mutual respect and responsibility. The principal must create this opportunity for his or her teachers. Without this partnership today, everyone loses as our nation prepares for tomorrow (Goodlad, 1984).

Teacher Job Satisfaction

A firm knowledge of motivation is important for interpreting causes of behavior in schools, forecasting the effects of the principal's behavior, and influencing the actions of teachers and students to achieve school goals (Hackman et al, 1977).

Theories of Motivation

Motivation is made up of three essential elements which activate, direct, and sustain human behavior. It is thought that people possess activating forces; they lead individuals to act inevitably. These internal forces consist of memory, affective responses, and pleasure-seeking tendencies. Motivation, in addition, directs or channels behavior; it promotes goal setting. A person's actions are focused on something. To be able to maintain and sustain that behavior, the environment must support or strengthen the intensity and direction of individual drive or compulsion (Steers and Porter, 1979).

> Motivation is defined as the complex forces, drives,
> needs, tension states, or other mechanisms that start
> and maintain voluntary activity directed toward the
> achievement of personal goals. Deficiencies in what an
> individual wants or anticipates create a state of
> disequilibrium or tension. The individual then attempts
> to return to a state of equilibrium by adopting certain
> behaviors that will lead to a reduction of
> disequilibrium. This is the goal-orientation component,
> for the behavior is intended to produce rewards or goal
> achievements for the individual. These outcomes then
> serve as information or feedback that modifies the inner
> state, that is, decreases or increases the state of
> disequilibrium (Hoy and Miskel, 1982, pp. 137-138).

Maslow's Need-Hierarchy Theory

Maslow's need-hierarchy theory has become a key concept in the
study of human motivation. The five basic need levels in hierarchy
are the framework for Maslow's model. Maslow argues that it is
useless to make a complete list of needs at each level because,
depending on how specifically needs are defined, any number can be
derived. At the first level of the hierarchy are physiological
needs, which consist of the fundamental biological functions of the
human organism. The second level is safety and security needs and
is derived from the desire for a peaceful, smoothly-running, stable
environment. Belonging, love, and social needs are on the third
level and are extremely important in modern society. At the fourth
level are the esteem needs which reflect the desire to be highly
regarded by others. Recognition, competence, status, and
achievement satisfy esteem needs. Finally, at the fifth level,
Maslow suggests that discontent and restlessness develop unless
individuals meet their need for self-actualization. Self-
actualization is the need of the individual to realize his or her

potential and to achieve fulfillment of life goals (Maslow, 1970).

Herzberg's Hygiene/Motivators

Herzberg's research on human motivation supports Maslow's hierarchy of needs. His study of engineers and accountants was originally concerned with what business and service employees perceived as positive or "satisfiers" and negative or "dissatisfiers" about their jobs. To Herzberg's surprise, satisfiers and dissatisfiers were quite distinct from each other. His studies revealed "that the opposite of satisfaction is no satisfaction and that the opposite of dissatisfaction is no dissatisfaction" (Herzberg, 1966, p. 155).

> All human beings have two basic types of needs:
> the need to avoid pain -- a need that people share
> with other animals -- and the need for psychological
> growth-a need that is distinctly human. Pain-avoidance
> needs are those associated with physical drives. They
> include the needs to avoid hunger, cold, illness or
> malfunction, and danger. Psychological-growth needs,
> on the other hand, are those associated with mental
> development. They include the needs to acquire
> knowledge, perceive interrelationships among events,
> express creativity, experience individuality, and
> function well in ambiguous situations. In brief,
> the pain-avoidance needs pertain to physical
> well-being, whereas the psychological-growth needs
> foster self-actualization (Silver, 1983, p. 298).

Herzberg found that the elimination of dissatisfiers did not improve an individual's performance. Dissatisfiers were what he called "maintenance or hygiene" factors.

In other words, if a teacher's major dissatisfaction with his or her job is poor salary and benefits, it will remain a source of aggravation and might make the teacher work less diligently, but if

corrected, will not make them work harder. If the appropriate raise is received, the teacher will no longer be dissatisfied, but productivity will not be increased. Instead, the teacher will accept the correction as the way it should have been in the first place.

The positive factors that Herzberg calls satisfiers could motivate teachers to work harder and better. The premise is: if teachers find the work exciting, and have a sense of achievement also, they see future growth in their career, and are given responsibility or advancement, then they will improve their teaching performance. In short, if teachers are given more responsibility to make decisions, they will work harder to see that they succeed. Herzberg therefore affirms satisfiers as the prime motivators to improving teacher performance (Silver, 1983).

Studies that have used Herzberg's research methodology have found the same distinctions between negative, or hygiene, and positive, or motivating, factors. One such study by Sergiovanni (1967) consisted of interviews of teachers. He had similar findings as Herzberg except that advancement was less often cited by teachers as a motivator. This was probably because teachers usually view education as having few areas of advancement since many see administration not as an advancement, but rather a change in career (Sergiovanni, 1967).

Some scholars have recognized a relationship between Maslow's categories of need and Herzberg's categories of job factors (see Figure 2). The hygiene factors relate to the first three Maslovian

HERZBERG'S   MASLOW'S

                                    Self-Actualization

Motivating   Achievement
Factors of   Recognition
Satisfaction Work Itself   Esteem
or no   Responsibility
Satisfaction Advancement

_ _

              Salary
              Possibility of Growth
              Interpersonal Relations
Hygiene   Status   Belongingness
Factors   Supervision -Technical   and Love
Dis-   School Policy and
Satisfaction   Administration
or no   Working Conditions   Safety Needs
Dis-   Personal Life
Satisfaction Job Security

                                     Physiological
                                        Needs

Source: Glickman, C. Supervision of Instruction, A Developmental
         Approach. Boston, MA: Allyn Bacon, 1985.

         Figure 2.   Interacting Areas Of Herzberg's Factors With
                     Maslow's Stages

levels of need; whereas the motivation factors relate to the fourth
and fifth or higher order of needs, esteem and self-actualization
(Glickman, 1985).

Drucker (1984) parallels Theory Y to Maslow's and Herzberg's
for self-actualization; and in Herzberg's terms, workers want
intrinsic satisfier, or motivator factors from their jobs. He found
that employees, even those who are hostile to supervisors and the
organization school, want to like their work and look for
achievement. Even the most alienated or dissatisfied employee
manages to find some things to yield satisfaction (Drucker, 1974).

McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y

McGregor's (1960) Theory X and Theory Y are two approaches to
management. His three basic assumptions of Theory X are:

1. The average human being has an inherent dislike of work
   and will avoid it if possible.

2. Because of this human dislike of work, most people must
   be coerced, directed, and threatened with punishment to
   get them to put forth adequate effort toward the
   achievement of organizational objectives.

3. The average human being prefers to be directed, wishes to
   avoid responsibility, has relatively little ambition and
   wants security above all.

Theory Y is based on six assumptions and is more humanistic.

1. The expenditure of physical and mental effort in work is
   as natural as play or rest.

2. Human beings will exercise self-direction and self-
   control in the service of objectives to which they are
   committed.

3. Commitment to objectives is a function of the rewards
   associated with their achievement.

4. The average human being learns, under proper conditions, not only to accept but also to seek responsibility.

5. The capacity to exercise a relatively high degree of imagination, ingenuity, and creativity in the solution of organizational problems is widely, not narrowly, distributed in the population.

6. Under the conditions of modern industrial life, the intellectual potentialities of the average human being are only partially utilized (McGregor, 1960)

Theoretically, if you elicit better instruction, to even a limited extent, better instruction will follow. Supervisors who subscribe to Theory X envision their roles as motivating, controlling, and altering behavior, and often use two different approaches which may prove to be counter-productive. The first is the hard sell, which is characterized by authoritarian and coercive leadership. The second is the soft sell, in which human relations or democratic and paternalistic patterns dominate. Notice that in both, the emphasis is on persuading, rewarding, and controlling subordinates. In contrast, school principals who accept Theory Y assumptions view their job as that of arranging the school climate and methods of operation so that student and teacher efforts are encouraged and supported. Consequently, students and teachers are better able to provide for their own satisfaction as well as to contribute to the school's goals (Hoy and Miskel, 1982).

Vroom's Expectancy Theory

Still another approach to understanding motivation is Vroom's Expectancy Theory which considers differences in the desires and needs of others, does not suggest any one motivational strategy as

the best, but is similar in some ways to the Motivation-Hygiene Theory. Vroom views motivation as a response in a person to a specific goal that person seeks. Motivation is contingent upon the need to reach that goal. Performance on the job, in his view, is one way of achieving a personal goal.

> This view is consistent with human resources supervision in that it assumes that _performance_ _is_ _a_ _means_ _to_ _satisfaction_ rather than satisfaction being viewed as a means to performance. Since personal goals for individuals are likely to vary, no one set of motivational factors is identified (Sergiovanni and Starratt, 1979, p. 150).

Expectancy Theory is based on two basic assumptions. First, individuals make decisions about their own behavior in organizations using their abilities to think, reason, and anticipate future events. Motivation is a conscious process governed by laws. The individual subjectively assesses the expected outcomes, personal gains or consequence of his or her behavior, and then decides how to behave.

The second assumption is that the interaction of the individual and the environment determines behavior. Personal values and attitudes, for example, combine with environmental factors, such as role expectations and organizational climate, to mold behavior.

Expectancy Theory depends on three propositions as a foundation. The concepts of valence, instrumentality and expectancy will be explained.

Valence (V) refers to the perceived value that a teacher attributes to potential rewards for doing a certain job. It indicates the strength of a teacher's desire for a specific reward.

Feelings of achievement, self-fulfillment and teamwork, for example, are typical of valued work outcomes for educators.

Instrumentality (I) refers to the perceived probability that a valued reward will follow after a certain level of achievement. Instrumentality is high when there is a strong association between teacher performance and being rewarded. If teachers think that high student achievement in their classrooms is apt to result in public acknowledgment of their teaching expertise, then instrumentality is high.

Expectancy (E) is the extent to which a teacher believes that a given amount of effort will result in a specified level of accomplishment toward a goal. Mathematically, the probability can range from zero to one. When expectancy falls to zero, the individual believes that effort is unrelated to performance. However, when expectancy reaches one, the teacher is totally convinced that performance or goal achievement is directly proportional to effort. For example, if teachers feel that there is a good possibility of improving student achievement by increasing their own efforts, then educators have a high expectancy level.

Motivation to behave in a certain way is greatest when the teacher believes that (1) desired rewards will result, (2) these rewards have great personal values (high valence), and (3) the ability to perform at the desired level does exist (high expectancy). If teachers are faced with options about performance, they ask themselves: Can I perform at that level? If I perform at that level, what will I receive? How do I feel about these

outcomes? The individual teacher then makes a decision to perform

in the way that seems to have the best chance of producing the

desired rewards (Hoy and Miskel, 1982, pp. 155-156).

Hackman and Oldham's Job Enrichment

One way to enhance teacher motivation which is within the

control of the principal is to modify the structure of the teacher's

job. Jobs can be changed in a fashion which increases opportunities

for teachers to experience intrinsic satisfaction. For instance,

principals can intentionally plan to incorporate into the teacher's

job more opportunities for experiencing achievement, recognition,

advancement, growth opportunities, and increased competence.

Teaching jobs can be intentionally upgraded in responsibility,

scope, importance, and challenge. Making these modifications in

teachers' jobs to improve their opportunities to experience

intrinsic satisfaction is called job enrichment. "Job enrichment is

attractive to many and can be a powerful stimulus to increased

motivation" (Sergiovanni and Carver, 1980, p. 123).

One avenue of research on job enrichment and its link to

motivation and commitment is that of Hackman and Oldman (1980).

Their concept of job enrichment unifies most of the other theories

of motivation presented in this paper. Their theory has been

successfully applied in practice and they show how others might

implement it.

Hackman and Oldham have identified three psychological states

which they believe to be critical in determining a person's

motivation for and satisfaction with a job:

> Experienced meaningfulness. The individual must
> perceive his or her work as worthwhile or important by
> some system of values held. Experienced responsibility.
> The individual must believe that he or she personally is
> accountable for the outcomes of efforts.

> Knowledge of results. The individual must be able to
> determine, on some fairly regular basis, whether or not
> the outcomes of his or her work are satisfactory
> (Hackman and Oldham, 1976, p. 57).

Hackman and Oldham point out that when the three states are

present in an individual, that individual will feel good and perform

well. Once the teacher has experienced the satisfaction of one or

more of these states, he or she will continue to perform well in

order to "earn this good feeling" (satisfaction). The three

psychological states are the basis of internal motivation.

"Internal motivation is important to supervisors, for we seem to

have less and less to give of an external nature" (Sergiovanni,

Starratt, 1988, p. 155).

There are five job characteristics that have been found to

elicit these psychological states. Three of the characteristics

proposed by Hackman and Oldham are skill variety, task identity, and

task significance, all of which determine meaningfulness. Autonomy,

the next job characteristic, is related to feelings of

responsibility. Feedback, the fifth job characteristic, is related

to knowledge of results.

> The job enrichment model suggests that in teaching, jobs
> that require different activities in carrying out the
> work and the use of a variety of teacher talents and
> skills (skill variety); require that teachers engage in
> holistic or complete and identifiable tasks (task
> identity); are viewed by teachers as having a substantial

and significant impact on the lives or work of other people
(task significance); provide substantial freedom
independence, and direction to individual teachers
in scheduling work and in deciding classroom
organizational and instructional procedures (autonomy); and
provide teachers with direct and clear information about the
effects of their performance (feedback) are likely to evoke
the psychological states of meaningfulness, responsibility,
and knowledge of results. These in turn will result in high
work motivation, high-quality performance, high job
satisfaction, and low absenteeism among teachers
(Sergiovanni, Starratt, 1988, pp. 154-155).

Therefore, if administrators are to concern themselves with

motivation, responsibility, meaningfulness, performance, and

results, they will search out ways to enrich teaching jobs in order

to improve opportunities for achievement of these conditions. If it

is desirable to empower teachers and bring about greater teacher job

satisfaction, this writer suggests that one thing that can be done

toward these ends is to use the collaborative techniques and

philosophy of Clinical Supervision.

Summary

Glickman (1989) defines supervision as the glue that pulls and

holds together the seperate parts of instructional effectiveness

into a whole school effort. The distinctive features of Clinical

Supervision are: The cycle of supervision, emphasis on

identification of patterns of teaching behavior, the imperative need

for a collegial relationship between teacher and principal, a

formative (not summative) approach, and an emphasis on instruction.

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1988) says that performance is a

means to satisfaction rather than satisfaction is a means to

performance. Therefore, for a principal to have an influence on teacher satisfaction, they must first work with teachers on becoming better teachers (performances).

CHAPTER III

METHOD AND PROCEDURE

Introduction

The perceptions by teachers of supervisor's behaviors and the
satisfaction of these teachers constituted the basis of this
investigation. The purpose of this chapter was to describe the
research methods and procedures used in this study. Description of
the research questions, subjects, instrumentation, description of
variables and the data collection procedures were included within
this section.

Research Questions

1. Does the level of Clinical Supervision as measured
    by Shinn's Consultant Activities and Techniques
    Instrument relate to level of General Job
    Satisfaction as measured by Hackman's and Oldham's
    Job Diagnostic Survey?

        General Satisfaction (An overall measure of the
        degree to which the employee is satisfied and
        happy in his or her work. A private, affective
        reaction or feeling an employee gets from
        working on his or her job.) (Hackman and Oldham,
        1974, p. 1).

2. Does the level of Clinical Supervision relate to
    level of:

        a. Task Identity (The degree to which the job
            requires the completion of a "whole" and
            identifiable piece of work; i.e., doing a
            job from beginning to end with a visible
            outcome.)

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b. <u>Task</u> <u>Significance</u> (The degree to which the job has a substantial impact on the lives or work of other people - whether in the immediate organization or in the external environment.)

c. <u>Autonomy</u> (The degree to which the job provides substantial freedom, independence, and discretion to the employee in scheduling his work and in determining the procedures to be used in carrying it out.)

d. <u>Feedback</u> <u>from</u> <u>the</u> <u>Job</u> <u>Itself</u> (The degree to which carrying out the work activities required by the job results in the employee obtaining information about the effectiveness of his or her performance.)

e. <u>Feedback</u> <u>from</u> <u>Agents</u> (The degree to which the employee receives information about his or her performance effectiveness from supervisors or from co-workers.)

f. <u>Internal</u> <u>Work</u> <u>Motivation</u> (The degree to which the employee is <u>self</u>-motivated to perform effectively on the job.)

g. <u>Security</u> <u>Satisfaction</u> (The degree to which the employee feels safe for their position and pay, the job provides freedom from danger and an opportunity for liberty.)

h. <u>Social</u> <u>Satisfaction</u> (The degree to which the job provides the employee an opportunity to form cooperative and interdependent relationship with an individual or group.)

i. <u>Supervisory</u> <u>Satisfaction</u> ((The degree to which the employee is satisfied and happy with the style of supervisor in improving classroom instruction.)

j. <u>Growth</u> <u>Satisfaction</u> (The degree to which the job allows or promotes professional or personal progressive development or evolution.)

Subjects

In 1988, according to the <u>Oklahoma Educational Directory</u>, there were 946 public independent elementary schools. This study focused on the public "independent" elementary schools because the principal is a teaching principal in the dependent school systems, with little time for supervision. There were many grade level combinations. Focus was on the following: K-5, K-6, 1-5 and 1-6.

The sample was 2.5% or 24 of the elementary schools in Oklahoma (see Tables I and II for selection procedure.) There were 7 rural, 11 suburban and 5 urban schools. Likewise, there were 7 schools from large school systems (over 400 certified employees), 9 from medium size (between 101 and 399 certified employees) and 8 from small school systems (under 100 certified employees). There were 598 teachers involved in the formal study.

This study was a descriptive one using a distributed and returned mail survey. This was not a random sample of the teachers (or schools) in Oklahoma. There was a geographic distribution so that the state was somewhat equally represented in areas of the state, size of school systems and urban, suburban or rural location (see Table I).

Statistical Techniques

The statistical technique used to answer the two research questions was the <u>Pearson-Product-Moment</u> correlation. The data were processed using the <u>SAS</u> Institute Inc., <u>Statistical Analysis System</u>, version 6.06 (1990).

TABLE I

STRATIFIED SAMPLE OF THE 23 ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS
PARTICIPATING IN THE STUDY

SCHOOL	AREA OF STATE	GENDER OF PRINCIPAL	SIZE OF SYSTEM	TYPE OF SYSTEM
# 1	CENTRAL	FEMALE	MID	SUBURB
# 2	NORTH	MALE	LG	URBAN
# 3	N.E.	MALE	MID	SUBURB
# 4	SOUTH	FEMALE	SM	RURAL
# 5	EAST	MALE	SM	RURAL
# 6	SOUTH	FEMALE	MID	URBAN
# 7	EAST	FEMALE	SM	RURAL
# 8	NORTH	MALE	MID	SUBURB
# 9	CENTRAL	FEMALE	LG	SUBURB
#10	S.E.	MALE	SM	SUBURB
#11	CENTRAL	MALE	LG	SUBURB
#12	CENTRAL	MALE	SM	RURAL
#13	SOUTH	FEMALE	LG	URBAN
#14	S.W.	MALE	MID	SUBURB
#15	CENTRAL	FEMALE	LG	URBAN
#16	N.E.	MALE	SM	RURAL
#17	N.E.	MALE	MID	SUBURB
#18	WEST	FEMALE	SM	RURAL
#19	N.W.	MALE	MID	URBAN
#20	CENTRAL	FEMALE	LG	SUBURB
#21	WEST	FEMALE	LG	SUBURB
#22	N.E.	FEMALE	SM	RURAL
#23	S.W.	MALE	MID	SUBURB

TOTALS:		GENDER	SIZE	TYPE
		12 MALE	8 SM	5 URBAN
		11 FEMALE	8 MID	11 SUBURB
			7 LG	7 RURAL

TABLE II

PARTICIPATING SCHOOLS BY NUMBER OF INSTRUMENTS
DISTRIBUTED, RETURNS AND PERCENTAGES

SCHOOL	DISTRIBUTED N	RETURNED N	RETURNED %
# 1	20	13	65
# 2	23	14	60
# 3	38	21	56
# 4	29	19	66
# 5	22	11	50
# 6	16	15	94
# 7	23	18	78
# 8	20	12	60
# 9	18	15	83
#10	45	31	69
#11	40	26	65
#12	20	14	70
#13	26	21	81
#14	35	22	62
#15	22	8	36
#16	27	9	33
#17	28	15	53
#18	25	23	92
#19	19	15	79
#20	27	24	89
#21	32	19	60
#22	10	7	70
#23	33	14	42
#24*	00	00	00
TOTALS:	598	386	65%

*Not averaged

Instrumentation

The two areas of focus were the perceptions of teachers of the level of supervision activities and techniques used by their principals and, the level of teachers' satisfaction on different areas of their jobs.

Instrument Number 1 - Clinical Supervision

Used for this study was James L. Shinn's Consultant Activities and Techniques Instrument (CAT), (slightly adapted by Rhonda Hamilton, 1986), developed for the author's Ph.D. dissertation at the University of Oregon, 1976 (Shinn, 1976).

Shinn's original research study surveyed a large sample of inservice teachers to rate the actual frequency with which school principals used various techniques of Clinical Supervision and the ideal frequency which teachers would desire for such use (Acheson and Gall, 1980). The instrument consisted of 32 items reflecting the principals' clinical supervisory behaviors. Items 1-8 included preobservation conference techniques, items 9-20 specified techniques used during classroom observation, and items 21-32 expressed techniques used during the postobservation conference (Shinn, 1976).

A sample of teachers were requested to rate the actual frequency in which school principals use various techniques of clinical supervision and the ideal frequency of such use (Appendix A).

The CAT variable used for correlation analysis in the two

Research Questions was acquired by the adding of the responses (1-5)

in the "actual" column (see Appendix A) of the 32 items of each

teacher. The possible total response could range from 32 (for all

1's) to 160 (for all 5's). An average score was completed from

these totals (Table II), both for each school and over all

respondents.

Instrument Number 2 - Job Satisfaction

In addition to Shinn's Consultant Activities and Techniques

Instrument, the teachers responded to J. Richard Hackman's (Yale

University) and Greg R. Oldham's (University of Illinois) "The Job

Diagnostic Survey (JDS): An Instrument for the Diagnosis of Jobs

and the Evaluation of Job Redesign Projects" (1976).

Their report describes the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS), an

instrument designed to measure the following three classes of

variables:

1. The objective characteristics of jobs, particularly
   the degree to which jobs are designed so that they
   enhance the internal work motivation and the job
   satisfaction of people who do them.

2. The personal affective reactions of individuals to
   their jobs and to the broader work setting.

3. The readiness of individuals to respond positively
   to "enriched" jobs--i.e., jobs which have high
   measured potential for generating internal work
   motivation (Hackman and Oldham, 1974, abstract).

The JDS is based on a specific theory of how jobs affect

employee motivation. It is intended for two general types of use:

(a) for diagnosing existing jobs to determine if (and how) they might be redesigned to improve employee productivity and satisfaction; and (b) for evaluating the effect of job changes on employees--whether the changes derive from deliberate "job enrichment" projects or from naturally-occurring modifications of technology or work systems (Hackman and Oldham, 1974).

The JDS variable used to correlate with the (CAT) variable in Research Question number 1, was acquired by computing the General Satisfaction Score (Appendix A, Table III). By means of the Pearson Product-Moment technique, the level of Clinical Supervision perceived by teachers was correlated with the level of teacher General Satisfaction. In answering research question #2, the same Consultant Activities and Techniques Instrument (CAT) was correlated again using the Pearson Product-Moment with each of the 10 remaining subcategories of the Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS).

Pilot Study

In January of 1990, a sample population for the pilot study was selected from the population of teachers from the 48 elementary schools in Tulsa Public Schools. A total of 5 schools were randomly selected with 91 teachers involved as subjects. The schools were visited, the principals were informed about the study and asked if they would participate. When they agreed, the name of a teacher coordinator was requested. The teacher coordinator was approached with the materials consisting of: a survey for each teacher, a "background" sheet consisting of demographic data for the teacher

coordinator to complete (see Appendix C), and an envelope for return in the school mail.

The subjects were asked to complete the survey and write comments about the survey instrument. Only 39 pilot group teachers (42%) responded to the survey. Many of the respondents of the pilot study indicated that the two instruments took too long to complete. In the formal study there was a change on the second instrument, the Job Diagnostic Survey, from the long form of 83 items to the short form of 53 items. This change was in response to a low return rate and to many of those responding teachers who said that the original form was too long. Although Tulsa Public Schools were used in the pilot study, the formal study consisted of schools outside the Tulsa school system.

Formal Study

In February, 1990, the selection of the stratified sample of school systems to represent the state was obtained in this fashion: in large school systems the selection of the third elementary school listed for that district in the 1988-89 Oklahoma Educational Directory; middle size system, the second on the list was selected; small system, the first (usually the only school) on the list. An exception to this was one large, suburban system in which the third school chose not to participate so another school was selected; it was third from the last of the list.

Although the school systems were selected, the teachers were the important variable to the study, not the schools. In March,

1990, the principals were called on the phone, the study was explained to them and they were asked if they would participate. If they agreed, it was requested that they would seek consent from their superintendents. In addition, it was asked of the principal to provide a name of a teacher that the faculty would trust, because of confidentiality, to coordinate distributing and collecting the surveys before returning them in the mail.

On April 5, 1990, the three schools representing the southern part of the state were visited. The day consisted of: visiting with the principals, taking tours of the schools, meeting with the teacher coordinators and discussing the information sheet (see Appendix C). In addition, the coordinator received all the surveys to be distributed to the teachers along with a large, addressed, stamped envelope for the surveys to be mailed back after being collected one week later.

The same procedures were performed on Monday, April 23, 1990, (after a broadscale teachers' walkout) with six schools in the central part of the state; one urban, four suburban and one rural. They were categorized as two large systems, two middle size and two small systems.

Tuesday, April 24, 1990, six schools in the northern part of the state were visited. This group consisted of one urban, three suburban and two rural. They were categorized as two large, two middle size and two small school systems.

Friday, April 27, 1990, six schools representing the eastern part of the state were visited. There were no urban, three suburban

and three rural school systems. They were categorized as; one

large, three middle size and two small school systems.

Thursday, May 3, 1990, two schools were visited and one school

was sent materials in the mail that represented the western most

part of the state. There were one urban, one suburban and one rural

school. They were categorized as: one large, one middle size and

one small school system.

There were 23 schools visited; the one school not visited was

the only school that did not return the materials. After waiting

several weeks, the principal was called and the reply was that there

was a change of mind; the principal chose not to give materials to

the coordinator nor distribute them to the teachers.

Table I identifies the school by number, area of state, gender

of principal, size and type of system. Table II identifies the

school number, the number of surveys distributed at that school, the

number returned completed (incomplete instruments were not

calculated), and percentage of returns (complete). Out of 598

surveys distributed, 386 were received completed for a 65% return

rate. There were 7 large, 8 middle size and 8 small school systems.

The type of systems were 5 urban, 11 suburban and 7 rural. Two

schools were marked as suburban by the teacher coordinators that

were perceived as rural in the stratified selection.

Figure 3 reports data taken from the Demographic Data

Questionnaire that the teacher coordinators from each of the 23

schools completed. Several characteristics are also reported in

Chapter IV.

1. Size of elementary school

# of students	Respondent Frequency	Percent
100-200	7	2
200-300	38	10
300-400	27	7
400-500	108	28
over>500	206	53

2. School District Size

Category	Certified Employees	Number of Schools
Small	0-100	8
Medium	101-399	8
Large	400-or more	7

3. Type of District

	Respondent Frequency	Percent
Urban	79	21
Suburban	217	56
Rural	90	23

4. Years of Principal as Administrator

	Respondent Frequency	Percent
1-2	0	0
3-7	145	38
8-15	173	45
16-20	68	17
over>20	0	0

5. Principal's years of educational
    experience

	Respondent Frequency	Percent
1-5	28	7
6-10	98	25
11-15	54	14
16-20	100	26
21-25	70	18
over>25	36	9

Figure 3. Demographic Data

Figure 3 (Continued)

6. Gender of Principal

	School Frequency	Percent
Female	11	48
Male	12	52

7. Teacher's years of teaching experience

Years	Respondent Frequency	Percent
1-5	80	21
6-10	90	24
11-15	85	22
16-20	64	17
21-25	47	12
over>25	16	4

Frequency missing = 4

8. Gender of Teacher

	Respondent Frequency	Percent
Female	361	95
Male	18	5

Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to describe the research methods and procedures utilized in this study. The description of the research questions, subjects, statistical techniques, instrumentation, variables, and data collection procedures will sustain the description and analysis of the data in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Introduction

The perceptions by teacher of supervisor's behaviors and the satisfaction of these teachers constituted the basis of this investigation. The purpose of this chapter was to describe and analyze the data collected from the questionnaires (two instruments) administered to teachers from a stratified sample of twenty-four Oklahoma public independent elementary schools during the 1989 - 1990 school year.

The sample was not entirely random, but representative in terms of school size and geographic location. The presentation of the data will begin with the reporting of the data from Shinn's Instrument (Consultant Activities and Techniques). Second, the findings from Hackman's and Oldman's Instrument (Job Diagnostic Survey), will be reported, along with the analysis and the correlation of the two instruments. Next, the two research questions will be answered. Last, a short summary will be presented.

The data utilized (see Appendix A, Table XXV) for the investigation of the research question concerning Clinical Supervision, were obtained from page two of the returned survey instruments, (Appendix C) entitled "Consultant Activities and

Techniques" (CAT). The third through eighth pages of the

instrument, (Appendix C) entitled "Job Diagnostic Survey" (JDS),

constituted the source of information for data analysis of research

questions regarding job satisfaction (Table XXIII) and all of its

subcategories. The relationships between scores on the two

instruments are reported in Table XXIV.

The wording of the instruments was reduced in the tables

presented. The term "principal" will be used to represent both

principal and/or supervisor.

Presentation of Data

Consultant Activities and Techniques

(CAT) Instrument

Teachers were requested to designate the <u>actual</u> frequency with

which supervisory behaviors occurred (from 1 to 5; "never" to

"almost always", respectively) for each of the thirty-two items.

The individual teacher response range from 32 (for all 1's) to 160

(for all 5's). Incomplete surveys were not considered in the

scores.

The level of <u>Clinical Supervision</u> as measured by the Consultant

Activities and Techniques (CAT) instrument (sum of "actual" column)

average of 386 teachers was 106.45. The Standard Deviation was

24.00 with a received low score of 36.0 and a high of 154.0. See

Appendix A, Table XXV for individual CAT scores.

In the analysis of the "sum of actual" data from the CAT of individual teachers, there is a difference of 118 points between the low of 36.0 and the high of 154.0 (Table III). In the perception of teachers, there are varying amounts of Clinical Supervision taking place within the school. When looking at the individual 23 school averages, one finds a range of 58.1 points between the low school of 71.6 to the high of 129.7. As perceived by the teachers grouped into faculties, there are varying amounts of Clinical Supervision taking place between the schools.

In the item by item analysis of the CAT instrument (Figure 4), there are varying amounts of (actual) Clinical Supervision behaviors and techniques being used. With a possible Range of 1 to 5, there was a Range of 1.2 (#15 and #17) to 4.5 (#21) of the item means. In comparing the Actual perceived behaviors with the Desired, by plotting on a graph, it was noted that similar scores and parallel lines with desired means ranged from .2 to .7 higher than actual means (see Figure 4).

The activities from the 32 items listed on the Consultant Activities and Techniques (CAT) Survey instrument are designated by both the item number from the instrument and an abbreviated activity description. It is interesting and important to note that the activities which teachers indicated that they "desired" the principal to be involved in, to the greatest degree, are almost the same activities with which they indicated the greatest actual behavior (see Tables III and IV.)

		Actual			Desired		
		N	M	SD	N	M	SD
1	Meets with me prior to visits	381	3 8	1 39	372	4 1	1 09
2	Asks about my objectives	380	3 0	1 44	370	3 6	1 19
3	Asks about my expectations	380	3 2	1 28	369	3 9	0 93
4	Asks about my concerns	370	3 2	1 47	360	3 9	ˉ1 01
5	Involves me with data methods	375	2 7	1 46	364	3 4	1 21
6	Identifies teaching behaviors	378	3 2	1 49	368	3 9	1 12
7	Suggests observation techniques	377	3 0	1 36	366	3 7	1 14
8	Suggests self-supervision tech	379	2 8	1 36	366	3 6	1 11
9	Records systematic data	382	4 0	1 24	373	4 1	1 01
10	Makes verbatim notes	378	3 7	1 39	369	3 8	1 21
11	Writes my questions	377	3 1	1 45	367	3 4	1 25
12	Writes student responses	378	3 2	1 41	370	3 5	1 20
13	Records student time on task	380	3.1	1 37	372	3 5	1 17
14	Charts student responses	377	2 6	1 37	368	3 1	1 25
15	Makes audio recordings	378	1 2	0 61	368	1 7	1 01
16	Charts student movement	377	2 1	1 23	368	2 6	1 17
17	Makes video recordings	381	1 2	0 51	371	1 7	0 95
18	Observes problem child	378	3 5	1 15	368	3 9	0 93
19	Gives opinions about my class	378	4 0	1 07	367	4 1	0 90
20	Stays for complete activity	379	4 0	1 12	368	4 3	0 80
21	Meets with me after each visit	381	4 5	0 94	370	4 6	0 69
	Gives me direct advice	382	3 8	1 21	371	4 1	0 98
23	Gives opinions about teaching	380	4 2	1 06	369	4 3	0 87
24	Relates my perceptions to data	374	3 7	1 30	365	4 0	1 07
25	Encourages my opinions	381	4 1	1 13	371	4 5	0 74
26	Asks me questions	382	3 8	1 16	371	4 2	0 90
27	Encourages different techniques	380	3 5	1 29	370	3 9	1 03
28	Accommodates my priorities	379	3 9	1 11	369	4 3	0 76
29	Listens more than talks	381	3 6	1 15	368	4 1	0 77
30	Acknowledges my comments	381	4 3	0 94	369	4 5	0 65
31	Gives praise and encouragement	381	4 3	1 04	371	4 6	0 60
32	Recommends resources	381	3 4	1 26	370	4 0	0 94

RESPONSE CODES

1   2   3   4   5

__ ACTUAL   _ _ _ DESIRED

1 = Never   2 = Seldom   3 = Sometimes   4 = Frequently   5 = Almost Always

Figure 4.   Group Means of Reported Actual and Desired Clinical
Supervision Behaviors

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TABLE III

CLINICAL SUPERVISION ACTIVITIES WITH GREATEST
ACTUAL BEHAVIOR OF PRINCIPALS

Activity		
Item Number	Description	Mean Score
9	Record systematic data	4.0
19	Gives opinions about my class	4.0
20	Stays for complete activity	4.0
21	Meets with me after each visit	4.5
23	Gives opinions about teaching	4.2
25	Encourages my opinions	4.1
30	Acknowledges my comments	4.3
31	Gives praise and encouragement	4.3

TABLE IV

CLINICAL SUPERVISION ACTIVITIES WITH GREATEST
DESIRED BEHAVIOR OF PRINCIPALS

Activity			
Item Number		Description	Mean Score
20	o	Stays for complete activity	4.3
21	o	Meets with me after each visit	4.6
23	o	Gives opinions about teaching	4.3
25	o	Encourages my opinions	4.5
26		Asks me questions	4.2
28		Accommodates my priorities	4.3
30	o	Acknowledges my comments	4.5
31	o	Gives praise and encouragement	4.6

o = repeated items from Table III

The activity with the greatest degree of actual participation by the principal was listed on the CAT instrument as item 21, "Meets with me after each visit." The next two activities were item 30, "Acknowledges my comments," and item 31, "Gives praise and encouragement."

The Clinical Supervision activities in which teachers designated greatest desired behavior of principals were items 21 (again), "Meets with me after each visit," and item 31, "Gives praise and encouragement." Note the repeated items by the "o" of companion Table III.

Table V contains similar data regarding those activities for which the teachers indicated the least incidence of actual practiced behavior. Items 15, "Makes audio recordings," and 17, "Makes video recordings," exhibit the lowest means of the 6 least practiced behaviors from the 32 items. It is important to note that means for items 5, 8, 14, and 16 fall between "seldom" and "sometimes" (2 and 3 respectively).

The companion Table VI shows the activities for which teachers perceived the principal of having the least incidence of desired behavior. It is important to note that of the 6 least desired activities, two interesting areas appear. First, items 15 and 17 lead the group again and second, 5 of the 6 least actual items are repeated in the least desired list (designated with "o"). It is also important to note that this does not say these activities are not important (which they are) but does indicate that they are least

TABLE V

CLINICAL SUPERVISION ACTIVITIES WITH LEAST
ACTUAL BEHAVIOR OF PRINCIPALS

	Activity	
Item Number	Description	Mean Score
5	Involves me with data methods	2.7
8	Suggests self-supervision tech.	2.8
14	Charts student responses	2.6
15	Makes audio recordings	1.2
16	Charts student movement	2.1
17	Makes video recordings	1.2

TABLE VI

CLINICAL SUPERVISION ACTIVITIES WITH LEAST
DESIRED BEHAVIOR OF PRINCIPALS

		Activity	
Item Number		Description	Mean Score
5	o	Involves me with data methods	3.4
11		Writes my questions	3.4
14	o	Charts student responses	3.1
15	o	Makes audio recordings	1.7
16	o	Charts students movement	2.6
17	o	Makes video recordings	1.7

o = repeated items from Table V

important of the 32 items. Items 5, 11 and 14 are between 3 = sometimes and 4 = frequently and are fairly "desired" activities (behaviors).

Table VII highlights those activities for which teachers indicated the greatest disparity between the principals' "actual" behavior and "desired". The six items, 3 thru 8, had the greatest disparity, with item 8, "Suggests self-supervision techniques," having the greatest. It is important to note that the items that have the greatest disparity would be the activities for which the principals' "actual" behaviors falls shortest of meeting the teachers' desired expectations. Therefore, these items are possibly the ones with which teachers are least satisfied. The other five items for which teachers indicated greatest disparity are item 3, "Asks about my expectations," item 4, "Asks about my concerns," item 5, "Involves me with data methods," item 6, "Identifies teaching

It is important to note that these 6 items reflect activities which principals with more specific training and experience in Clinical Supervision, would be more apt to use. This does appear to indicate that teachers do desire more Clinical Supervision than they are receiving.

The data in Table VIII indicate the activities for which teachers indicated the least disparity between the principals' "actual" and "desired" behaviors. These would be the activities for which the principals' behaviors would come closest to meeting the teachers' expectations and therefore, teachers report most

TABLE VII

CLINICAL SUPERVISION ACTIVITIES WITH GREATEST
DISPARITY BETWEEN ACTUAL AND DESIRED
BEHAVIOR OF PRINCIPALS

	Activity	
Item Number	Description	Disparity
3	Asks about my expectations	.7
4	Asks about my concerns	.7
5	Involves me with data methods	.7
6	Identifies teaching behaviors	.7
7	Suggest observation techniques	.7
8	Suggests self-supervision tech.	.8

TABLE VIII

CLINICAL SUPERVISION ACTIVITIES WITH LEAST
DISPARITY BETWEEN ACTUAL AND DESIRED
BEHAVIOR OF PRINCIPALS

	Activity	
Item Number	Description	Disparity
1	Meets with me prior to visits	.3
9	Records systematic data	.1
10	Makes verbatim notes	.1
11	Writes my question	.3
12	Writes student responses	.3
19	Gives opinions about my class	.1
20	Stays for complete activity	.3
21	Meets with me after each visit	.1
22	Gives me direct advice	.3
23	Gives opinions about teaching	.1
24	Relates my perceptions to data	.3
30	Acknowledges my comments	.2
31	Gives praise and encouragement	.3

satisfaction. The 5 items for which there was the least discrepancy were; 9, "Records systematic data," item 10, "Makes verbatim notes," item 19, "Gives opinions about my class," item 21, "Meets with me after each visit," and item 23, "Gives opinions about teaching."

The data indicating the "actual" Clinical Supervision behaviors of elementary principals in 32 items (activities) were also analyzed in an attempt to determine if there were differences in the behavior as perceived by teachers of the 23 schools to the various demographic variables for which data had been collected.

As previously reported, the district size was categorized on the basis of the number of certified employees working in the school district (see Table IX). The principals in large school systems are described as practicing more Clinical Supervision activities than their counterparts in medium and small systems. Small school systems reported the fewest practice of the three.

As shown in Table X, in the analysis of the variable, Type of District, it was found that principals in urban elementary schools participated in more Clinical Supervision activities (behaviors) than their counterparts in suburban and rural. The least participation was reported in rural elementary schools.

When the demographic variable, Gender of Principal was analyzed, it was found that female principals were perceived by their teachers as practicing more of those activities and behaviors listed in the CAT instrument than their male counterparts (see Table XI).

TABLE IX

AMOUNT OF CLINICAL SUPERVISION BY PRINCIPALS
BY SCHOOL DISTRICT SIZE

| School District Size | | Respondents | | |
Category	Certified Employees	Number	Summary of Total	Mean
Small	0-100	8	794.5	99.31
Medium	101-399	8	831.4	103.93
Large	400 or more	7	780.7	111.53

The differences in the means were not found to be statistically
significant.

TABLE X

AMOUNT OF CLINICAL SUPERVISION BY
PRINCIPALS BY TYPE OF DISTRICT

Type of District	No.	Percent	Frequency	Sum of Total	Mean*
Rural	7	23.3	90	683.2	97.60
Suburban	11	56.2	217	1131.3	102.85
Urban	5	20.5	79	592.1	118.42

* The differences between rural versus suburban, and suburban
versus urban were not significant. However, between rural and
urban there was a significant difference (F=3.79, p=.02).

TABLE XI

AMOUNT OF CLINICAL SUPERVISION BY PRINCIPALS,
BY GENDER

| Gender | Number | Sum of Actual on CAT Instrument | |
		Total Score	Mean
Male	12	1217.0	101.42
Female	11	1189.6	108.15

The difference in the means were not found to be statistically significant.

In this section the analysis of the Consultant Activities and Techniques instrument was presented. The data show that Clinical Supervision is taking place within the 23 Oklahoma elementary schools, although in varying amounts. Chapter V will discuss this further. Data were calculated for the 23 individual schools. School by school results may be found in Appendix A, Table XXVI.

Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) Instrument

Teachers were requested to designate the answer, in the space provided, which most accurately describes their job; how much they agree with a statement; or how satisfied they are with a particular aspect of their job. There were five sections with at total of 53 questions.

Hackman and Oldman's (1980) Job Diagnostic Survey reflected scores on fifteen subscale discriptors of jobs. They are generic discriptors and a few were not used. Eleven of these subscales were selected for this study with purposes of discribing (or fitting) the educational setting (or environment). The initial results of the eleven subscales are as follows: The level of General Satisfaction subscale consisted of three items, measured by the Job Diagnostic Survey. The mean score was 5.818 with a Standard Deviation of .965. The Range minimum was 1.0 and the maximum was 7.0 (which parallels the possible Range).

The following eleven tables (XII-XXII) will describe the eleven Scales of the Job Diagnostic Survey used in the second part of this

study by: Frequency, Percent, and Mode of the teachers' answers.
Table XXIV will follow and analyze the variables further.

As shown in Table XII, in the analysis of the variable, General
Satisfaction, it was found that 57% of the teacher's answers fell
between 6.0 and 7.0. The higher the score, the greater the General
Satisfaction described. The mode is 6.67 with 15.6% of the
teachers' marks. The mean is 5.82.

When the variable, Task Identity, was analyzed, it was seen
that the distribution was fairly even with a slight skew to the
upper scores. It is bi-modal at 4.67 and 5.33 respectively. The
mean is 5.0.

In the analysis of the variable, Task Significance, (Table XIV)
teachers were fairly consistant in rating this high with 84.5%
rating between 6.0 and 7.0. The mode is 7.0 with 41.7% of the
marks. Out of the 386 teachers, 161 marked this 7 (the highest
rating). The mean is 6.45 (highest mean of all).

As shown in Table XV, in the analysis of the variable Autonomy,
teachers marked 61.2% of their answers at level 6 or higher. The
mode is 6.0 with 18.7% of the teachers designating that mark. The
mean is 5.87.

Table XVI highlights the variable, Feedback From the Job
Itself. Falling between 5.67 and 6.33 were 42.7% of the teachers'
rating with a mode of 6.0 (18.1%). The mean is 5.52.

TABLE XII

FREQUENCY RESULTS OF SCALE 1,
GENERAL SATISFACTION

SCALE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	
1.00	1	0.3	
1.33	1	0.3	
2.00	1	0.3	
2.33	1	0.3	
2.67	1	0.3	
3.33	3	0.8	
3.67	6	1.6	
4.00	3	0.8	
4.33	10	2.6	
4.67	25	6.5	
5.00	48	12.5	
5.33	24	6.2	
5.67	42	10.9	
6.00	57	14.8	
6.33	53	13.8	
6.67	60	15.6	mode
7.00	49	12.7	

TABLE XIII

FREQUENCY RESULTS OF SCALE 2,
TASK IDENTITY

SCALE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	
2.0	2	0.5	
2.33	3	0.8	
2.67	7	1.8	
3.0	14	3.6	
3.33	25	6.5	
3.67	22	5.7	
4.0	27	7.0	
4.33	33	8.5	
4.67	38	9.8	mode
5.0	33	8.5	
5.33	38	9.8	mode
5.67	31	8.0	
6.0	32	8.3	
6.33	33	8.5	
6.67	33	8.5	
7.0	13	3.4	

TABLE XIV

FREQUENCY RESULTS OF SCALE 3,
TASK SIGNIFICANCE

SCALE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	
3.0	1	0.3	
3.3	2	0.5	
3.67	1	0.3	
4.0	3	0.8	
4.3	5	1.3	
4.67	11	2.8	
5.0	13	3.4	
5.3	7	1.8	
5.67	17	4.4	
6	25	6.5	
6.3	51	13.2	
6.67	89	23.1	
7.0	161	41.7	mode

TABLE XV

FREQUENCY RESULTS OF SCALE 4,
AUTONOMY

SCALE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	
1	1	0.3	
2	1	0.3	
2.33	3	0.8	
2.67	1	0.3	
3.0	1	0.3	
3.33	5	1.3	
3.67	2	0.5	
4.0	8	2.1	
4.33	8	2.1	
4.67	18	4.7	
5.0	18	4.7	
5.33	37	9.6	
5.67	47	12.2	
6.0	72	18.7	mode
6.33	59	15.3	
6.67	55	14.2	
7.0	50	13.0	

TABLE XVI

FREQUENCY RESULTS OF SCALE 5,
FEEDBACK FROM JOB ITSELF

SCALE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	
1	1	0.3	
2.33	1	0.3	
2.67	2	0.5	
3.0	5	1.3	
3.33	9	2.3	
3.67	10	2.6	
4.0	16	4.1	
4.3	23	6.0	
4.6	40	10.4	
5.0	25	6.5	
5.33	24	6.2	
5.67	42	10.9	
6.0	70	18.1	mode
6.33	53	13.7	
6.67	32	8.3	
7.0	33	8.5	

In the analysis of the variable, Feedback From Agents, there is seen a more even distribution than most of the other Scales. The mode is 5.33 with only 11.1% of the teachers choosing it. 1 The mean is 4.88 (Table XVII).

As seen in Table XVIII, in the analysis of the variable, Internal Work Motivation, there is a definite skew towards the higher numbered markings. From scale point 6.0 to 7.0 there were 73.3% of the teachers scored. Between the last two levels, 6.75 and 7.0, 40.8% of the teachers made their mark. The mode is 7.0 and the mean is 6.26 (2nd highest mean).

Table XIX helps describe the data to the variable, Security Satisfaction, Scale 8 of the 11 Scales. The mode is 6.0 and contains 35.3% of the teachers that participated. The mean is 5.65.

Scale 9 describes the Social Satisfaction variable (Table XX). The mode is 6.0 with 23.1% of the teachers designating it as their choice. Approximately 67% of the teachers' marks were between 6.0 and 7.0. The mean is 5.93.

Supervisory Satisfaction is described in Scale 10 (Table XXI). There is a fairly even distribution except for the two largest frequencies at 7.0 with 19.0% and at 6.0 with 16.1% of the teachers' marks. These two scores, of course, cause a skewness towards the upper part of the scale. The mean is 5.44.

The last of the eleven subcategories of the Job Diagnostic Survey is Scale 11 (Table XXII) which describes the variable Growth Satisfaction. The mode is 6.0 with 17.9% of teachers choosing it

TABLE XVII

FREQUENCY RESULTS OF SCALE 6,
FEEDBACK FROM AGENTS

SCALE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	
1.0	1	0.3	
1.33	1	0.3	
1.67	7	1.8	
2.0	8	2.1	
2.33	4	1.0	
2.67	15	3.9	
3.0	14	3.6	
3.33	18	4.7	
3.67	23	6.0	
4.0	26	6.7	
4.33	24	6.2	
4.67	30	7.8	
5.0	29	7.5	
5.33	43	11.1	mode
5.67	33	8.5	
6.0	29	7.5	
6.33	37	9.6	
6.67	23	6.0	
7.0	21	5.4	

TABLE XVIII

FREQUENCY RESULTS OF SCALE 7,
INTERNAL WORK MOTIVATION

SCALE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	
2.75	1	0.3	
3.25	1	0.3	
3.75	1	0.3	
4.0	2	0.5	
4.5	3	0.8	
4.75	8	2.1	
5.0	15	3.9	
5.25	17	4.4	
5.5	19	4.9	
5.75	36	9.4	
6.0	36	9.4	
6.25	41	10.6	
6.5	48	12.5	
6.75	71	18.5	
7.0	86	22.3	mode

TABLE XIX

FREQUENCY RESULTS OF SCALE 8,
SECURITY SATISFACTION

SCALE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	
1	2	0.5	
1.5	2	0.5	
2.0	4	1.0	
2.5	4	1.0	
3.0	10	2.6	
3.5	9	2.3	
4.0	18	4.7	
4.5	18	4.7	
5.0	32	8.3	
5.5	42	10.9	
6.0	136	35.3	mode
6.5	51	13.2	
7.0	57	14.8	

TABLE XX

FREQUENCY RESULTS OF SCALE 9.
SOCIAL SATISFACTION

SCALE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	
2.67	2	0.5	
3.33	5	1.3	
3.67	4	1.0	
4.0	13	3.4	
4.33	4	1.0	
4.67	14	3.6	
5.0	13	3.4	
5.33	35	9.1	
5.67	37	9.6	
6.0	89	23.1	mode
6.33	76	19.7	
6.67	46	11.9	
7.0	47	12.2	

TABLE XXI

FREQUENCY RESULTS OF SCALE 10,
SUPERVISORY SATISFACTION

SCALE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	
1.0	8	2.1	
1.33	3	0.8	
1.67	5	1.3	
2.0	4	1.0	
2.33	5	1.3	
2.67	7	1.8	
3.0	10	2.6	
3.33	9	2.3	
3.67	8	2.1	
4.0	11	2.9	
4.33	14	3.6	
4.67	8	2.1	
5.0	28	7.3	
5.33	33	8.6	
5.67	30	7.8	
6.0	62	16.1	
6.33	36	9.4	
6.67	31	8.1	
7.0	73	19.0	mode

TABLE XXII

FREQUENCY RESULTS OF SCALE 11,
GROWTH SATISFACTION

SCALE	FREQUENCY	PERCENT	
2.25	2	0.5	
2.75	1	0.3	
3.0	1	0.3	
3.25	2	0.5	
4.0	7	1.8	
4.25	6	1.6	
4.5	10	2.6	
4.75	14	3.6	
5.0	15	3.9	
5.25	23	6.0	
5.5	39	10.1	
5.75	32	8.3	
6.0	69	17.9	mode
6.25	58	15.1	
6.5	34	8.8	
6.75	43	11.2	
7.0	29	7.5	

TABLE XXIII

ANALYSIS OF THE ELEVEN SCALES OF THE
JOB DIAGNOSTIC SURVEY (JDS)

SCALE	LABEL	N	MEAN	MODE	STD DEV	MIN	MAX
# 1	General Satisfaction	385	5.82	6.67	0.965	1.00	7.0
# 2	Task Identity	386	5.00	5.00	1.1873	2.00	7.0
# 3	Task Significance	386	6.45	7.00	0.7552	3.00	7.0
# 4	Autonomy	386	5.87	6.00	0.9512	1.00	7.0
# 5	Feedback From Job	386	5.52	6.00	1.0554	1.00	7.0
# 6	Feedback From Agents	386	4.88	5.33	1.3796	1.00	7.0
# 7	Internal Work Motivation	385	6.26	7.00	0.7147	2.75	7.0
# 8	Security Satisfaction	385	5.65	6.00	1.1717	1.00	7.0
# 9	Social Satisfaction	385	5.93	6.00	0.8452	2.67	7.0
#10	Supervisory Satisfaction	385	5.44	7.00	1.5119	1.00	7.0
#11	Growth Satisfaction	385	5.89	6.00	0.8128	2.25	7.0

for their mark. The next choice higher on the Scale was 6.25; the
two together received 33% of the marks from teachers. The mean is
5.89.

Interaction of the Two Instruments

Although the Pearson Correlation between the JDS scale and the
CAT score was moderately low for several of the Scales, the Tukey
Probability was significant on all but one. Supervisory
Satisfaction was the highest with a correlation of .484 with a
probability of .0001. Next was Feedback from Agents with a
correlation of .464 with a probability of .0001. Third highest was
Task Identity with a correlation of .390 and a probability of .0001.

The total number of teachers responding, the number of items
(questions) referring to that particular instrument or subscale,
survey population mean, Standard Deviation, Range, Pearson
correlation with CAT and Tukey probability are presented in Table
XXIV.

The purpose of this chapter was to describe and analyze the
data collected from the questionaires administered to teachers from
a stratified sample of twenty-four Oklahoma public independent
elementary schools. The two instruments and demographic data were
described and analyzed.

TABLE XXIV

ANALYSIS OF CORRELATED VARIABLES BETWEEN REPORTED PRESENCE
OF CLINICAL SUPERVISION BEHAVIORS (CAT) AND ELEVEN
SUBCATEGORIES OF THE JOB DIAGNOSTIC SURVEY (JDS)

CORRELATED VARIABLES	N	#	X	SD	Range	R	P
Consultant Activities and Techniques (CAT)	383	32	3.37	24.00	32 to 160		
1. General Satisfaction	385	3	5.82	.97	1.0 to 7.0	.121*	.018
2. Task Identity	386	3	5.00	1.19	2.0 to 7.0	.390**	.0001
3. Task Significance	386	3	6.45	.76	3.0 to 7.0	.054	.286
4. Autonomy	386	3	5.87	.95	1.0 to 7.0	.143**	.005
5. Feedback from the Job Itself	386	3	5.52	1.06	1.0 to 7.0	.136**	.007
6. Feedback from Agents	386	3	4.88	1.38	1.0 to 7.0	.464**	.0001
7. Internal Work Motivation	385	4	6.26	.71	2.8 to 7.0	.099*	.05
8. Security Satisfaction	385	2	5.65	1.17	1.0 to 7.0	.130**	.01
9. Social Satisfaction	385	3	5.93	.85	2.7 to 7.0	.174**	.0006
10. Supervisory Satisfaction	385	3	5.44	1.51	1.0 to 7.0	.484**	.0001
11. Growth Satisfaction	385	4	5.89	.81	2.3 to 7.0	.179**	.0004

*p<.05   **p<.01   N=Number of teacher participating
# = Number of items   X = Mean   SD = Standard Deviation   Range
R = Pearson Correlation: CAT with JDS Scale   P = Tukey Probabilty

Chapter V will report the summary of findings, conclusions, discussion and recommendations. The data in chapter IV will support these areas of Chapter V.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, DISCUSSION

AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

Every school day around the world, principals are working with teachers to enhance the teaching-learning process in the schools. The success of this endeavor depends upon many variables. The variables this study has focused upon examine the philosophy and techniques of Clinical Supervision and how it relates to 11 areas of Teacher Job Satisfaction.

Preparation for the research included a selective review of the literature, selecting instruments, developing of the survey instrument, and a preliminary pilot study.

Summary of the Study

The purpose of this study was to investigate how Clinical Supervision relates to teacher job satisfaction in Oklahoma's public elementary schools. The study included the examination of teachers' perceptions of, first, their principals' actual frequency of using various techniques (or behaviors) of Clinical Supervision and second, their job satisfaction.

This study was a descriptive one designed to collect data through a survey; results were analyzed by the correlation of the

results from two instruments included. These were James Shinn's

Consultant Activities and Techniques (CAT) Instrument and Hackman's

and Oldman's Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS).

An initial objective was to acquire a valid stratified sample

of teachers across the state. The focus of the study was on the

public independent elementary schools because the principal is

typically a teaching principal in the dependent school system and

would have little, if any, time for supervision. In 1988, according

to the Oklahoma Educational Directory, there were 946 public

independent elementary schools. The sample was 2.5% or 24 of the

public independent elementary schools in Oklahoma. The returned

surveys consisted of 23 schools excluding the single school that

failed to participate. A total of 598 teachers received surveys;

386 returned them (65%) (Table II). The school system size

categories included were 8 small (less than 100 certified

employees), 8 middle size and 7 large (over 400 certified

employees). Seven districts perceived themselves to be rural

districts; 11 suburban; and 5 urban (Table I).

The responses from teachers were the focus; however, the

stratified sample of schools assured fair geographic representation

of the state.

<div align="center">Summary of the Findings</div>

The findings are summarized as follows:

RESEARCH QUESTION 1   =   Does the level of Clinical

Supervision as measured by Shinn's Consultant Activities and

Techniques Instrument relate to the level of General Job

Satisfaction as measured by Hackman's and Oldham's Job

Diagnostic Survey?

> General Satisfaction (An overall measure of the
> degree to which the employee is satisfied and
> happy in his or her work. A private, affective
> reaction or feeling an employee gets from
> working on his or her job.)

Based upon the positive significant Pearson correlation,

the more teachers perceive Clinical Supervision to be practiced, the

more General Satisfaction they report (r = .121 P = .05).

> RESEARCH QUESTION 2 = Does the level of Clinical Supervision

relate to level of:

> a. Task Identity (The degree to which the job
>   requires the completion of a "whole" and
>   identifiable piece of work; i.e., doing a job
>   from beginning to end with a visible outcome.)

Based upon the positive significant Pearson correlation, the

more teachers perceive Clinical Supervision to be practiced, the

more Task Identity they report (r = .390 P < .01).

> b. Task Significance (The degree to which the
>   job has a substantial impact on the lives
>   or work of other people - whether in the
>   immediate organization or in the external
>   environment.)

Task Significance does not significantly relate to Clinical

Supervision (r = .054 P > .05).

> c. Autonomy (The degree to which the job
>   provides substantial freedom, independence,
>   and discretion to the employee in scheduling
>   his work and in determining the procedures
>   to be used in carrying it out.)

Based upon the positive significant Pearson correlation,

the more teachers perceive Clinical Supervision to be practiced, the

more Autonomy they report (r = .143 P < .01).

    d. <u>Feedback</u> <u>from</u> <u>the</u> <u>Job</u> <u>Itself</u> (The degree to
       which carrying out the work activities
       required by the job results in the employee's
       obtaining information about the effective-
       ness of his or her performance.)

Based upon the positive significant Pearson correlation, the

more teachers perceive Clinical Supervision to be practiced, the

more Feedback from the Job Itself they report (r = .136 P < .01).

    e. <u>Feedback</u> <u>from</u> <u>Agents</u> (The degree to which
       the employee receives information about his
       or her performance effectiveness from super-
       visors or from co-workers.)

Based upon the positive significant Pearson correlation, the

more teachers perceive Clinical Supervision to be practiced, the

more Feedback from Agents they report (r = .464 P < .01).

    f. <u>Internal</u> <u>Work</u> <u>Motivation</u> (The degree to which
       the employee is <u>self</u>-motivated to perform
       effectively on the job.)

Based upon the positive significant Pearson correlation, the

more teachers perceive Clinical Supervision to be practiced, the

more Internal Work Motivation they report (r = .099 P = .05).

    g. <u>Security</u> <u>Satisfaction</u> (The degree to which, the
       employee feels safe for his or her position and
       pay; the job provides freedom from danger.)

Based upon the positive significant Pearson correlation, the

more teachers perceive Clinical Supervision to be practiced, the

more Security Satisfaction they report (r = .130 P = .01).

h. Social Satisfaction (The degree to which the
    job provides the employee an opportunity to form
    cooperative and interdependent relationship with
    an individual or group.)

Based upon the positive significant Pearson correlation, the

more teachers perceive Clinical Supervision to be practiced, the

more Social Satisfaction they report (r = .174 P < .01).

i. Supervisory Satisfaction (The degree to which
    the employee is satisfied and happy with the
    style of supervisor.)

Based upon the positive significant Pearson correlation, the

more teachers perceive Clinical Supervision to be practiced, the

more Supervisory Satisfaction they report (r = .494 P < .01).

j. Growth Satisfaction (The degree to which the job
    allows or promotes professional or personal
    progressive development.)

Based upon the positive significant Pearson correlation, the

more teachers perceive Clinical Supervision to be practiced, the

more Growth Satisfaction they report (r = .179 P < .01).

Conclusions

Research Question #1

General Satisfaction - Based upon the positive significant

Pearson correlation, the more teachers perceive Clinical Supervision

to be practiced, the more General Satisfaction they report, it is

concluded that, if morale and job satisfaction are a problem in a

school, one way to have a positive influence on the degree to which

the teacher is satisfied and happy in his or her school, is to

provide more Clinical Supervision. The teacher's General

Satisfaction is related to the process of Clinical Supervision.

Research Question #2

Task Identity - If teachers need to improve the degree to

which their job requires them to do a complete job with follow-up on

students' progress, one way to have a better output from teachers is

to provide more Clinical Supervision.

Autonomy - Based upon the data, as one might expect,

Autonomy is significantly positively correlated with clinical

supervision. It is concluded, since Autonomy stimulates and

encourages creativity, innovation, independent thought, and decision

making, Clinical Supervision is one excellent way to enhance the

teacher's effectiveness. Therefore, the degree to which a job

provides an individual with freedom, independent decision-making,

and discretion in scheduling work and determining procedures to be

used in carrying out work assignments, will improve with Clinical

Supervision.

Feedback from Job Itself - If teachers are motivated to

obtain information about the effectiveness of their everyday

teaching activities, one way to have a positive influence on the

teaching-learning process is to provide more Clinical Supervision.

Since Clinical Supervision is initiated by the teacher and is

focused on objective data it would be non-threatening.

<u>Feedback from Agents</u> - It is important that the teacher receive information about his or her teaching effectiveness from principals, supervisors or from co-workers. As could be expected, Feedback from Agents is significantly positively correlated with Clinical Supervision because Clinical Supervision encourages the objective feedback from these assisting, encouraging, supporting cohorts (agents).

<u>Internal Work Motivation</u> - Since this psychological state is intrinsic to the individual and therefore cannot be manipulated, Clinical Supervision would be very compatible because it is teacher-centered and nonmanipulating.

<u>Security Satisfaction</u> - Based upon the findings that the higher degree of Clinical Supervision effects a higher degree of Security Satisfaction, it is concluded that the more Clinical Supervision there is, the more the teacher will feel safe from the danger of having his or her position or pay threatened.

<u>Social Satisfaction</u> - If Social Satisfaction is a critical element among teachers, Clinical Supervision is one way to improve it. Since Clinical Supervision, be it by the principal, supervisor or co-workers, is nonthreatening and builds trust and respect, it tends to form cooperative and interdependent relationships with an individual or group.

Supervisory Satisfaction - Since supervisors have the responsibility to accomplish this they must improve instruction and in order to improve communication between supervisors and teachers. It is concluded, one of the most fundamental ways of improving instruction is to implement (or practice more) Clinical Supervision.

Growth Satisfaction - Because there is a positive significant correlation between the amount of Clinical Supervision and the amount of Growth Satisfaction, it is concluded that to be able to stimulate personal and professional growth of teachers (which will improve the instructional process) that a Clinical Supervision program is appropriate in a school setting.

Discussion

The writer stated in Chapter I the hopes that this study would open the minds of the principals who know no other way but the traditional "Theory X" (McGregor, 1960) way of inspection and will provide them with better cognitive maps (Sergiovanni, 1987). From the improved cognitive maps, new approaches can be considered and more effective strategies of supervision can be developed.

The answers to the research questions may enlighten and give direction to educators, particularly elementary principals, regarding the philosophy, procedures, and process of clinical supervision and (if used properly) its relationship to teacher job satisfaction. In doing so, this study may be useful in assisting principals and/or supervisors in adjusting their supervisory style

to better meet the needs of teachers, students, principals, and the schools.

The literature seems to show that better teaching improves student learning. Based upon this literature, (and this study), one's conclusion might be that Clinical Supervision in fact does improve the teacher-learning process if job satisfaction is related to teaching effectiveness (as it well may be.)

Based upon theory, all these variables are related to improvement of instruction. If the principal is to enhance instruction, he or she must build a trusting, professional rapport with the teacher so two-way communication can take place. The data (findings) from this study support the idea that Clinical Supervision is a positive force in improving instruction through that rapport.

It should be noted and the reader cautioned that all schools and classrooms have their own distinct personalities. The teacher, with the assistance of the principal, must identify those areas that are of concern to that teacher's performance. In knowing that Clinical Supervision is one way to improve those areas that affect instruction, their collaboration should individualize and enrich those areas (or components).

In using a survey to examine the eleven different aspects of Job Satisfaction, it would be impossible to rule out other variables influencing the data outside the area being measured. Take General Satisfaction for instance. It is described in this case as the overall measure to which the teacher is satisfied and happy in his

or her work: A private, affective reaction or feeling a teacher
gets from working on his or her job. It would only stand to reason
that a teacher's basic personality, home life, financial situation,
time of year survey was given, crisis in educational funding and the
threat of walkouts, etc., would also have significant impact on
satisfaction. The list goes on when one notes the outside variables
that may influence the answers given and therefore the data.

Recommendations For Practice

During times of educational reform, the leaders of local
organizations, state associations, university leaders and
policymakers from the state legislature must form a closer alliance
to work together in the area of supervision. They must work
together for shared responsibility so as to be cohesive instead of
divisive, with all four areas doing "their thing" which often is
inefficient and ineffective. This too-common practice is not as
powerful an influence on teachers and schools as it could be if all
areas were to work together to focus on improvement.

Task Force 2000 (Oklahoma, 1990) has proven that leaders from
business, industry, higher education and public education in the
state of Oklahoma can get together to make many recommendations
about education and its needs for the future. The leaders in public
school administration are trying to do the same thing. It is the
opinion of this writer that the universities have to be the magnetic
force to bring these constituents together. The other components

must see the need of giving up a little control for the need of the profession.

In Chapter IV, Tables III through VI, reporting the CAT data, it was found that a great majority of teachers were receiving basically the same supervisor techniques and activities that they desire. However, Table VII demonstrates that the activities with the greatest disparity between the principals' actual and desired behaviors are the ones that reflect higher levels of training and experience in Clinical Supervision. All the tables, particularly Table VII, show that teachers are desiring more Clinical Supervision than they are actually receiving. Therefore, if principals are going to be more effective in instructional supervision and leadership, they are to see the benefits of Clinical Supervision and have more opportunities for Staff Development workshops, university classes and faculty participation. Faculties need to also be enlightened (sold) on the concepts of Clinical Supervision, peer coaching and other related areas.

Many present and prospective principals are aware of leadership style models but are not aware of their options for successful supervision style models. They should be able to assess their own supervision styles to see if they are satisfied with what they are doing.

Inservice practicum classes in supervision are needed to teach techniques for dealing with real-life situations through simulated scenarios. Also, ongoing professional development and training programs should be provided for all personnel in administrative and

supervisory positions. Communication, participation and networking within the classes should be encouraged by the professors. These educational opportunities should be at the state level, along with county and district level. They should be coordinated for quality by the university and the professional associations, not for efficiency by the state department. Workshops on Clinical Supervision for entire faculties with recommended sequential steps are needed for implementation into the school.

Recommendations For Further Research

The following are recommendations for further research:

1. It would be beneficial to future researchers if the Job Diagnostic Survey was modified to fit specifically to the school setting and education.

2. It would be interesting to determine the appropriateness of the JDS for the school setting.

3. What does the literature say can be done to reduce the dissatisfiers and enhance the satisfiers in the schools? In other words, how does Hackman and Oldman's work redesign fit in the school setting?

4. Principals could rate themselves on the same two instruments that were used in this study and correlate the results with how teachers view the principal and his or her supervisory style.

5. A correlation between the "Actual" and the "Desired" degree of satisfaction of the 11 different areas of Job Diagnostic Survey would prove useful.

6. Demographic questions that would better describe the different school systems allowing a Discriminate-Function Analysis to be used.

7. One could do a similiar study with the JDS at the secondary level to determine if teachers are similar or dissimilar in the areas of satisfaction.

8. A study could be made to see if principals and teachers have the same perceptions of Clinical Supervision.

9. A qualitative study could be made in which interviewers may ask teachers to identify principal's behaviors that teachers view as positive and negative as far as improving the teaching/learning process.

10. It is recommended that research be continued to further investigate supervisory styles and teacher preferences for supervision styles. Better supevision improves the communication between principals and teachers and has the potential to enhance job satisfaction for both.

11. The study could be replicated using a <u>random</u> <u>sample</u> of the teachers of Oklahoma independent public elementary schools to see if the findings are accurate, the return percentage is similar, and if the state would be represented in areas of local, size and type of systems.

12.   More research could be made on <u>gender</u> of principal
to determine if supervision styles are different, and how
differences affect teacher behavior.

A Final Statement

In Chapter I, school management and instructional leadership
were referred to as very important roles. In elementary schools,
very often the principal has the two responsibilities (of many) of
both being the site manager plus the instructional supervisor.
These may seem to be antithetical by some educators, but the school
leader does not necessarily have to experience role conflicts.

Current trends in psychology, sociology, and education
that are proving successful in helping people, tend to be client-or
teacher-centered. They are based on reality with emphasis on
interacting, trusting, reflecting, developing, and constant evolving
with the actions reflecting theory.

The cycles that Cogan (1973), Goldhammer (1969), Acheson and
Gall (1980) prescribe are to enhance or develop a key to
communication. Without this communication, the sharing of ideas,
feelings, and philosophy cannot take place. Empathy does not happen
all at once. For trust to build between the two educators, each
must at least partially see through the mind's eye of the other.
This process can begin through prescribed steps and mature beyond
mere techniques to true reflective practice.

The techniques and instruments of Clinical Supervision are only "tools of the trade". Without the proper philosophy and desire they are of little benefit, like a scalpel in the hands of a doctor without the proper surgical education. However, with a nurturing and caring philosophy the techniques and instruments of Clinical Supervision are supporting tools to the process itself.

The appropriate supervisory style promotes collegial communication between the teacher and the principal; it also promotes the positive networking of the faculty, PTA and other support groups. If success breeds success, then a constant sincere communication begets a trusting rapport, which, in turn, enhances the probability of improved instruction and a more satisfied faculty.

Sergiovanni and Starratt's (1988) assumption that performance is a means to satisfaction rather than satisfaction being viewed as a means to performance, is the concept this study fully supports. Therefore, a principal, if he or she is prudent, should desire both; quality teaching peformance and high teacher job satisfaction. To enhance performance through the techniques and philosophy of Clinical Supervision will likewise have a positive influence on teacher job satisfaction.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

ADDITIONAL TABLES

TABLE XXV

SCORES OF 386 TEACHERS FROM THE "SUM OF ACTUAL" COLUMN OF THE
CONSULTANT ACTIVITIES AND TECHNIQUES INSTRUMENT THAT
INDICATES THE PRESENCE OF CLINICAL SUPERVISION

TEACHER	SUM OF ACTUAL	TCH	SOA	TCH	SOA	TCH	SOA	TCH	SOA	TCH	SOA	TCH	SOA	TCH	SOA
1	99	51	---	101	89	151	125	201	135	251	96	301	109	351	74
2	104	52	78	102	127	152	115	202	123	252	103	302	118	352	107
3	96	53	137	103	149	153	117	203	120	253	110	303	127	353	67
4	96	54	132	104	88	154	127	204	98	254	137	304	116	354	50
5	96	55	60	105	80	155	137	205	124	255	132	305	110	355	89
6	83	56	91	106	79	156	101	206	102	256	122	306	142	356	101
7	68	57	115	107	117	157	103	207	141	257	91	307	118	357	136
8	140	58	143	108	54	158	126	208	100	258	102	308	89	358	112
9	75	59	81	109	91	159	114	209	122	259	128	309	107	359	130
10	109	60	94	110	135	160	86	210	126	260	122	310	124	360	112
11	126	61	93	111	96	161	129	211	81	261	60	311	89	361	93
12	75	62	138	112	117	162	116	212	109	262	58	312	97	362	122
13	105	63	102	113	114	163	97	213	127	263	60	313	112	363	88
14	94	64	59	114	95	164	128	214	123	264	74	314	110	364	119
15	99	65	52	115	117	165	56	215	130	265	105	315	108	365	103
16	129	66	119	116	18	166	103	216	137	266	107	316	137	366	88
17	86	67	68	117	101	167	88	217	142	267	78	317	104	367	104
18	104	68	75	118	96	168	119	218	123	268	83	318	102	368	137
19	99	69	79	119	74	169	84	219	119	269	68	319	127	369	96
20	117	70	53	120	74	170	133	220	89	270	83	320	129	370	99
21	129	71	84	121	69	171	93	221	147	271	78	321	79	371	123
22	142	72	66	122	54	172	126	222	144	272	82	322	120	372	137
23	117	73	87	123	66	173	145	223	141	273	112	323	120	373	71
24	101	74	113	124	71	174	128	224	115	274	111	324	128	374	73
25	140	75	84	125	99	175	127	225	125	275	93	325	92	375	111
26	140	76	66	126	111	176	107	226	127	276	115	326	72	376	113
27	93	77	45	127	113	177	124	227	120	277	91	327	86	377	73
28	105	78	36	128	103	178	133	228	107	278	71	328	88	378	104
29	110	79	134	129	96	179	139	229	107	279	99	329	107	379	93
30	129	80	135	130	60	180	147	230	120	280	115	330	109	380	139
31	148	81	148	131	68	181	138	231	98	281	104	331	139	381	107
32	121	82	143	132	109	182	104	232	126	282	95	332	108	382	89
33	121	83	122	133	104	183	119	233	124	283	90	333	118	383	87
34	148	84	141	134	95	184	131	234	108	284	73	334	110	384	87
35	130	85	134	135	98	185	117	235	108	285	83	335	107	385	99
36	147	86	89	136	84	186	142	236	81	286	95	336	119	386	89
37	71	87	141	137	90	187	108	237	84	287	84	337	131		
38	107	88	127	138	91	188	76	238	57	288	112	338	124		
39	133	89	101	139	108	189	130	239	95	289	118	339	127		
40	143	90	---	140	133	190	101	240	104	290	98	340	119		
41	95	91	114	141	132	191	123	241	137	291	94	341	113		
42	154	92	134	142	147	192	136	242	116	292	111	342	---		
43	118	93	153	143	124	193	130	243	107	293	86	343	117		
44	120	94	110	144	130	194	118	244	82	294	111	344	136		
45	113	95	105	145	91	195	135	245	68	295	99	345	89		
46	125	96	89	146	120	196	109	246	123	296	103	346	121		
47	130	97	112	147	46	197	115	247	111	297	129	347	82		
48	138	98	83	148	128	198	113	248	46	298	97	348	124		
49	86	99	43	149	101	199	131	249	103	299	105	349	94		
50	128	100	112	150	119	200	94	250	88	300	134	350	72		

TABLE XXVI

INDIVIDUAL TEACHER AND SCHOOL RESULTS ON SUM OF "ACTUAL"
SCORE AND GENERAL SATISFACTION MEAN
(RESEARCH QUESTION #1)

School #1

T#	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
CS	99	104	96	96	96	83	68	140	75	109	123
GS	6 3	6 3	7 0	6 7	6 0	5 3	5 0	7 0	6 0	4 7	5 3

T#	12	13	N = 13
CS	75	105	SA = 97 9
GS	6 3	6 3	SA = 6 03
			r = 235
			P = 43

School #2

T#	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25
CS	94	99	129	86	104	99	117	129	142	117	101	140
GS	4 7	5 0	4 7	6 0	7 0	6 0	6 0	7 0	5 0	7 0	6.0	4 0

T#	26	27	N = 14
CS	140	93	SA = 113 6
GS	5 0	5 7	SA = 5 64
			r = 295
			P = 30

School #3

T#	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39
CS	105	110	129	148	121	121	148	130	147	71	107	133
GS	5 0	6 3	6 0	6 0	5 0	4 3	5 0	5 0	7 0	5 7	5 2	6 8

T#	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	N = 21
CS	143	95	154	118	120	113	125	130	138	SA = 124 1
GS	6 7	5 3	6 3	6 0	4 7	6 3	6 3	5 7	6 0	SA = 5 71
										r = 310
										P = 17

CODE   T# = Teacher Number
        CS = Clinical Supervision (Sum of "actual" score on CAT)
        GS = General Satisfaction (score from JDS)
        SA = School Average
        r = Pearson Correlation with Clinical Supervision
        P = Tukey Probability
        N = Number of Teachers Responding

TABLE XXVI (Continued)

School #4

T#	49	50	51	52	53	54	55	56	57	58	59	60
CS	86	128	---	78	137	132	60	91	115	143	81	94
GS	6 3	7 0	6 3	6.0	6 0	6.3	4 3	5 7	4 7	7 0	6 0	6 7

T#	61	62	63	64	65	66	67		
CS	93	138	102	59	52	119	68		
GS	5 0	6 7	6 0	5.0	6 0	6 3	7 0		

N = 19
SA = 98.7
SA = 6 02
r = 424
P = 07

School #5

T#	68	69	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78
CS	75	79	53	84	66	87	113	84	66	45	36
GS	6 7	6 7	5.0	4 7	6.7	7 0	6.0	6 0	5.7	6 7	6.0

N = 11
SA = 71.6
SA = 6.09
r = 031
P = 92

School #6

T#	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88	89	90
CS	134	135	148	143	122	141	134	89	141	127	101	---
GS	5 7	7 0	5.7	5 0	5.0	5.3	6.7	6.7	7.0	6 7	7 0	6 0

T#	91	92	93		
CS	114	134	153		
GS	5.3	6.7	6 3		

N = 15
SA = 129.7
SA = 6 13
r = .210
P = .47

School #7

T#	94	95	96	97	98	99	100	101	102	103	104	105
CS	110	105	89	112	83	43	112	89	127	149	38	80
GS	1 0	3 7	4.7	3 7	7 0	3.7	5 3	6.0	6.3	6 7	5.0	4 7

T#	106	107	108	109	110	111		
CS	79	117	54	91	135	96		
GS	5.7	5.7	4 7	5.0	6.0	1 3		

N = 18
SA = 97.7
SA = 4.78
r = 207
P = 47

School #8

T#	112	113	114	115	116	117	118	119	120	121	122	123
CS	117	114	95	117	*18	101	36	74	74	69	54	66
GS	6 7	6 3	6 0	6 3	7 0	3 7	5 3	4 3	6.0	4.3	5 7	6 0

N = 12
SA = 82 9
SA = 5 64
r = 070
P = 32

TABLE XXVI (Continued)

School #9

T#	124	125	126	127	128	129	130	131	132	133	134	135
CS	71	99	111	113	103	96	60	68	109	104	95	98
GS	4 7	6 3	6.3	6.7	7.0	5 7	5.7	4.3	7 0	5 0	5.0	6 3

T#	136	137	138	N	=	15
CS	84	90	91	SA	=	92 8
GS	4 7	6 3	7 0	SA	=	5 87
				r	=	603
				P	=	02

School #10

T#	139	140	141	142	143	144	145	146	147	148	149	150
CS	108	133	132	147	124	130	91	120	46	128	101	119
GS	6.3	6 0	5.0	6.7	6 3	6.3	5 7	6.7	6.3	7.0	6.3	6.0

T#	151	152	153	154	155	156	157	158	159	160	161	162
CS	125	115	117	127	137	101	103	126	114	86	129	116
GS	5.3	6.7	4.7	6.0	5.0	6.0	6.0	6 3	6.0	6.7	6.7	7 0

T#	163	164	165	166	167	168	169	N	=	31
CS	97	128	56	103	88	119	84	SA	=	111.3
GS	6 7	6.3	4.3	3.3	6 3	2.7	6 0	SA	=	5.89
								r	=	.084
								P	=	.65

School #11

T#	170	171	172	173	174	175	176	177	178	179	180	181
CS	133	93	126	145	128	127	107	124	133	139	147	138
GS	7 0	6.0	7.0	5.0	2.3	5.7	6 7	6.3	5.7	5 3	5.0	6.7

T#	182	183	184	185	186	187	188	189	190	191	192	193
CS	104	119	131	117	142	108	76	130	101	123	136	130
GS	6 3	6.0	7 0	3 3	5 0	6 0	5 7	6.7	4.7	5 7	6.7	5 3

T#	194	195	N	=	
CS	118	135	SA	=	123.5
GS	6 0	5.7	SA	=	5.72
			r	=	.033
			P	=	87

School #12

T#	196	197	198	199	200	201	202	203	204	205	206	207
CS	109	115	113	131	94	135	123	120	98	124	102	141
GS	6 3	6 7	6 0	5 7	4 3	6 0	6 7	7 0	6 7	5.3	5.0	5 0

T#	208	209	N	=	14
CS	100	122	SA	=	116.2
GS	6 7	6 3	SA	=	5 98
			r	=	003
			P	=	99

TABLE XXVI (Continued)

School #13

T#	210	211	212	213	214	215	216	217	218	219	220
CS	126	81	109	127	123	130	137	142	123	119	89
GS	6.0	5 0	6.0	5.7	5 7	4 0	5 3	7 0	6.7	7.0	6.7

T#	221	222	223	224	225	226	227	228	229	230	
CS	147	144	141	115	125	127	120	107	107	120	
GS	7.0	7.0	6.3	5.7	7.0	5 0	5.0	6.7	6.7	5.0	

$N = 21$
$SA = 121.9$
$SA = 6.02$
$r = .155$
$P = .50$

School #14

T#	231	232	233	234	235	236	237	238	239	240	241	242
CS	98	126	124	108	108	81	84	57	95	104	137	116
GS	3 7	5.7	6.0	5.0	4 7	6.3	5.0	4.7	6.0	5.7	6.3	5.7

T#	243	244	245	246	247	248	249	250	251	252
CS	107	82	68	123	111	46	103	88	96	103
GS	4 7	6.0	5.7	4.3	5 7	5.0	6 0	6.0	6.0	7.0

$N = 22$
$SA = 98.4$
$SA = 5.50$
$r = .132$
$P = .56$

School #15

T#	253	254	255	256	257	258	259	260
CS	110	137	132	122	91	102	128	122
GS	5.7	6.7	7.0	5.7	6.0	5.3	6.7	5.0

$N = 8$
$SA = 118.0$
$SA = 6.00$
$r = .525$
$P = .18$

School #16

T#	261	262	263	264	265	266	267	268	269
CS	60	58	60	74	105	107	78	83	68
GS	6.7	6.7	6.0	6.7	6.7	7.0	6.7	5.7	6 7

$N = 9$
$SA = 77.0$
$SA = 6.52$
$r = 251$
$P = 51$

School #17

T#	270	271	272	273	274	275	276	277	278	279	280	281
CS	83	78	82	112	111	93	115	91	71	99	115	104
GS	4.7	6.3	4 7	7.0	7.0	4.0	6 7	7.0	4 7	2.0	7.0	5 7

T#	282	283	284
CS	95	90	73
GS	4 7	6.3	6 7

$N = 15$
$SA = 94.1$
$SA = 5.62$
$r = 279$
$P = 31$

TABLE XXVI (Continued)

School #18

T#	285	286	287	288	289	290	291	292	293	294	295	296
CS	83	95	84	112	118	98	94	111	86	111	99	103
GS	5 0	5.7	6 0	5.0	6 7	5 3	5 0	6.0	5.3	6 3	6 0	5 3

T#	297	298	299	300	301	302	303	304	305	306	307	N = 23
CS	129	97	105	134	109	118	127	116	110	142	118	SA = 109.1
GS	5.7	7 0	4 7	6.7	5 3	7.0	6.7	4 3	5.7	6.0	5.3	SA = 5.74

$r = .338$

$P = .11$

School #19

T#	308	309	310	311	312	313	314	315	316	317	318	319
CS	89	107	124	89	97	112	110	108	137	104	102	127
GS	6.0	6 7	7.0	6.7	6.0	6.0	5 0	7.0	6.3	6 3	5 7	7.0

T#	320	321	322	N = 15
CS	129	79	120	SA = 108.9
GS	6 3	6 3	6.3	SA = 6.31

$r = .216$

$P = 44$

School #20

T#	323	324	325	326	327	328	329	330	331	332	333	334
CS	120	128	92	72	86	88	107	109	139	108	118	110
GS	6 7	5.0	3.7	5.3	5.0	5.0	6.7	5.7	7.0	4.7	6.0	6 7

T#	335	336	337	338	339	340	341	342	343	344	345	346
CS	107	119	131	124	127	119	113	---	117	136	89	121
GS	7 0	6 3	5 0	5 7	5.3	5 0	7 0	5 7	6 7	6 3	5 7	5.7

N = 24

SA = 112.2

SA = 5 78

$r = 347$

$P = 10$

School #21

T#	347	348	349	350	351	352	353	354	355	356	357	358
CS	82	124	94	72	74	107	67	50	89	101	136	112
GS	5 3	3 3	5 3	7 0	6 3	5 7	6 7	5 3	6 7	6 3	4 7	6 7

T#	359	360	361	362	363	364	365	N = 19
CS	130	112	93	122	88	119	103	SA = 98 7
GS	5 0	---	6 7	6 3	6 3	5 0	7 0	SA = 5 87

$r = 446$

$P = 06$

School #22

T#	366	367	368	369	370	371	372	N = 7
CS	68	104	137	96	99	123	137	SA = 112 0
GS	6 3	5 0	6 3	6 3	6 7	6 0	6 7	SA = 6 19

$r = 159$

$P = 73$

TABLE XXVI (Continued)

School #23

T#	373	374	375	376	377	378	379	380	381	382	383	384
CS	71	73	111	113	73	104	93	139	107	89	87	87
GS	4.7	5.7	6.3	6.7	4.3	5.0	7.0	7.0	6.7	5.0	5.0	5.0

T#	385	386		
CS	99	89	SA =	95.4
GS	7 0	4.7	SA =	5.71
			r =	.694
			P =	.006

N = 14

OVERALL

N = 386
CS = 106.45
GS = 5.82
r = .121
P = .01

APPENDIX B

CORRESPONDENCE

7510 East 65th St.
Tulsa, OK 74133

May 1, 1990

Dr. James Shinn
Director of Personnel Services
Montgomery County Public Schools
850 Hungerford Dr.
Rockville, Maryland

Dear Dr. Shinn:

Hi, my name is Michael Burk and I am a doctorate candidate at
Oklahoma State University in Educational Administration.

I am requesting your permission to use the instrument that you
developed that reflects the presence (amount or degree) of
Clinical Supervision. I would like to do a correlation between
your instrument and one of Richard Hackman's and Greg Oldman's,
"Job Diagnostic Survey". Their's is an instrument for the
diagnosis of jobs and the evaluation of job redesign. In other
words, it reflects fifteen or so areas of "job satisfaction". I
would like to determine if the greater presence of clinical
supervision relates to higher teacher job satisfaction.

I first became interested in your work while researching
Acheson's and Gall's (1980), "Techniques in the Clinical
Supervision of Teachers". I have obviously found it intriguing.

Please drop me a note in the enclosed addressed, stamped envelope
as soon as possible. Your help would be greatly appreciated.

Thank you very much.

Michael P. Burk

7510 East 65th St.
Tulsa, OK 74133

June 1, 1990

Dr. Greg Oldman
Prof. Greg R. Oldham
Department of Business Administration
Univ. of Illinois
Urbana, Illinois 61801

Dear Dr. Oldman:

Hi, my name is Michael Burk and I am a doctorate candidate at
Oklahoma State University in Educational Administration.

I am requesting your permission to use the instrument that you
and Dr. Richard Hackman developed, the "Job Diagnostic Survey".
I will be surveying 550 Oklahoma elementary school teachers
across the state. I will correlate that with an instrument that
Dr. James Shinn developed that reflects the presence (amount or
degree) of clinical supervision.

Please drop me a note in the enclosed addressed, stamped envelope
as soon as possible. Your help would be greatly appreciated.

Thank you very much.

Michael P. Burk

Mr. Burk,
you have my
permission to use
the JDS. Good luck
with your project.

Greg Oldham

7510 East 65th St.
Tulsa, OK 74133

June 1, 1990

Prof. J. Richard Hackman
56 Hillhouse Avenue
Yale University
New Haven, CT 06520

Dear Dr. Hackman:

Hi, my name is Michael Burk and I am a doctorate candidate at
Oklahoma State University in Educational Administration.

I am requesting your permission to use the instrument that you
and Dr. Greg Oldman developed, the "Job Diagnostic Survey". I
will be surveying 550 Oklahoma elementary school teachers across
the state. I will correlate that with an instrument that Dr.
James Shinn developed that reflects the presence (amount or
degree) of clinical supervision.

Please drop me a note in the enclosed addressed, stamped envelope
as soon as possible. Your help would be greatly appreciated.

Thank you very much.

Michael P. Burk

7-10-90

Ok to use.
Erin Lehman for
Professor Hackman
(617/495-8850)
Boston

P.S Professor Hackman's new
address is:
William James Hall
Harvard University
33 Kirkland St
Cambridge, MA
02138

Montgomery
County
Public
Schools

550 Hungerford Drive   Rockville Maryland   20850-1747

Telephone   279-3361

June 26, 1990

Mr. Michael P. Burk
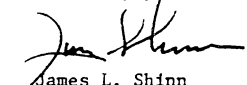7510 East 65th Street
Tulsa, OK 74133

Dear Mr. Burk:

I would be honored for you to use the instrument which I used for my
dissertation. It has been used many times and the results seem consistent.
The correlation you propose would be of special interest to me and I am sure to
Drs. Acheson and Gall. I keep in contact with them and will let them know of
your study.

Please call on me if I can be of any assistance. My office number is (301)
279-3361 and home is (703) 280-2668.

Best wishes to you in your doctoral program.

Sincerely yours,

James L. Shinn
Director of Personnel Services

JLS:bjj

Dear Survey Coordinator:

I want to thank you in advance for your time and help with this study. Your school is one of twenty five elementary schools across the state being surveyed.

If you will distribute the smaller envelopes with the survey inside, including the attached message from the principal, to the teachers (K-5 or K-6), I will be requesting the teachers to fill them out, putting them sealed in the large evelope and in a safe place. Please attempt to get as many back as possible without pressuring the teachers. I want to assure you and the teachers that all responses will remain completely confidential. No names of schools or persons will be used.

I will make arrangements with you to either have them mailed C.O.D. or I will pick them up. Please fill out the school "Background Information" and participate in the survey also.

                    Thanks again for your help,

                    Mike Burk
                    Doctoral Candidate

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

The demographic data to be gathered were:

1. Size of elementary school K-6   _____
    1. less than 100   3. 200-300   5. 400-500
    2. 100-200   4. 300-400   6. over 500

2. Approximate size of school system   _____
    1. 1-250   3. 501-1000   5. more than 10,000
    2. 251-500   4. 1001-10,000

3. Urban = U, Suburban = S, or Rural = R   _____

4. Total years of principal as administrator
    1. 1-2   3. 8-15   5. 21 and over
    2. 3-7   4. 16-20   _____

5. Total years of principal in education profession
    1. 1-5   3. 11-15   5. 21-25
    2. 6-10   4. 16-20   6. Over 25   _____

6. Is there a person that performs supervision other than
    the principal? No   Yes - if so, than who?

LETTER FROM PRINCIPAL TO TEACHERS AT PARTICIPATING SCHOOLS

Teachers

Mike Burk principal at Chouteau elementary and doctoral student, has asked
is to participate in a research project   we have been selected as one of twenty
five schools across the state to participate   After visiting with him, I
believe it is a worthwhile study
    I have placed the booklet in your box.   It consists of two short surveys
that can be marked with a check or a number   Responses are confidential. Names
are not asked   write on the survey put it into the envelope and seal it.   If
you choose not to participate, just write that on the envelope and seal it   All
envelopes should be given to _____who will send
them to Chouteau on Thursday   Mr Burk thanks you in advance

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE

April. 1990

Dear Fellow Educator

Your school has been selected to participate in a statewide
study which will be investigating some aspects of
instructional supervision. I am truly aware of how very busy
you are at this time of the year, however, your response is
essential to the quality of this study.

Please complete the enclosed two surveys. It is important to
respond to every item. An enclosed envelope has been
provided for your convenience so that you may return the
information as quickly as possible. Please seal the envelope
and give to your survey coordinator whose name is on the note
from the principal Of course, all responses will remain
completely confidential. No names of schools or persons will
be used in the final study results.

Please forward all surveys to me within a week of receiving
it. Thank you so very much for your time and consideration
of this request

Sincerely.

Michael P Burk. Principal
Chouteau Elementary School
Doctoral Candidate

For Your Information   Instrument #1 is from James L. Shinn ·
and Instrument #2 is from J Richard Hackman and Greg R.
Oldham.

Directions. Please think about your experiences when working with your principal or supervisor. Read each of the following descriptions of principal or supervisor activities and techniques.

Circle the number for each item in the *left* response column which most nearly describes the extent to which your principal or supervisor *actually* uses this technique. Circle the number for each item in the *right* respuse column which most nearly describes the extent to which you believe the principal or supervisor *ideally* should use this technique.

Consultant Activities and Techniques	Actual never	seldom	sometimes	frequently	almost always	Desired never	seldom	sometimes	frequently	almost always
1. Meets with me prior to classroom visits	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
2. Asks about my lesson objectives and strategies prior to visit	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3 Asks about my expectations of students	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
4. Asks about my concerns prior to visit	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
5. Involves me in choosing methods of data collection for the visit	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
6. Helps me identify teaching behaviors expected prior to the visit	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
7. Suggests observational techniques	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
8. Suggests self-supervision techniques	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
9. Records systematic data during visit	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
10. Makes verbatim notes during visit	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
11. Writes my questions during visit	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
12. Writes student responses during visit	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
13. Records analysis of student time on task	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
14. Charts student response	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
15. Makes audio recordings	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
16. Charts physical movement of students	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
17. Makes video recordings	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
18. Observes specific problem child	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
19. Gives his/her opinions regarding my class	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
20 Stays for complete activity	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
21. Meets with me after each visit to discuss observations	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
22. Gives me direct advice	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
23. Gives his/her opinions regarding my teaching	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
24. Relates my perceptions to the recorded data	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
25. Encourages my inferences and opinions	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
26. Asks me questions for clarification	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
27. Encourages alternative teaching techniques	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
28. Accommodates my priorities	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
29. Listens more than he/she talks	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
30 Acknowledges my comments	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
31. Gives praise and encouragement	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
32 Recommends resources for further improvement	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

On this and the following pages, you will find several different questions about your job. Specific instructions are given at the start of each section. Please read them carefully and move through it quickly.

The questions are designed to obtain your perceptions of your job and your reactions to it. There are no "trick" questions. Thanks again for your help.

SECTION ONE

This part of the questionnaire asks you to describe your job as objectively as you can. Please do <u>not</u> use this part of the questionnaire to show how much you like or dislike your job. Questions about that will come later. Instead, try to make your descriptions as accurate and as objective as you possibly can.
** **Please place your answer on the space provided at the left of each question.**

1. To what extent does your job require you to work closely with other people (either "clients" or people in related jobs in your organization)?

```
1-------2-------3-------4-------5-------6-------7
```

Very little;	Moderately;	Very much;
dealing with	some dealing	dealing with
other people is	with others is	other people is an
not at all	necessary	absolutely
necessary in		essential part of
doing the job		doing the job

2. How much autonomy is there in your job? That is, to what extent does your job permit you to decide on you own how to go about doing your work?

```
1-------2-------3-------4-------5-------6-------7
```

Very little;	Moderate autonomy;	Very much; the
the job gives me	many things are	job gives me
almost no personal	standardized and	almost complete
"say" about how and	not under my control	responsibility
when the work is	but I can make some	for deciding how
done	decisions about the	and when the
	work	work is done

3. To what extent does your job involve doing a "whole" and identifiable piece of work? That is, is the job a complete piece of work that has an obvious beginning and end? Or is it only a small part of the overall piece of work, which is finished by other people or by automatic machines?

```
1-------2-------3-------4-------5-------6-------7
```

My job is only a	My job is a	My job involves
tiny part of the	moderate-sized	doing the whole
overall piece of	"chunk" of the	piece of work,
work; the results	overall piece	the results of my
of my activities	of work; my own	activities are
cannot be seen in	contribution is	easily seen in
the final product	seen in the	the final product
	final product	

4. How much variety is there in your job? That is, to what extent does your job require you to do many different things at work, using a variety of your skills and talents?

```
1-------2-------3-------4-------5-------6-------7
```

Very little; the
job requires me to do
the same routine
things over and over

Moderate
variety

Very much; the job
requires me to do
many different things

5. In general, how significant or important is your job? That is, are the results of your work likely to significantly affect the lives or well-being of other people?

```
1-------2-------3-------4-------5-------6-------7
```

Not very significant;
the outcomes of my work
are not likely to have
important effects on
other people

Moderately
significant

Highly significant;
the outcomes of my
work can affect
other people in very
important ways

6. To what extent do managers or co-workers let you know how well you are doing your job?

```
1-------2-------3-------4-------5-------6-------7
```

Very little; people
almost never let me
know how well I am
doing

Moderately,
sometimes people
may give me
"feedback;"
other times
they may not

Very much; managers
or co-workers
provide me with
almost constant
"feedback" about how
well I am doing

7. To what extent does doing the job itself provide you with information about your work performance? That is, does the actual work itself provide provide clues about how well you are doing--aside from any "feedback" co-workers or supervisors may provide?

```
1-------2-------3-------4-------5-------6-------7
```

Very little; the
job itself is set
up so I could work
forever without
finding out how
well I am doing

Moderately;
sometimes doing
the job provides
"feedback" to me,
sometimes it does
not

Very much; I get
almost constant
"feedback" about how
well I am doing

SECTION TWO

Listed below are a number of statements which could be used to describe a job.
You are to indicate whether each statement is an accurate or an inaccurate
description of your job. Once again, please try to be as objective as you
can deciding how accurately each statement describes your job--regardless of
whether you like or dislike your job.

How accurate is the statement in describing your job?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very	Mostly	Slightly	Uncertain	Slightly	Mostly	Very
---------Inaccurate----------				-----------Accurate---------		

8. The job requires me to use a number of complex or high-level skills.

9. The job requires a lot of cooperative work with other people.

10. The job is arranged so that I do not have a chance to do an entire piece
    of work from beginning to end.

11. Just doing that work required by the job provides many chances for me to
    figure out how well I am doing.

12. The job is quite simple and repetitive.

13. The job can be done adequately be a person working alone--without talking
    or checking with other people.

14. The supervisors and co-workers on this job almost never give me any
    "feedback" about how well I am doing in my work.

15. This job is one where a lot of other people can be affected by how well
    the work gets done.

16. The job denies me any chance to use my personal initiative or judgment
    in carrying out the work.

17. Supervisors often let me know how well they think I am performing the job.

18. The job provides me the chance to completely finish the pieces of work I
    begin.

19. The job itself provides very few clues about whether or not I am
    performing well.

20. The job gives me considerable opportunity for independence and freedom
    in how I do the work.

21. The job itself is not very significant or important in the broader
    scheme of things.

SECTION THREE

Now, please indicate how you personally feel about your job. Each of the statements below is something that a person might say about his or her job. You are to indicate your own personal feelings about your job by marking how much you agree with each of the statements.

How much do you agree with the statement?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
--------Disagree---------			Neutral	-----------Agree----------		
Strongly		Slightly		Slightly		Strongly

22. My opinion of myself goes up when I do this job well.

23. Generally speaking, I am very satisfied with this job.

24. I feel a great sense of personal satisfaction when I do this job well.

25. I frequently think of quitting this job.

26. I feel bad and unhappy when I discover that I have performed poorly on this job.

27. I am generally satisfied with the kind of work I do in this job.

28. My own feelings generally are not affected much one way or the other by how well I do on this job.

SECTION FOUR

Now, please indicate how satisfied you are with each aspect of your job listed below. Once again, record the appropriate number in the space provided at the left of each statement.

How satisfied are you with this aspect of your job?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
-------Dissatisfied---------			Neutral	---------Satisfied---------		
Extremely	Slightly			Slightly		Extremely

29. The amount of job security I have.

30. The amount of pay and fringe benefits I receive.

31. The amount of personal growth and development I get in doing my job.

32. The people talk to and work with on my job.

33. The degree of respect and fair treatment I receive from my boss.

34. The feeling of worthwhile accomplishment I get from doing my job.

35. The chance to get to know other people while on the job.

36. The amount of support and guidance I receive from my supervisor.

37. The degree to which I am fairly paid for what I contribute to this organization.

38. The amount of independent thought and action I can exercise in this job.

39. How secure things look for me in the future in this organization.

40. The chance to help other people while at work.

41. The amount of challenge in my job.

42. The overall quality of the supervision I receive in my work.

SECTION FIVE

Listed below are a number of characteristics which could be present on any job. I am interested in learning how much you personally would like to have each one present in your job.

Using the scale below, please indicate the degree to which you would like to have each characteristic present in your job.

NOTE: THE NUMBERS ON THIS SCALE ARE DIFFERENT FROM THOSE USED IN PREVIOUS SCALES

```
4-----------5-----------6------------7-----------8-----------9-----------10
Would like                     Would like                 Would like having
having this only               having this                this a lot
a moderate amount              very much
(or less)
```

43. High respect and fair treatment from my supervisor

44. Stimulating and challenging work.

45. Chances to exercise independent thought and action in my job.

46. Great job security.

47. Very friendly co-workers.

48. Opportunities to learn new things from my work.

49. High salary and good fringe benefits.

50. Opportunities to be creative and imaginative in my work.

51. Quick promotions.

52. Opportunities for personal growth and development in my job.

53. A sense of worthwhile accomplishment in my work.

Background Information

1. Your years of teaching experience.

    1. 1-2   3. 8-15   5. 21 and over   _____
    2. 3-7   4. 16-20

2. Your gender: 1=Female or 2=Male   _____

VITA

Michael Patrick Burk

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: A STUDY OF CLINICAL SUPERVISION AND THE JOB SATISFACTION OF
ELEMENTARY TEACHERS IN OKLAHOMA

Major Field: Educational Administration

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Tulsa, Oklahoma, January 29, 1945, the
son of H.B. (Bud) and Jo Alice Burk.

Education: Graduated from Will Rogers High School, Tulsa,
Oklahoma, in May, 1963; received Bachelor of Science
degree in Education from Northeastern State College,
Tahlequah, Oklahoma, in May, 1968; received Master of
Education degree from Northeastern Oklahoma State
University, Tahlequah, Oklahoma in July, 1973; completed
requirements for Doctor of Education degree at Oklahoma
State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma in July, 1991.

Professional Experiences: Secondary Teacher, Gilcrease
Junior High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma, 1968-77; Counselor,
McLain High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma, 1977-80; Counselor,
Robert Frost Elementary, Tulsa, Oklahoma, 1980-81;
Assistant Principal, Nathaniel Hawthorne Elementary,
Tulsa, Oklahoma, 1981-82; Principal, Lilah Lindsey
Elementary, Tulsa, Oklahoma, 1982-84; Jean Pierre Chouteau
Elementary, Tulsa, Oklahoma, 1984 to present.

Professional Organizations: Cooperative Council for Oklahoma
School Administrators (CCOSA); National Association of
Elementary School Principals (NAESP); Oklahoma Association
of Elementary School Principals (OAESP); Association for
Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD); Oklahoma
Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development
(OASCD); International Reading Association (IRA).