

1-1-1991

## Implementation characteristics of collegial support systems for teachers in middle schools.

Charles Lester Chaurette  
*University of Massachusetts Amherst*

Follow this and additional works at: [https://scholarworks.umass.edu/dissertations\\_1](https://scholarworks.umass.edu/dissertations_1)

---

### Recommended Citation

Chaurette, Charles Lester, "Implementation characteristics of collegial support systems for teachers in middle schools." (1991). *Doctoral Dissertations 1896 - February 2014*. 4736.  
<https://doi.org/10.7275/14705842> [https://scholarworks.umass.edu/dissertations\\_1/4736](https://scholarworks.umass.edu/dissertations_1/4736)

This Open Access Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by ScholarWorks@UMass Amherst. It has been accepted for inclusion in Doctoral Dissertations 1896 - February 2014 by an authorized administrator of ScholarWorks@UMass Amherst. For more information, please contact [scholarworks@library.umass.edu](mailto:scholarworks@library.umass.edu).

UMASS/AMHERST



312066013576329

IMPLEMENTATION CHARACTERISTICS OF  
COLLEGIAL SUPPORT SYSTEMS FOR TEACHERS  
IN MIDDLE SCHOOLS

A Dissertation Presented

by

CHARLES LESTER CHAURETTE

Submitted to the Graduate School of the  
University of Massachusetts in partial fulfillment  
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

May 1991

School of Education

© Copyright by Charles Lester Chaurette 1991

All Rights Reserved

IMPLEMENTATION CHARACTERISTICS OF  
COLLEGIAL SUPPORT SYSTEMS FOR TEACHERS  
IN MIDDLE SCHOOLS

A Dissertation Presented

by

CHARLES LESTER CHAURETTE

Approved as to style and content by:

Kenneth A. Parker  
Kenneth A. Parker, Chairman

R. W. Maloy  
Robert W. Maloy, Member

Warren F. Schumacher  
Warren F. Schumacher, Member

Marilyn Haring-Hidore  
Marilyn Haring-Hidore, Dean  
School of Education

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

### To My Committee:

**KENNETH A. PARKER** - I am grateful for his unfailing help and support and his insightful guidance which led to the successful completion of this work.

**ROBERT W. MALOY** - I am grateful for his extraordinary perceptiveness in grasping every problem I brought to him and for his consistent encouragement throughout this study.

**WARREN F. SCHUMACHER** - I am grateful for his significant and influential criticism, his assistance in considering alternate interpretations, his support and encouragement.

### To My Colleague:

**LINDA DARISSE** - I am grateful for her willingness to devote many hours to the editing of this manuscript, her assistance with the interpretation of the data, and most importantly, for her warm friendship.

### To My Wife:

**MARY LOU** - I am grateful for her understanding, the sacrifices she has gladly made, and most of all, for the strength of her love.

## ABSTRACT

### IMPLEMENTATION CHARACTERISTICS OF COLLEGIAL SUPPORT SYSTEMS FOR TEACHERS IN MIDDLE SCHOOLS

MAY 1991

CHARLES LESTER CHAURETTE, A.B., ASSUMPTION COLLEGE  
M.Ed., SALEM STATE COLLEGE

Ed.D., UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS

Directed by: Professor Kenneth Parker

Through collegial coaching teachers receive support for improved instruction from other teachers through the direct observation of classroom performance followed by the provision of non-evaluative feedback and on-going cycles of planning. While there is much support in the literature, there exists very few examples of mature programs.

While recognizing that collegial support programs operate within varied organizational contexts, the purpose of this multi-site case study was to determine whether or not components within middle school organizations promote and nurture program implementation efforts. A survey questionnaire and interviews were the primary sources of data collection.

The survey questionnaire was utilized primarily to assess the current level of program development in the local area and the selection of three case study sites.



Data was collected at each site through interviews, direct observation and document review. Triangulation of data sources was utilized. Through this process emergent themes were identified. Findings were reported using a cross-case analysis format in which cross case issues and information from the individual cases were dispersed throughout the data presentation and analysis.

New understandings emerged in two areas: 1) the effects of middle school organization on the implementation of collegial coaching programs, and 2) the nature and implementation cycle of these programs within these case studies.

The effects of teaming and common planning time on school climate and the enabling nature of enhanced levels of teacher empowerment were identified as powerful variables which contributed to the successful implementation of coaching programs at each site. Factors such as teacher accountability and empowerment in the areas of curriculum, scheduling, grouping, staff development, and staffing are discussed and analyzed.

Following the implementation period, as coaching becomes an accepted part of the fabric of the school, coaching



practices become much more informal. Time and the reluctance of teachers to assume quasi-administrative roles were found to be significant factors in this area.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS . . . . .	iv
ABSTRACT . . . . .	v
LIST OF TABLES . . . . .	xi
LIST OF FIGURES . . . . .	xii
Chapter	
I. BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEM . . . . .	1
Introduction . . . . .	1
Statement of Purpose . . . . .	6
Delimitations of the Study . . . . .	10
Rationale and Significance of the Study . . . . .	11
Basic Assumptions . . . . .	15
Definitions . . . . .	16
Limitations of the Study . . . . .	17
II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE . . . . .	20
Middle School . . . . .	20
Introduction . . . . .	20
Beginnings . . . . .	20
Middle School Grade Configurations . . . . .	21
Middle School Characteristics . . . . .	22
Renewed Focus on Middle Level Education . . . . .	23
Staff Development/Organization Development . . . . .	25
Background . . . . .	25
Staff Development: Definition and Purpose . . . . .	26
Planning for Success . . . . .	28
Components of Effective Staff Development . . . . .	28
Teachers' Pre-disposition to Change . . . . .	30
Employees in Organizations . . . . .	31
Supervision . . . . .	35
The Supervision Dilemma . . . . .	35
The Orientation of Supervision . . . . .	36
Clinical Supervision . . . . .	38
Models of Clinical Supervision . . . . .	41
Limitations of Clinical Supervision . . . . .	42

Coaching for Teacher Growth . . . . .	45
Introduction . . . . .	45
Supervision and Coaching . . . . .	46
The "Supervisor" vs the "Coach" . . . . .	47
Peers as Instructional Coaches . . . . .	49
Collegial Coaching Programs . . . . .	51
Stages of Collegial Coaching . . . . .	53
Colleagueship . . . . .	56
The Coaching Process . . . . .	57
Giving Feedback . . . . .	58
Training of Coaches . . . . .	61
Successful Implementation Characteristics . . . . .	62
Barriers to Collegial Coaching Programs. . . . .	64
Summary . . . . .	66
III. RESEARCH DESIGN . . . . .	68
Introduction . . . . .	68
Purpose of the Study . . . . .	68
Prior Investigations . . . . .	70
Type of Study . . . . .	70
Preliminary Data Collection . . . . .	72
Sampling Strategy . . . . .	73
Data Collection . . . . .	76
Data Analysis . . . . .	78
Questionnaire Data . . . . .	79
Qualitative Data Analysis . . . . .	79
IV. STUDY DATA . . . . .	83
Introduction . . . . .	83
Questionnaire Data . . . . .	84
A Demographic Perspective . . . . .	88
Enrollment Data . . . . .	90
Staff Organization . . . . .	91
Profiles of Case Study Sites . . . . .	93
Case Study Data . . . . .	102
A Sense of Empowerment . . . . .	104
Common Planning Time . . . . .	104
Scheduling/Grouping . . . . .	105
Staff Development . . . . .	107
Staffing Decisions . . . . .	110
Program Mandates . . . . .	111

Barriers to Implementation . . . . .	115
The Emergence of Collegial Coaching . . . . .	118
Effects of Collegial Coaching . . . . .	121
Rationales for Success . . . . .	124
Summary . . . . .	128
V. ANALYSIS AND IMPLICATIONS . . . . .	130
Introduction . . . . .	130
Collegial Coaching: A Local Status Report . . . . .	131
Major Findings . . . . .	134
Clusters/Teams and Planning Time . . . . .	135
Teacher Empowerment . . . . .	138
Clusters and Empowerment . . . . .	138
Teacher Accountability . . . . .	140
The Trust Factor . . . . .	141
Perception and Reality . . . . .	141
Collegial Coaching: A Developmental View . . . . .	143
Summary of Findings . . . . .	145
Implications for Practitioners . . . . .	147
Recommendations for Further Research . . . . .	149
A Final Concern: The Ultimate Obstacle . . . . .	151
APPENDICES . . . . .	152
A. SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE . . . . .	152
B. INTERVIEW OUTLINE . . . . .	153
C. TYPE OF COMMUNITY DESCRIPTORS . . . . .	154
BIBLIOGRAPHY . . . . .	158

## LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
4.1 Initial Screening . . . . .	87
4.2 Follow-up, schools indicating "w/coaching" . . . . .	87
4.3 Final Results . . . . .	87
4.4 Enrollment Data . . . . .	90
4.5 Staff Organization . . . . .	92

## LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
3.1 Research Design . . . . .	71



# C H A P T E R 1

## BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEM

### Introduction

The alarm has been sounded for substantive school change and improvement. Throughout the 80's there has been a proliferation of reports assessing the condition of American schools. These reports have created a public awareness of a "rising tide of mediocrity" in our schools [National Commission on Excellence in Education, 1983] and instigated school improvement efforts in many states throughout our nation.

Since the quality of instruction is determined by those individuals entrusted with the teaching of children, the critical need for well conceived and articulated staff development programs has been recognized.

In an effort to foster instructional and curricular change, interest has been focused on coaching support for teachers [Joyce and Showers, 1980, 1982 and 1983]. As will be seen in the review of staff development literature, the

presentation and modeling of new instructional technologies and methodologies are considered inadequate in providing teachers with the competencies necessary to successfully implement new instructional strategies in their classrooms. Effective assimilation of new instructional techniques into the active teaching repertoire of most workshop participants seems to be dependent on the provision of on-going coaching support [Joyce and Showers, 1983].

While recognizing the need, few school systems have the resources to provide adequate coaching opportunities utilizing traditional supervisory personnel. Given the requirements of clinical supervision, both in terms of training and time commitment, the task of providing instructional support has grown more difficult for existing supervisory personnel. This economic reality coupled with the notions of teacher empowerment and teachers helping teachers has contributed to a renewed interest in collegial coaching systems. Recently, general interest in "collegial coaching" has seen wide circulation in the literature and in some school settings. Although the vision of cadres of trained peer coaches providing systematic supervisory support to other teachers is a relatively recent phenomenon, the benefits of "peer visitations" has been recognized for some time. "Peer visitations" appears in the literature in the 1950's [McGuire et al, 1958].

Nevertheless in spite of this renewed interest, coaching programs have not realized anticipated benefits due to inconsistent and unreliable implementation [McFall & Cooper, 1984]. Many of the implementation problems have been attributed to organizational factors inherent in current school organizations [Alfonso & Goldsberry, 1982]. In addition to concerns related solely to instruction, there have also been many recommendations for organizational restructuring of schools. Much of the current thought may be reviewed in the effective schools [Edmonds, 1982; Edmonds and Frederiksen, 1978; Goodlad, 1984] and essential schools [Sizer, 1984] literature and in attempts to relate new management practices from business to school settings [George, 1983; 1984].

This decade has also witnessed a revolution in the organization of schools for young adolescents, popularly referred to as "middle schools". The Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development, in their publication Turning Points, has described the key characteristics of ideal middle schools. Schools possessing some of these characteristics would seem to foster a school culture compatible to the successful implementation of collegial support programs due, in large part, to the encouragement and nurturance of high norms of group collegiality and collaboration.

The focus of this study is the assessment of whether or not components within middle school organizations promote and nurture efforts to implement collegial support programs in middle schools. Questions investigated included: How prevalent are coaching activities in area middle schools? How do middle school practices effect program implementation? Do teacher roles in decision-making processes predict program viability? Do levels of teacher empowerment effect successful implementation of coaching programs? Are there aspects of middle school organization which might be desirable and transferable to other settings? Why are some implementation efforts more successful than others?

In Massachusetts, for the 1989-1990 school year, schools applying for state aid to fund drop-out prevention programs have been required to develop plans for "systemic change" in the schools. In other words, the state, rather than funding another round of special programs to be implemented in existing structures, requires schools to review their structures, both in terms of their organizations and delivery of instruction, for the purpose of developing strategies for effecting fundamental changes. Many of the recommendations of the Department of Education, which reflects current thinking found in the essential schools literature [Sizer, 1984], parallel aspects of middle school organizations such as: organization of students and teachers in clusters, flexible grouping and scheduling, and increased teacher

responsibility in the decision-making process. The desired consequences of such changes are the improvement of instruction and the lowering of the drop-out rate.

Before the publication of Turning Points [1989] by the Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development the middle school had been ignored in previous studies. Virtually all previous studies focused on the elementary and high school levels. Many middle school practices consistent with the "middle school concept" parallel the recommendations for school restructuring. These characteristics will be examined in Chapter 2.

Recently much of the research by advocates of collegial coaching has focused on teacher attitudes and/or job satisfaction [Cooper, 1983; Munro and Elliott, 1987], contributions to school climate [Raney and Robbins, 1989; Garmston, 1987], teacher attributes related to coaching readiness [Little, 1985], the role of district and building administrators [Grimmett, 1987], collegiality among participants [Mosenthal, 1984] and the effect of coaching programs on teacher isolation and the effects on the observer [Blair, 1984]. In spite of the growing support for such programs one must consider the observation that "teachers for generations have maintained a colossal and almost studied ignorance about classroom behavior of their peers" [Alfonso,



1977, 596]. This "studied ignorance" is the result of negative norms of collegiality traditionally found in school organizations.

### Statement of Purpose

The basic proposition of this study is that collegial support programs operate within varied organizational contexts, and that components within middle school organizations may promote and nurture implementation efforts. The purpose of this study was to determine whether or not components within middle school organizations promote and nurture efforts to implement collegial coaching programs. Bases for this investigation are outlined in the staff/organizational development, collegial coaching and middle school literatures reviewed in Chapter 2.

Components investigated included, but were not limited to, the following: staff organization, teacher roles and responsibilities regarding scheduling, grouping, curriculum design, methodology, staff development activities and school governance, and perceptions of administrators, coaches and other teachers regarding collegial support activities. Based on a survey of staff attitudes in a previous pilot study, it



seems that the way in which teachers view their roles and the levels of actual teacher empowerment have a positive effect on implementation efforts.

Questionnaires were sent to member middle schools and junior high schools of the New England League of Middle Schools in the greater Boston/Framingham area. Selection of these schools for survey was based on the assumption that interest and membership in N.E.L.M.S. indicates a philosophical orientation toward middle school concepts and practices. Schools did not have to call themselves "middle schools". Some schools, for a variety of reasons, continue to call themselves junior high schools. Since many of these schools emulate middle school concepts in terms of structure and program [Johnston and Markle, 1986], these schools were included in the initial survey. For this study, in terms of grade configuration, a school was considered to be a middle school if it consisted of at least two grades, no more than five grades, and included grades seven and eight. There are, of course, many different grade organizations in existence. The most common grade structure is six through eight [Alexander, 1989]. Drawing from the respondents to the questionnaire, three schools were selected for multi-site case study research.

Collegial support was analyzed within a developmental model. The typical developmental stages of collegial support

programs will be outlined in Chapter 2. Primary methods of investigation were survey questionnaire, interviews, direct observation, and document review. The survey questionnaire was used to assess the current state of peer coaching in middle schools in the Greater Boston/Framingham area. In depth interviews of administrators/facilitators and teachers (coaches and partners), coupled with direct observation in three schools, were utilized to identify common components in middle schools which seem to impact the implementation of collegial coaching programs.

This researcher has completed two small pilot studies in the last four years in a local school related to the implementation of two separate collegial coaching initiatives.

In 1985, the first attempt to implement a collegial coaching program was patterned after the "Resident Supervisory Support for Teachers" program, originally developed in Washington, D.C. Teacher volunteers were trained in clinical supervision methods utilizing the Goldhammer model (see p. 41). Despite the high quality of the training program and the commitment of the participants, the project was not successfully implemented.

Based on data collected through staff interviews, reasons for the failure of the program were identified. They

included: lack of adequate training opportunities leading to feelings of inadequacy on the part of the coaches, staff jealousies, and a lack of consideration given to barriers in the school culture. The instability of administrative and instructional staff also posed major problems.

During the 1988-89 school year a second implementation was attempted, with the commitment to not repeat past mistakes. At the end of the year staff attitudes regarding the program were measured utilizing a written questionnaire. Overall, responses were very positive. Regarding the training, over 70% of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed that 1) training was a good use of meeting time, 2) the content was relevant to their work, 3) having a shared vocabulary helped them to talk about their instruction, and 4) they felt supported within the group. Almost 60% indicated an interest to continue their efforts at collegial coaching. Compared to most programs involving voluntary participants this represents an extremely high level of participation.

Although both programs were in the same school, different levels of success were achieved. The second implementation effort occurred after the evolution of significant changes within the organization. They included: greater reliance on interdisciplinary teaching teams, flexible scheduling and grouping, and on-going teacher

directed curriculum renewal. These findings seem to suggest that heightened levels of teacher empowerment and collegiality within an organization impact in a positive way the implementation of collegial coaching. These findings are directly related to the focus of this study.

### Delimitations of the Study

This study is limited to the investigation of selected middle schools in Massachusetts, in the Greater Boston/Framingham area. In depth case studies were limited to three sites having mature (3 years or more) collegial coaching programs. Although there is much support in the literature for collegial coaching programs, established programs were found to exist in about eight percent of the surveyed schools. Therefore this study investigated the special attributes found in three of these schools which nurtured the development of collegial support and contributed to continued implementation and institutionalization. Identification of these components may lead to the success of future efforts to implement programs in other school districts.

## Rationale and Significance of the Study

While the recognition of the need for improved instruction in our schools is widely accepted, effective methods for achieving this goal have been elusive. Different methods and approaches have been formulated, a significant research base regarding the teaching and learning processes has been developed, millions of dollars have been expended in staff development efforts, state education departments have encouraged change efforts by providing financial resources and technical assistance, and in spite of all these well intentioned efforts, fundamental change at the classroom level has been elusive.

A major source of frustration associated with many change efforts has been the inability to implement research-based instructional strategies in classrooms across this country. Although staff development activities and accompanying budgets have grown, the inability of schools to provide an adequate level of supervisory support for teachers attempting to assimilate new instructional patterns into their existing repertoires seems to have frustrated these efforts [Joyce and Showers, 1983].

In his often cited work Supervisors and Teachers: A Private Cold War, Blumberg [1974] characterized the supervisory conference as the communication of procedural



trivia unrelated to the actual improvement of instruction. It seemed the best comment teachers could make was that the supervision they received was not harmful. In the seventeen years since the publication of his book it would seem that not much has changed. McCarthy [1986] reports that supervision in most schools still consists of one class visit every two to three years. Schonberger [1986] notes that teachers still regard supervision with anxiety and distrust. Obviously, in this supervisory climate it is difficult to imagine progress in the improvement of instruction. Trust, the fundamental requirement for providing adequate supervision and coaching opportunities for teachers, exists in too few schools.

As will be seen in the discussion on the orientation of supervision [Glickman 1981, 1985; Glatthorn 1984, 1987] and the development of clinical supervision models [Goldhammer, 1969; Cogan, 1973], the vision of supervision as a formative process in which the teacher and supervisor collaborate in cycles of planning, observation, conferencing and re-planning has been widely accepted. The difficulty of translating these theoretical orientations into effective practice in established supervisory formats has led to consideration of alternate strategies and an assessment of new roles for providing on-going instructional support.



Although economic factors previously discussed have played a role in the movement for training teachers to become "coaches" of other teachers, interest in the concept is directly attributable to dissatisfaction with existing supervisory practice and the difficulty of establishing a trustful climate in the superordinate - subordinate relationship found in traditional supervision. This is particularly problematic when the supervisor is also responsible for the summative evaluation of the supervisee.

In the last ten years there have appeared dozens of articles and research studies regarding the nature and implementation of collegial coaching programs. The literature cites many successful collegial coaching programs. These programs vary in scope and sophistication. There are, unfortunately, no longitudinal studies that show the effectiveness of the programs in terms of student achievement. What does exist focuses primarily on the effect of such programs on the attitude of participants and the introduction of new instructional strategies into existing teaching repertoires. Nevertheless there are probably many more programs that have met with frustration and failure. Although references are found regarding the norms of collegiality in schools where programs have failed, there have been no studies which assess the impact of specific organizational/cultural components on program development and implementation.

If common organizational characteristics can be identified through the study of successful programs, those responsible for future implementation efforts may manipulate these characteristics in order to increase the likelihood of successful implementation. The interactions between teachers and school organizations are very complex and do not constitute a static or predictable phenomena. Therefore this study is not an attempt to ascribe cause-effect relationships between certain organizational components and the implementation of coaching programs. It is, however, an examination of the influence these components may exert on the growth of these programs. By assessing the impact of middle school practices on these programs, it is hoped that future attempts to implement collegial coaching programs in schools will consider organizational components and practices that can be manipulated in order to develop a culture that will increase the likelihood of successful implementation and institutionalization.

## Basic Assumptions

This study is based on the following assumptions:

1. The focus of instructional supervision is to improve instruction by helping teachers make better instructional decisions.

2. The successful assimilation of new teaching techniques in a teacher's active repertoire is enhanced by well conceived staff development opportunities which include a coaching component.

3. The nature of coaching programs and the schools in which they operate vary greatly in terms of complexity, sophistication and longevity.

4. Organizational factors within school settings have an impact on collegial coaching program development. These factors can be identified and assessed utilizing case study research methodologies.

## Definitions

**Supervision**: A formative process in which the teacher receives support and encouragement from the supervisor [Fredich, 1984] with the goal of helping the teacher make appropriate instructional decisions [Costa and Garmston, 1985].

**Clinical Supervision**: "Supervision focused upon the improvement of instruction by means of systematic cycles of planning, observation, and intensive intellectual analysis of actual teaching performance in the interest of rational modification" [Weller, 1971, 15].

**Collegial Coaching**: Support for improved instruction received from another teacher which ultimately culminates in direct observation of classroom performance followed by the provision of non-evaluative feedback and planning [Showers, 1982]. The goal of collegial coaching is for teachers to assist one another to fulfill their role. [Saphier, 1989] Synonymous with peer supervision/coaching, cooperative professional development, and other terms which are reviewed in Chapter 2 (see pp.51-52).

**Colleagueship**: A relationship characterized by collaborative efforts to accomplish common goals [Alfonso and Goldsberry, 1982].

**Collegiality**: The frame of mind or "mental baggage" that teachers and supervisors bring with them when they work together [Garman, 1982].

**Middle School**: A school, organized to meet the unique needs of early adolescents, which consists of at least two grades, no more than five grades, and includes grades seven and eight.

### **Limitations of the Study**

The concept of generalizability frequently poses problems for case study research. This approach assumes a social world in constant change rather than the assumption of an unchanging universe consistent with the concept of reliability [Marshall and Rossman, 1987, 147]. Although this study utilizes a multiple site design the following factors need to be acknowledged:

The sites were chosen among respondents to a questionnaire mailed to middle schools in the Greater Boston/Framingham Massachusetts area. Selection was not determined by type (large urban, small urban, suburban,



rural) or socioeconomic factors. Although these variables may have some significance, this study is limited to middle school components and their relationship to the implementation of collegial support systems. The underlying assumption is that these components can be developed in any setting. Three representative sites were selected from the sample of schools with established programs which met the criteria discussed earlier in this chapter, and had agreed to further participation.

This study only focuses on established programs with the goal of describing and explaining factors inherent in the schools themselves that seem to contribute to long term implementation. Schools identified for further investigation were selected on the basis of four criteria: 1) the grade structure consisted of at least two grades, no more than five grades, and included grades seven and eight, 2) there existed a form of collegial coaching in the school which, at a minimum, was in its third year of implementation, 3) the concept of coaching consisted of a transaction between and among equals, and 4) the program is not related to staff evaluation and plays no role in staffing decisions of administrators. Since the interest and implementation of collegial support programs is a relatively recent phenomenon, there exists too few examples of failed programs in the locale of this study. As a result, only programs that have been implemented for at least three years and describe



themselves as successful were studied. Nevertheless, factors within these schools that are seen as barriers were reviewed and are isolated and discussed in Chapters 4 and 5.

Another important factor that needs to be recognized is the danger of observer bias. Concern regarding this issue has convinced this researcher to exclude his school as a potential research site. In order to mitigate this problem a third party reader analyzed transcripts of interviews and observations and reviewed other pertinent data.

Triangulation of data sources was utilized for data analysis. Triangulation is a process of utilizing more than one source of data to analyze on a single phenomena or theme.

"Designing a study in which multiple cases are used, multiple informants or more than one data gathering technique can greatly strengthen the study's usefulness for other settings" [Marshall and Rossman, 1987, 146].

## C H A P T E R I I

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

#### Middle School

##### Introduction

The intent is not to present an exhaustive review of the literature pertaining to middle schools. This review will be limited to a review of the beginnings of the middle school movement, the characteristics of middle schools and the recommendations in Turning Points [Carnegie Council for Adolescent Development, 1989] which pertain to the organization of middle schools.

##### Beginnings

The middle school concept is not a new educational fad. In fact, it traces its beginnings to the late 1950's and over the last twenty years has constituted a quiet revolution in how schools structure education for young adolescents. Initially it was a reaction to the dominance of the high

school model in junior high schools. Essentially these schools were organized along departmental lines and functioned in many ways like high schools, with little regard for the special needs of this population. In the absence of commissions and reports, middle school concepts have slowly evolved. [Alexander, 1989]

Initially schools were organized into middle schools for a variety of reasons: political, social, economic and programmatic. Although often the reasons were not initially educational, schools have gradually evolved and created structures and programs suited for this unique population. In the last twenty years, the middle school concept has developed into the dominant orientation for schools working with young adolescents. In 1972/73 there were approximately 2000 middle schools and 8000 junior high schools in the United States. Fourteen years later, in 1986/87, there were over 7500 middle schools and less than 5000 junior high schools. [Cawelti, 1988]

### **Middle School Grade Configurations**

There are a variety of grade configurations included in middle schools. A familiar definition emerging from two survey studies by Alexander [1967, 1988] suggested that a middle school include no less than three grades, no more than

five grades, and include grades seven and eight. This definition, however, excludes some schools which have adopted middle school concepts. Grade configuration in of itself has not been shown to be a significant variable in terms of student achievement or attitude. Interestingly, a school's name is no real indication of its orientation since "many junior high schools exhibit traits normally associated with middle schools and middle schools often exhibit characteristics akin to those of junior high schools" [Johnston and Markle, 1986, 1].

### Middle School Characteristics

What distinguishes middle schools from junior high schools is not grade structure but certain practices that reflect an orientation to middle school philosophy.

Among these characteristics are the grouping of students and staff in clusters, usually with between 90-100 students and 4-5 teachers representing the major academic disciplines; common planning time for teachers in the schedule; block scheduling where teachers are given great flexibility in determining the best use of that time for instructional purposes; the organization of the curriculum in interdisciplinary units; a wide and varied exploratory program; and an advisor-advisee program in which each student

has an opportunity to access help from a staff member/advisor. These are the concepts commonly associated with middle schools, created to meet the special needs of this population. To be sure, very few schools incorporate all these concepts, but those ascribing to the middle school philosophy are striving to institute these practices [Cawelti, 1988].

### **Renewed Focus on Middle Level Education**

In June 1989 the Carnegie Council for Adolescent Development issued a report, Turning Points: Preparing America's Youth for the 21st Century, which made specific recommendations for the organization of middle schools. Its' recommendations include: 1- creating a community for learning characterized by close trusting relationships with adults and peers which helps create a climate for the student's personal growth and intellectual development; 2- teaching a core of common knowledge to assist students to think critically, develop healthy lifestyles, and become active and involved citizens; 3- ensuring success for all students by expanding opportunities for learning, providing flexible scheduling and relying less on homogeneous grouping of students; 4- empowering teachers and administrators by giving teachers more control over classroom and curricular decisions, establishing building governance committees, and designating



lead teachers in larger middle schools; 5- preparing teachers for the middle grades with special preparation for teaching young adolescents; 6- improving academic performance through better health and fitness; 7- reengaging families in the education of young adolescents; and 8- forming partnerships between the schools and community organizations.

Turning Points is an important document, not because it outlines radical recommendations differing greatly from current practice, but because it is the only current report which focuses on the needs of young adolescents and the schools that try to educate them. Many middle schools were implementing facets of these recommendations prior to the release of this report. Hopefully many more will strive to fulfill these recommendations.

Two recommendations which would seem to contribute in a very positive way to the development of collegial coaching programs are: 1-the development of a school climate where trust is the hallmark of relationships and 2-the empowerment of teachers giving them more control over curriculum, instruction, grouping for instruction, scheduling, and school governance. The recommendation for teacher empowerment is reminiscent of some concepts of the Theory Z school [George, 1983] such as the decentralization of decision-making. Theory Z concepts will be discussed in detail in the next section.



## Staff Development/Organization Development

### Background

Mention the words "in-service education" to most teachers and the response will be fairly negative. In-service education or staff development is still frequently characterized by one time lecture-discussions on topics that may or may not directly relate to the professional lives of all the participants. "Planned linkages with the individual teacher's personal/professional perspectives and predispositions are uncommon and follow-up in specific classrooms is rare" [Bents and Howey, 1981, 11].

Although there is a growing body of literature on the nature of adult learning and staff development, a comprehensive review of this literature will not be attempted. Rather, staff development will be defined through the literature, requisite conditions within organizations for successful implementation will be examined, and the role of coaching in staff development will be identified.

## Staff Development: Definition and Purpose

Dillon-Peterson [1981] views staff development not as a discreet entity but interrelated with organization development. She defines staff development as

a process designed to foster personal and professional growth for the individuals within a respectful, supportive, positive organizational climate having as its' ultimate aim better learning for the students and continuous, responsible self-renewal for educators and schools [Dillon-Peterson, 1981, 3].

Organization development is defined as

the process undertaken by an organization, or part of an organization, to define and meet changing self-improvement objectives, while making it possible for the individuals in the organization to meet their personal and professional objectives" [Dillon-Peterson, 1981, 3].

In other words staff development and organization development are the "gestalt of school improvement" [Dillon-Peterson, 1981, 2]. There is an obvious interdependence among staff and organization development. Many staff development initiatives are doomed to failure by the climates and cultures in which they attempt to operate. Neither can be considered in isolation if significant change and improvement are to be given a good chance for success.

Glatthorn [1987] views staff development as "all formal and informal programs that are offered to groups of teachers

in response to organizational needs" [Glatthorn, 1987, 78]. He groups staff development as one of four related tasks involved in professional development. He defines professional development as "all those systematic processes used by school administrators, supervisors and teachers to help teachers grow professionally" [Glatthorn, 1987, 78]. Professional growth in teaching is a complex, time-consuming process; it "has an emerging quality" [Wildman and Niles, 1987, 4]. Staff development improves teaching by 1) fine tuning existing skills or 2) learning new repertoires [Joyce and Showers, 1982].

Although organization development has been prevalent in industry for several decades, educational institutions have just recently focused their attention on it. Interest in organization development has grown out of the evaluation and analysis of successes and failures in staff development attempts. This analysis led staff developers to see that substantial change in the individual seldom occurs "unless some kind of group process provides for support, exchange of ideas, maintenance of enthusiasm, and problem-solving capabilities" [Dillon-Peterson, 1981, 6].

## Planning for Success

Conditions necessary for successful organization development and staff development seem to parallel one another. Each views development as a long term commitment for improvement with particular attention paid to the methodical and planned passage through three phases:

1) mobilization or start-up, 2) implementation or initial operation, and 3) maintenance or institutionalization. Each requires the actual involvement and active participation of relevant administrators and the involvement of staff in the assessment of needs and the planning of development activities. Through training, each hopes to develop in-house staff capable of continuing the initial momentum of the change effort as well as opportunities for early implementation of new skills in a successful way. Finally, an adequate level of funding to support the on-going change effort is critical to its ultimate success [Dillon-Peterson, 1981].

## Components of Effective Staff Development

Through an analysis of two hundred research studies regarding the effectiveness of training methods Joyce and Showers [1980] identified four levels of impact of such training: 1) awareness, 2) attainment of new concepts and

organized knowledge, 3) mastery of principles and skills: providing the "tools for action", and 4) application and problem-solving: transferring the concepts, knowledge, and skills to the classroom.

They further identified the training components that contributed to successful staff development efforts:

- 1 - Presentation of theory
- 2 - Modeling or demonstration of a particular skill, technique, or model of teaching.
- 3 - Practice in simulated and regular classroom settings.
- 4 - Structured and open-ended feedback
- 5 - On-going coaching for application

The addition of the element of coaching to the training was seen to have contributed more significantly than the other components to the successful, on-going implementation of new teaching repertoires in the classroom. Obviously coaching without the other components would be meaningless, however, the absence of coaching seems to limit the impact of the others to a significant degree. Joyce and Showers report a rate of integration into teacher's active instructional repertoire of only 5% - 10% following training which included the first four components. With the introduction of an on-going process of coaching, the application rates of the new



skill to a teacher's repertoire are reported at 90%.

"Relatively few teachers, having obtained skill in a new approach, will then transfer that skill into their active repertoire and use the new approach regularly and sensibly unless they receive additional information," i.e. instructional coaching [Joyce and Showers, 1982, 9].

### **Teachers' Pre-disposition to Change**

The factors that teachers attribute for teaching effectiveness can predict the prospects for change and improvement through staff development. According to Guskey [1981] teachers who attribute teacher effectiveness due to personality factors are less likely to profit from staff development initiatives. They are less likely to be willing to try new methodologies and technologies in their classrooms. They would also need a very high level of in class support in order to implement change initiatives. On the other hand teachers who attribute effective instruction to teaching behaviors are more likely to improve their instruction through staff development opportunities. Personality factors are much more resistant to change than behavior factors since behavior factors are much less stable and determined.



## Employees in Organizations

"Teachers for the most part are not encouraged to engage in autonomous, entrepreneurial ways" [Wildman and Niles, 1987, 4]. There is a need to develop new structures in the organizations of our school that will encourage teachers to actively assume a role in school improvement [McFaul and Cooper, 1984]. Most schools are characterized by a hierarchical organization where there exists a disturbing level of distrust and anxiety between teachers and administrators [Schonberger, 1986].

Based on the failure of many school improvement initiatives, there is a need to consider alternate organizational systems. One significant factor is how teachers are perceived within their school organization and their role in the decision-making process. In most schools what MacGregor calls Theory X is firmly entrenched. Theory X organizations typically have active and dominant supervisors, narrowly defined job descriptions, close supervision focused on considerable negative criticism and concern about teachers fulfilling minimum requirements, and limited in-service opportunities [Goldman, 1983].

An alternative to Theory X is what he calls Theory Y organization. In Theory Y the role of the supervisor and the vision of the teacher's role in the organization is quite

different. Most teachers are seen as being ultimately capable of achieving self-direction. Since teachers would have an active role in determining organizational goals, the supervisor's role would be to facilitate conditions whereby teacher's needs will become satisfied by directing their efforts to these goals. In-service would emphasize the notion of education versus training. Participatory management is encouraged [Goldman, 1983].

Often within an organization there is a need to utilize both orientations. For example, with conservative, security seeking teachers Theory X practices seem to be more effective. Nevertheless, Theory Y practices seem to be more desirable to foster a climate of risk taking and teacher growth [Goldman, 1983].

In his book Theory Z, W.G. Ouchi [1981] explores the management system at Toyota Corporation. He examines the role of managers and workers in the organization, the processes for decision-making and problem solving, and the nature of interpersonal relationships within the organization. Theory Z organizations blend the best of "J" (Japanese) organizations and "A" (American) organizations. While appreciating the value of science and technology, Japanese Theory Z managers do not take the worker for granted. Increased productivity is dependent on involved workers. Therefore workers are given significant input in

company business decisions. Relationships seem to be more open and informal. The hierarchical relationship of manager to worker is de-emphasized. Although the manager must still ultimately make the decisions, workers have real input in the decision-making process. Open communication, trust, and commitment are common. The manager's role is that of a generalist rather than specialist.

Although Theory Z is focused on the business world, its concepts could have significant applications to the organization and governance of our schools [Green, 1984; George, 1984]. George draws parallels between the characteristics of productive schools and Theory Z organization. Productive schools exhibit the following characteristics:

- 1 - strong instructional leadership
- 2 - climate that is safe and orderly, which clearly communicates the expectations that both teachers and students will be successful in attaining their instructional ends.
- 3 - faculty has a clear commitment to specific goals, priorities and assessment procedures
- 4 - home-school support systems are in operation
- 5 - a climate of trust and caring

- 6 - "decisions are made through a process of consensus and participation" [George, 1984 79].

#### Theory Z Supervisors:

- 1 - participate with teachers and staff in problem solving and goal setting
- 2 - create situations for optimum learning
- 3 - explain the rules and consequences of violations
- 4 - allow teachers to set goals
- 5 - teach improvement techniques to teachers
- 6 - enable teachers to move into growth opportunities
- 7 - recognize achievement and help people learn from their failures [Sullivan, 1984, 93].

Theory Z school organizations would re-orient the hierarchical supervision-teacher relationship toward a more collaborative climate. Team efforts would be utilized to assist in the improvement of teacher performances. "Teams would epitomize trust, subtlety and intimacy" [Green et al., 1984, p.24]. Theory Z emphasizes open communication, and the importance of being cooperative, adaptable and knowledgeable.

## Supervision

### The Supervision Dilemma

Instructional supervision is a process of facilitating the professional growth of a teacher, by providing the teacher feedback about classroom interactions with the goal of helping the teacher make use of that feedback in order to make teaching more effective [Glatthorn, 1984, 2]. Since teaching consists of constant decision-making and these decisions increase or decrease the probability of students learning [Brandt, 1985], the aim of supervision should be to help teachers make appropriate decisions in the delivery of instruction [Costa and Garmston, 1985] and the improvement of teacher performance [McCarthy, 1986]. Supervision is a formative process in which the teacher receives support and encouragement from the supervisor [Fredich, 1984].

Unfortunately this view of supervision is not typical of supervisory practices in most schools. Two decades ago, a study revealed that teachers tend to passively accept supervisors' opinions and advice due to the fact that supervisory conferences were not opportunities for communication between supervisor and teacher. It was found that supervisors gave their own opinions and ideas four times more often than they asked for the teachers'. Both



supervisors and teachers seemed to be going through the motions giving pat statements and answers [Blumberg and Cusick, 1970].

It would be reassuring to report that prevailing supervisory practices have changed. Unfortunately the same dissatisfaction with supervision is found in more current literature. McCarthy [1986] stipulates that 80% of the respondents in a study reported that supervision typically consisted of one class visit every two to three years thereby rendering supervision perfunctory and useless. Teachers and supervisors live in different worlds. The many sources of conflict include avoidance, abusive action, withdrawal, tension and distrust. Teachers have come to regard supervision with anxiety, fear and suspicion [Schonberger, 1986].

### **The Orientation of Supervision**

Glickman [1981, 1985] postulates a need for a developmental approach to supervision. As supervisors exhort teachers to recognize that there are different modes of learning and varying psychological views of learning, supervisors must vary the primary methods of supervision based on the teacher's developmental stage. There is a need for "planned eclecticism" in supervision.



Glickman labels the three orientations to supervision as: 1) non-directive, 2) collaborative, and 3) directive. The primary methods of supervision for these three orientations are: 1) self-assessment, 2) mutual contract, and 3) delineated standards. Each of these orientations is characterized by varying levels of teacher/supervisor responsibility.

Similarly Glatthorn [1984, 1987] advances a model of "differentiated supervision" that advocates the use of various supervisory methods based on the growth needs and learning styles of teachers. This differentiated system includes: 1) clinical supervision, 2) cooperative professional development, 3) self-directed development, and 4) administrative monitoring.

Although all three orientations cited by Glickman have a role in the supervisory process and the improvement of instruction, since the primary concern of this study is collegial coaching, the focus here will be on the collaborative orientation to supervision. In this kind of supervision there exists a partnership between the teacher and supervisor in which they actively and cooperatively negotiate a plan of action. They have to review, revise, reject, propose and counter propose until agreement has been

reached. The product of this process is a contract or an agreement on the goals of supervision [Glickman, 1981].

The "Supervisory Beliefs Continuum" includes a range of meaningful behaviors that supervisors can use to assist teachers to adopt actions leading to instructional improvement [Glickman, 1981, 9]. In the collaborative orientation to supervision the major behaviors are listening, presenting, problem solving, and negotiating [Glickman, 1981, 23].

Clinical Supervision, cooperative professional development or collegial coaching are two models of collaborative supervision.

### **Clinical Supervision**

In the last thirty years clinical supervision has developed into a very popular recommendation for supervisory practice. It was created by Morris Cogan, Robert Goldhammer and Robert Anderson in an attempt to become more effective in supervising fifth year interns at Harvard University [Reavis, 1978]. In 1955 Cogan and Anderson were faculty members in the Harvard-Newton Summer Program. This program offered intensive student-teacher experience for recent college graduates. Four or five interns worked under the direction

of a master teacher. During this time Cogan developed various clinical and peer supervision technologies. From 1961 through 1965 as part of the Harvard-Lexington Summer Program the five step model of clinical supervision was developed [Krajewski, 1976]. Participants in this program were experienced teachers and administrators seeking training in team teaching.

Clinical supervision traces its roots to the growth-oriented self actualizing psychologies and humanistic philosophies of Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers. The approach recognizes the needs of the teacher as an individual and the potential for self-development [Mattaliano, 1977, 90]. As opposed to the negative, judgemental aspects of evaluation, clinical supervision focuses on the teacher's strengths. "It acknowledges that teaching behavior is subject to understanding change and modification and that such change can originate only within the teacher" [Schonberger, 1986, 250-251].

Clinical supervision is "focused upon the improvement of instruction by means of systematic cycles of planning, observation, and intensive intellectual analysis of actual teaching performance in the interest of rational modification" [Weller, 1971]. It characterizes teaching as patterned behavior, both conscious and subconscious. The supervisor's role is to identify these patterns through

collected data and present this data to the teacher in a non-threatening, non-judgemental conference [Mattaliano, 1977]. It "rests on the conviction that instruction can only be improved by direct feedback to the teacher on aspects of his/her teaching that are of concern to that teacher" [Reavis, 1976, 361]. The word "clinical" is used to suggest the face-to-face encounter between teacher and supervisor and the reliance on data collected through the actual observation of instruction [Miller & Miller, 1987]. It is a process created to help reduce the discrepancy between actual teaching behavior and ideal teaching behavior [Acheson & Gall, 1980].

The principal data of clinical supervision are records of classroom events: what the teacher and students do in the classroom during the learning process...Clinical supervision may therefore be defined as the rationale and practice designed to improve the teacher's classroom performance [Cogan, 1973, 9].

The classroom is transformed into an educational laboratory where techniques of instruction are implemented and analyzed. This analysis of "behavioral data is translated into planning and observation, it focuses on the 'what' and 'how' of the classroom performance" [Schonberger, 1982, 250]. The ideal climate for clinical supervision is parallel and comparable to ideal environments for teaching and learning [Roberts, 1984].

The development of clinical supervision grew out of the frustration with supervisory practices that were, and still

are, prevalent in schools. Millions of dollars spent on new materials and curriculum are to little or no avail, since teachers have no one to call on for clinical supervision to help rid them of old, inappropriate teaching methods [Cogan, 1973].

### **Models of Clinical Supervision**

Several models of clinical supervision are found in the literature. The two dominant models are the five step Goldhammer Model [1969] and the eight step Cogan Model [1973]:

#### **Goldhammer Model [1969]**

Goldhammer refers to the parts of the clinical supervision cycle as "stages". He divides the cycle into 5 stages:

- Stage 1 - Pre-observation conference
- Stage 2 - Observation
- Stage 3 - Analysis and Strategy
- Stage 4 - Supervision Conference
- Stage 5 - Post-conference analysis



## **Cogan Model [1973]**

Cogan divides the clinical supervision model into 8 phases:

Phase 1 - Establishing the teacher-supervisor relationship

Phase 2 - Planning with the teacher

Phase 3 - Planning the strategy of observation

Phase 4 - Observing instruction

Phase 5 - Analyzing the teaching-learning process

Phase 6 - Planning the strategy of the conference

Phase 7 - Post observation conference

Phase 8 - Renewed planning

"Clinical supervision's character is essentially already formed through the early influences of clinical counseling, non-directive therapy, and systematic classroom observation. Like all growing things its' future form and functional capacity can be enhanced by cultivation and adaptation." [Harris, 1975, 89]

## **Limitations of Clinical Supervision**

Although recognized in the literature as a very effective supervisory practice, implementing this practice has been difficult and inconsistent. Some factors that have inhibited the growth and development of clinical supervision



inhibited the growth and development of clinical supervision are inherent in the model and in the school setting in which it operates. Clinical supervision as envisioned by Cogan, Goldhammer, and others is a very time intensive process. The typical clinical supervision cycle demands a serious time commitment on the part of both the teacher and the supervisor [Glickman, 1985]. Due to this time constraint it is difficult to imagine a clinical supervisor working effectively with more than eight to ten teachers over the course of a school year. The successful implementation of a clinical supervision system requires a cadre of extensively trained and skilled supervisors. The training demands of the model cannot be overemphasized. The supervisor needs to be a highly perceptive observer, a good listener, and an effective communicator [Mattaliano, 1977]. Assuming that the Massachusetts experience is not unique, given the nature of fiscal constraints on schools, it is difficult to imagine this cadre of supervisors existing in many school systems.

Implementation of a clinical supervision model has been frequently unsuccessful due to "cook book" style implementations, where supervisors have used the elements of the clinical supervision cycle in a rigid manner without regard to the "spirit" of the approach [Krajewski and Anderson, 1980].

Teacher readiness for full participation in this approach is critical [Glickman, 1985]. Clinical supervision assumes high levels of teacher motivation, moderate to high levels of abstraction, the ability to view teaching episodes and patterns analytically, and emotional stability.

Often the school climate and culture will have a negative impact on the prospects of successful implementation [Alfonso, 1977]. A pervasive atmosphere of anxiety and distrust undermines clinical supervision efforts. The pervasiveness of peer pressure in the workplace has a serious impact on attempts at implementation, and the extent to which change is possible within the organization.

Clinical supervision needs to be seen as a subsystem in a total supervisory system [Krajewski, 1982]. While it can be an extremely effective technique, use should be predicated on the nature of the teacher/supervisor relationship, the teacher's developmental stage and the skill level of the supervisor [Glickman, 1985].

## Coaching for Teacher Growth

### Introduction

The development of various collegial coaching programs nationally has been provoked by the dissatisfaction with current supervisory practices. Conditions such as the historical isolation of teachers within schools [Alfonso, 1977; Copeland and Jamgochun, 1985], stratified organizational climates [Alfonso, Firth, and Neville, 1981; McFaul and Cooper, 1984; Schonberger, 1986], and anxiety and distrust [Blumberg, 1974; Schonberger, 1986] have elicited a need for alternate instructional support systems. The underlying techniques in many collegial support programs reflect the philosophical and methodological orientations of clinical supervision [Ellis, Smith, and Abbott, 1979; McFaul and Cooper, 1984; Glatthorn, 1984; Schonberger, 1986; Mofett, St. John, and Isken, 1987; Hopfengardner and Leahy, 1988; Chase and Wolfe, 1989]. The changing views of worker roles within organizations in industry have correlations in education [George, 1983], particularly in the examination of the proactive roles teachers play in staff and professional development [Joyce and Showers, 1980, 1983; Wood, McQuarrie, and Thompson, 1982; Little, 1985; Showers, 1985; Servatius and Young, 1985; Munro and Elliott, 1987; and Wu, 1987].

This examination will focus on the roles of teachers in supervision/evaluation, and staff development. The various types of collegial support systems will be identified in the literature and common factors that seem to contribute to successful implementation will be highlighted. The developmental stages of collegial support programs will be outlined and barriers to successful implementation will be discussed.

### **Supervision and Coaching**

Coaching can be defined as an in class follow-up by a supportive advisor who helps a teacher correctly apply skills learned in training [Showers, 1982]. This definition recalls Cogan's lament that after spending capital on new curriculum and materials, teachers can call on practically no one for clinical supervision to help rid them of old, inappropriate teaching methods. Therefore, the recognition of the need for coaches / supervisors and the use of peers in the coaching process is not new [Glatthorn, 1984]. At the heart of clinical supervision is the notion of giving feedback regarding specific classroom events for improved performance; in other words, coaching. According to Hunter "coaching and supervision are the same. A coach is a person who has the skills to enable another person to perform better" [Brandt, 1985, 64].

As previously seen in the literature on staff development, the implementations of new teaching strategies into a teacher's active repertoire is predicated on the provision of in class support to the teacher [Joyce and Showers, 1980; Showers, 1982; Brandt, 1987].

### The "Supervisor" vs The "Coach"

Despite Hunter's assertion, there is considerable disagreement regarding the role of teachers as supervisors. Much of the controversy, however, would seem to be dependent on one's vision or definition of supervision. Perhaps due to the classical view of supervision as control, direction, assignment, and evaluation, teachers cannot also be supervisors [Alfonso and Goldsberry, 1982]. Whether this view reflects the reality of current thought in the area of supervision is not germane to this debate. If this is the prevalent view among teachers, it is pointless to refer to teachers as "supervisors". Despite the view of supervision as a formative process, the term "supervision" implies a superordinate/subordinate relationship [Alfonso and Goldsberry, 1982, 105]. If, as Glatthorn [1987] maintains, supervision is professional development, and professional development is defined as "all formal and informal processes used by school administrators, supervisors, and teachers to



help teachers grow professionally" [Glatthorn, 1987, 78], teachers can contribute to supervision efforts, but, not as supervisors. "Contributing to supervision and carrying out the formal responsibilities for supervision are two different things" [Alfonso and Goldsberry, 1982, 94]. Supervision is not a task that can be delegated to teachers by administrators.

There is an inherent conflict between the supervisory and evaluative processes. Supervision is a formative, developmental process which proposes to improve instruction [McCarthy, 1986]. Evaluation on the other hand is a summative, judgmental process of assessing teacher performance for the purpose of making administrative decisions [Glatthorn and Holler, 1987].

There is nonetheless some support in the literature for a close relationship between the two [Christen and Murphy, 1987; Hopfengardner and Walker, 1984]. They envision a role that teachers can play to support administrative decisions within the evaluation process. The concept links staff development initiatives and evaluation. It seems that the reconciliation of the process of supervision and the development of an open, supportive, and trusting coaching relationship would be impossible if there existed ties to the evaluation process.



While acknowledging the dangers and the conflicts Garmston [1987] maintains that the principal can fulfill both roles as evaluator and coach when three conditions exist: 1) teachers know when the principal is evaluating and when he/she is supervising, 2) the principals' behavior is congruent with the role they are assuming, and 3) trust exists in the relationship. Nevertheless most of the literature on coaching insists that the principal's role is primarily that of a facilitator [Brandt, 1987; Kent, 1985; Little, 1985; Munro and Elliott, 1987; Showers, 1982; Raney and Robbins, 1989]. Observations by the principal tempt teachers to repeat previous "safe performances" rather than attempting riskier novel strategies and techniques [Bang-Jensen, 1986]. Joyce asserts in a 1987 interview that "supervisors and principals who don't practice as much as the teachers won't be able to help teachers as much as the teachers, who are practicing the skills daily." He sees the role of administrators as facilitators of the coaching process rather than actual coaches [Brandt, 1987, 16].

### **Peers as Instructional Coaches**

The interpersonal dynamics and logistics involved in an ongoing staff support system emphasizing teacher growth seems to confirm the importance of peer coaches [Showers, 1985].

"Examining one's own teaching performance and the performance of others in a non-judgemental way...is more likely to produce a desire to change and grow...than an externally controlled, disenfranchising, manipulatory tactic" typically found in the evaluation process [Schonberger, 1986, 252]. Although teachers cannot be supervisors [Alfonso and Goldsberry, 1982, 95], they can be on-site resources for their colleagues. The notion of workers collaborating for the improvement of skills is not a novel idea. In some occupations it is the expectation of the workplace: for example, partners in a law firm, physicians in practice together, carpenters on a job site, actors in a play [Alfonso and Goldsberry, 1982, 98].

The opportunity for professional growth in a non-threatening atmosphere seems to encourage teachers to take the risks implicit in change and growth [Chrisco, 1989]. Colleagues bring to the coaching relationship empathy, an understanding of the workplace and a familiarity with the "needs of specific children" [Bang-Jensen, 1986, 61]. The professional self concept of teachers is enhanced by the very process of increasing work-related communication [Garmston, 1985]. This process is "designed to release in teachers a dialogue around the rich knowledge they appear otherwise to withhold" [Grimmett, 1987, 4]. Teachers prefer to participate as equals and the development of collegial coaching in schools seems to lead to more dialogue regarding

instructional content and methodology, not just in the conference setting, but also informally, in the teachers' lounge [Hopfengardner and Leahy, 1988, 50].

One of the pervasive characteristics of a teacher's work environment is isolation. Collegial coaches "provide a break in the isolation that impedes the improvement of instructional skills" [Leggett and Hoyle, 1987, 17]. Collegial coaching programs help define new norms of collegiality [Alfonso and Goldsberry, 1982] and emphasize a shared responsibility for professional growth [Munro and Elliott, 1987, 25]. They promote this growth by creating an atmosphere of experimentation and innovation, an environment in which "it's okay to let the rough edges show" [Raney and Robbins, 1989, 37]. Positive peer interactions remove the element of distrust as a barrier to teacher growth through staff development [Showers, 1985]. The coaches as well as the teachers seem to change their own behaviors [Blair, 1984].

### Collegial Coaching Programs

There is a fairly wide range of terms used to describe collegial coaching programs. The term peer supervision frequently appears in the literature [McGuire, 1958; Alfonso, 1977; Alfonso and Goldsberry, 1982; Bang-Jensen, 1986;

Mosenthal, 1984; etc.]. However, partly in response to the negative connotations of the word "supervision" there has been a proliferation of other terms in the literature to describe processes of teachers helping teachers: "peer clinical supervision" [McFaul and Cooper, 1984], "peer coaching" [Joyce and Showers; Munro and Elliott, 1987; Stallings, 1985], "peer panel" [Lawrence and Branch, 1978], "team coaching" [Neubert and Bratton, 1987], "peer sharing and caring" [Raney and Robbins, 1989], "cooperative professional development" [Glatthorn, 1984], "cognitive coaching" [Costa and Garmston, 1985], "Resident Supervisory Support" [Washington, D.C. School Department, 1981], "teacher advisor" [Servatius and Young, 1985; Kent, 1985; Little, 1985], "peer review" [Copeland and Jamgochun, 1985].

Collegial coaching can refer to a wide range of programs designed to support teachers. They vary in terms of implementation, organization and complexity. However, they do possess common characteristics:

- 1 - the programs involve teachers or groups of teachers planning, observing, or talking about instruction
- 2 - the programs are institutionalized in the sense that they are sanctioned school activities which are frequently affiliated with current change and school improvement efforts

3 - they involve peer relationships and are non-evaluative in nature [Glatthorn, 1984, 40]

### Stages of Collegial Coaching

Similar to the developmental view of supervision and the phases of teacher growth described by Glickman [1981, 1985], teachers and coaches involved in collegial coaching programs proceed through developmental stages. Programs vary in complexity in meeting the needs of both the teacher and the organizational setting. There appear to be four distinct developmental stages varying in levels of sophistication and training requirements: 1) Pre-coaching, 2) Coaching for Curriculum Improvement, 3) Coaching for Instructional Improvement, and 4) Coaching for Transfer of Training.

In the pre-coaching stage norms of collegiality and collaboration are developed in the school. Teachers talking with other teachers about curriculum and instruction becomes valued in the culture. Although no formal training is needed, sharing of a common language is very helpful.

A coach may initially function as a curriculum resource to the teacher. Coaching for curriculum development is focused on the "what" (content and materials) versus the "how" (methodology) of instruction. It therefore is much



less personal and threatening to the teacher. Assuming the basis of collegiality is in place, teachers can work very productively in making curriculum decisions, and designing curriculum to meet the goals which they have identified. This presupposes a model of school organization which fosters and enables teacher-directed curriculum development. The coach in this situation is a member of a curriculum planning team and helps identify resources for the team's planning and lesson design. Although initially this may not involve direct observation of instruction, the ultimate goal is the development of a trusting relationship which will culminate in direct observation [Glatthorn, 1984]. At this stage there is an increased need for training.

The purpose of coaching for instructional improvement is to refine a teacher's existing skills. Great care must be taken to foster a trusting, helping relationship between the participants. Coaching for improved instructional practice requires a high level of trust in the relationship among participants and high levels of training. The coaching focuses on the refinement of existing behaviors in a teacher's repertoire. Formal agreements between the teacher and the coach with regard to the goals and objectives of the observation, the method of data collection, and type of feedback need to be negotiated. This requires extensive training for the coach in observation and conferencing techniques (ex. clinical supervision methods).

Coaching for the transfer of training is also called expert coaching. The purpose is to support the transfer of new skills introduced through staff development efforts [Joyce and Showers, 1982; Showers, 1985]. In talking about teachers integrating new models of teaching, such as synectics or cooperative learning, into their active repertoire, Joyce indicates that "it's going to take maybe thirty trials to get reasonably good at a model, in the sense that they can use it as easily as they use their existing repertoire" [Brandt, 1987, 14]. Training and human dynamics requirements are similar to those listed above, however, the intensity and extensive time requirement are more complex. It's important to note that very few coaching programs attain this level of development.

In their work on the transfer of training into a teacher's active repertoire Joyce and Showers [1982] identify five functions of coaching: 1) provision of companionship, 2) provision of technical feedback, 3) analysis of application, 4) adaptation to the students, and 5) personal facilitation. "As the process of transfer begins and practice intensifies, closer and closer attention must be given to appropriate use" [Joyce and Showers, 1982, 7].

The task of learning new skills and integrating them, not only as an individual but as an entire team; the knowledge that we'll generally make you worse before we make you better, and the importance of continuing to try when results are discouraging eloquently describes the transfer process" [Joyce and Showers, 1982, 10].

As previously mentioned the time demands of this approach are extensive.

### **Colleagueship**

Implicit in each stage are different levels of complexity and sophistication both in terms of the peer interaction and training requirements. Colleagueship develops in organizations where staff relationships are built on mutual trust and respect [Bang-Jensen, 1986]. The three advantages inherent in colleagueship are:

- 1) Human resources in the school are mobilized in a joint effort
- 2) Recognition that classroom teachers have much to contribute to instructional improvement and encouragement for teachers to assume proactive roles in the design and implementation of instructional improvement

- 3) Successful introduction of instructional innovations is more likely in schools having active collegueship [Alfonso and Goldsberry, 1982, 90].

When collegiality becomes the hallmark of staff relationships the prospects of curriculum and staff development improve considerably.

### The Coaching Process

Although there are many variations found in the literature, when the focus is instructional improvement there are three elements that are basic to any coaching process:

- 1) the pre-observation conference, 2) the observation and
- 3) the post-observation conference.

In the pre-observation conference the teacher explains the intended purpose of the lesson, projects anticipated student outcomes, plans with the coach teaching behaviors and strategies to attain these outcomes, and reaches an agreement with the coach as to the focus of the observation. This essentially forms a contract between the teacher and coach. During the observation the coach collects objective data regarding the agreed upon elements of instruction. The post-observation conference focuses on the congruence with what

actually happened in the classroom and what was planned. The teacher is prompted to reflect about the lesson, considering actual teacher and student behaviors through analysis of the collected data [Raney and Robbins, 1989]. The entire coaching process is characterized by cycles of analyzing, studying, forming hypotheses, and testing [Showers, 1985, 44]. Coaching is a vehicle of implementation and not a process unto itself [Leggett and Hoyle, 1987, 18].

Little [1985] lists six principles of coaching, or, as she calls it, advising: 1) common language, 2) focus on a few key concerns or questions, 3) objective record of lesson, 4) interaction fostering the opportunity to learn from one another, 5) reliance on predictable topics, criteria, and methods, and 6) reciprocity, talking to each other and preserving individual dignity.

### **Giving Feedback**

There are three ways of providing feedback to the teacher: mirroring, collaborative coaching, and expert coaching. Mirroring consists of the use of an objective observational instrument in which the coach has agreed to focus on certain behaviors that are of concern to the teacher. Most often the data collected indicates the



presence or absence of a particular behavior during an instructional episode. The observational form may be simply given to the teacher for review, or discussed in a post-observation conference. This is an excellent way for the beginning coach to become more comfortable with the observation component of coaching while not attempting post observation conferencing. The ultimate goal is the successful implementation and integration of post observation conferencing skills into the coach's repertoire.

Conferencing is a necessary component to collaborative and expert coaching. The collaborative coach observes the lesson, collects and helps analyze the data; the expert coach observes the lesson, and gives feedback to help the teacher learn or refine a particular skill [Chase and Wolfe, 1989, 38].

In my experience, conferencing is the most anxiety producing part of the process for teachers and coaches, and requires the most attention in the training of coaches. It places a premium on the interpersonal skills of the coach. Effective feedback is:

- 1 - Specific rather than general
- 2 - Focused on behavior
- 3 - Takes into account the needs of the receiver
- 4 - Directed toward behavior that the receiver can do something about
- 5 - Solicited, rather than imposed

- 6 - Sharing of information, not just giving advice
- 7 - Well-timed, as immediate as possible
- 8 - Giving the amount of information the receiver can use rather than the amount the supervisor would like to give
- 9 - Concerned with what is said or done, or how, not why
- 10 - Checked to insure clear communication [Mattaliano, 1984].

In a study of the Skills of Advising Project, sponsored by the Far West Laboratory and the Marin County Teacher Advisor Project it was found that conferences were extraordinary events and that they were relatively rare. "The acceptance, mutual respect, and close working relations that made advisors welcome in the classroom appeared hard won" [Little, 1985, 35].

Similarly, in a study by Grimmett [1987], although principals and teachers applauded the benefits of collegial coaching their participation in the program was minimal due to a variety of factors which will be discussed later. The program was successfully implemented in only 1 of 8 schools in the district.

## Training of Coaches

Poor quality coaching is worse than the absence of coaching. The quality of coaching is related to four factors: 1) focus: the purpose, objective and skills addressed in the pre-conference, 2) analysis: the ability of the coach to engage the teacher in analysis, 3) moderation: the absence of inappropriate or overwhelming suggestions in the conference, and 4) equivocation: the tendency of coaches to dominate post conference discussion by identifying elements for the teacher and offering unsolicited opinions [Mandeville and Rivers, 1988/89, 65].

The development of collegial coaching programs presumes the availability of a wide range of training opportunities. Such training should include: 1) review of the research on collegial coaching, 2) factors influencing the collegial coaching relationship, 3) practice in observation skills, including the use of objective observational instruments and script taping, 4) practice in conferencing and communication skills [Raney and Robbins, 1989; Leggett and Hoyle, 1987]. In addition, Raney and Robbins recommend a review of change theory and effective staff development practices. Leggett and Hoyle encourage the use of videotaped recordings and audiotapes to further support training.

## Successful Implementation Characteristics

In reviewing the literature on collegial coaching the initial problem is to determine what is meant by successful. How do you measure success? Is it predicated on attitudinal changes of teachers toward coaching, heightened levels of collegiality and collaboration, successful implementation of new models of teaching, or significant improvements in student achievement?

Most of the research on collegial coaching is focused on teachers' attitudes and perceptions regarding supervision. Most studies are concerned with the effect of such programs on teachers. They cite the improvement in teacher attitudes toward supervision [Cooper, 1983; Munro and Elliott, 1987], an increased sense of collegiality among participants [Mosenthal, 1984], positive correlations between levels of coaching and the implementation of new teaching strategies [Servatius and Young, 1985], positive effects on school climate [Raney and Robbins, 1989; Garmston, 1987], breakdown in teacher isolation, and effects on the observer [Blair, 1984]. Very little data regarding the effects of coaching on student achievement is in the literature, and what does exist is inconclusive.

Since collegial coaching does appear to have a positive impact on the areas listed above, it can be deemed successful

in impacting factors related to teachers and their environment. The basic assumption is that if teachers are happier, less isolated, and, through coaching, more skillful instructors, then student learning will accelerate.

In his review of feasibility studies Glatthorn [1984] identifies five characteristics for successful implementation:

- 1 - the positive advocacy of administration
- 2 - the support of union leaders
- 3 - a school climate that values collaboration
- 4 - close monitoring of the program
- 5 - availability of resources

Other characteristics found in the literature are:

- 1 - voluntary participation
- 2 - confidentiality
- 3 - adequate levels of training
- 4 - teacher involvement in all phases of planning and development
- 5 - process divorced from evaluation
- 6 - need for a common language and focus
- 7 - careful attention to the dynamics of interpersonal relationships



While the development of such programs is contingent on many factors, there are many examples of successful programs in the literature discussed in this paper. However, there does not exist any longitudinal data regarding successful long term implementations.

### Barriers to Collegial Coaching Programs

There are several barriers to successful implementation which can be identified in the literature ranging from the nature of school organizations to past experiences.

For example, past experiences with in-service is a significant factor. "The mere mention of 'in-service' is often repugnant to teachers, tainted by a conviction that past experiences will repeat themselves" [Fredericks 1987, 664].

Alfonso and Goldsberry [1982] cite the problem of current collective bargaining agreements.

Nevertheless, the primary barriers to successful implementation are due to the context of the schools and the nature of interpersonal relationships within them. Many of these barriers are consistent with the difficulties associated with the implementation of clinical supervision in

schools [McFaul and Cooper, 1984]. The basic attitude toward collegiality, the need for increased professional respect and treatment accorded to teachers, and the pervasiveness of competition in school climates are all major barriers to implementation [Alfonso and Goldsberry, 1982]. "Teachers for generations have maintained a colossal and almost studied ignorance about classroom behavior of their peers" [Alfonso, 1977, 596]. He goes on to state that only when the basic norms for teacher interactions change, and collaboration becomes valued within the school climate will collegial coaching succeed. McFaul and Cooper [1984] recognize the contextual patterns of isolation, fragmentation, stratification, standardization and reactionism that contribute to the apathy of teachers. McFaul and Cooper found that teachers as a result were unanalytical with little sense of initiative or long range planning. Other factors include: staff jealousies, incompatibility between teacher and coach, the fear of empowerment among teachers, and the inadequacy of teacher/coach training opportunities [Kent, 1985].

In addition, time becomes a very serious factor in the implementation of such programs due to training demands and the nature of the coaching process. "Major business spends nearly 6% of their operational time on staff training and improvement, schools typically devote less than 0.5% of their time on staff improvement" [Fredericks, 1987, 664].

## Summary

The research on training clearly indicates the need for instructional coaching in order to transfer new skills and methodologies learned in training into teachers' classrooms. Without support, teachers will continue to utilize safe, risk-free strategies that have been part of their teaching repertoire for years. There are many examples of successful implementations of these programs found in the literature. However, the establishment of collegial coaching programs is not a simple proposition. In fact, there are probably many more implementation failures than successes for the reasons previously discussed.

The relationship of supervision and coaching, the roles of peers as instructional coaches, the non-judgemental feedback typical of coaching and clinical supervision, the developmental stages of coaching programs and the necessary training components have been reviewed. Characteristics of successful program implementation as well as barriers to implementation efforts have been discussed. Following consideration of these factors there remains some interesting unanswered questions which will be the focus of this research.

Middle schools organized to meet the needs of young adolescents would also seem to foster norms of collegiality and collaboration needed for the implementation of coaching programs. Heightened norms of teacher empowerment might also be a significant factor. These and other questions this researcher endeavored to answer through this investigation of several ongoing programs.

# C H A P T E R   I I I

## RESEARCH DESIGN

### Introduction

This chapter outlines the research design and rationales for 1) identification of middle schools with coaching programs, 2) selection of sites for further study, 3) approaches to research methodologies, 4) data gathering techniques, and 5) data analysis.

### Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine whether or not components within middle school organizations promote and nurture efforts to implement collegial coaching programs. Components investigated included, but were not limited to, the following: team organization, teacher roles and responsibilities regarding scheduling, grouping, curriculum design and teaching methodology, staff development activities and school governance, and perceptions of administrators, coaches and other teachers regarding the collegial support



activities. Through this investigation understandings were developed regarding how and why collegial coaching programs are nurtured in their respective environments.

Collegial coaching programs differ in terms of complexity and sophistication. The term "middle school" is used to describe a range of organizational practices which reflect a similar vision or orientation. The literature commonly refers to this vision as the "middle school concept". Characteristics of this concept have been outlined in Chapter 2 (see pp. 20 - 24). As middle schools evolve in their understanding and implementation of middle school concepts these practices exist in varying degrees in a range of institutions - from traditional models to schools that have undergone significant systemic change. The three school sites in this study, while each is in the process of significant systemic change, are at different stages in the metamorphosis from traditional junior high school to the middle school concept. Descriptions of each case study site are found in Chapter 4.

Organizations are viewed as changing and evolving entities in which roles are regularly reassessed and components and practices are modified to meet the changing goals of the organization and the needs of its constituents.

## Prior Investigations

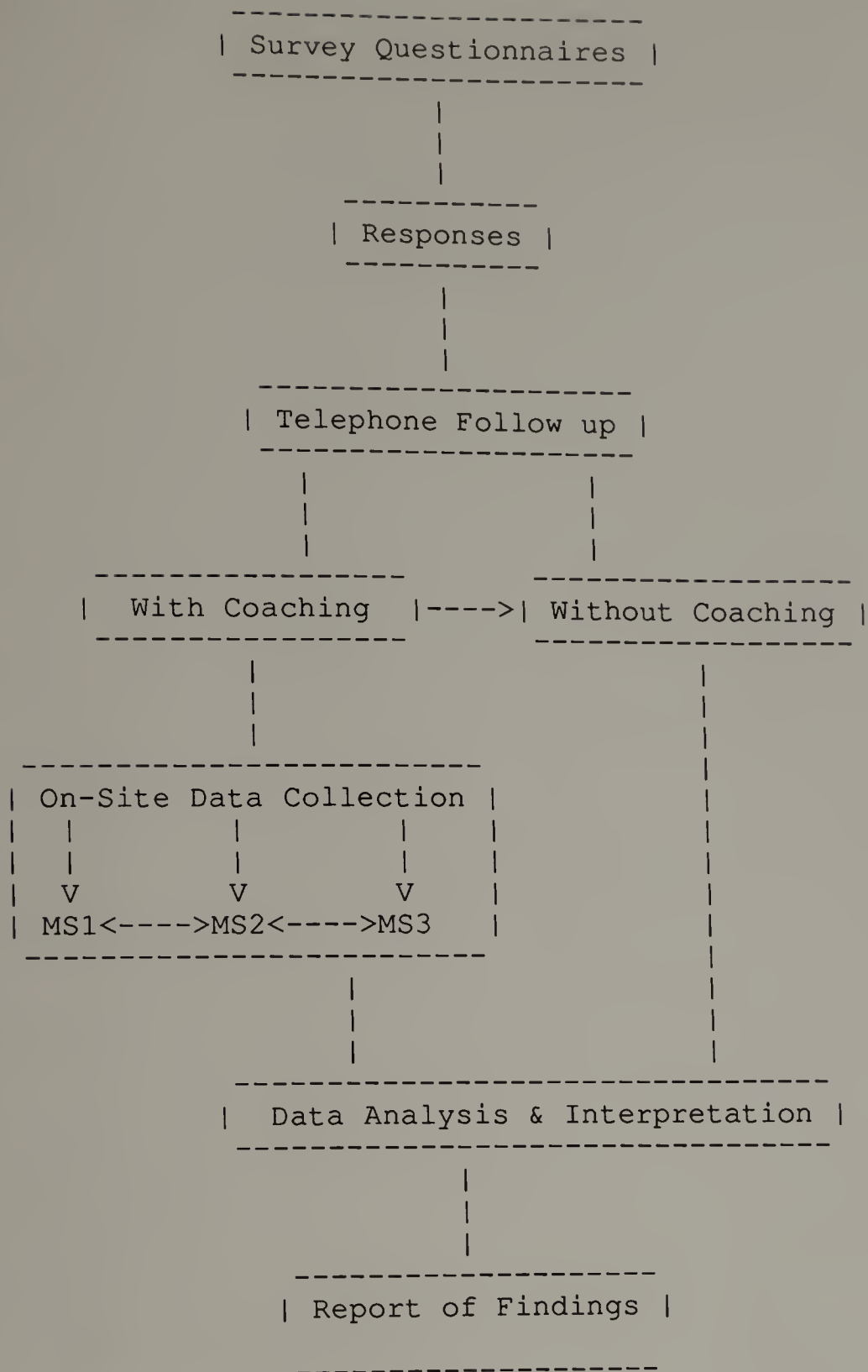
Earlier studies completed by this researcher in 1985 and 1989 focused primarily on teacher attitudes and perceptions regarding supervision and collegial coaching. Review of data from these studies has indicated that powerful components in school organizations seem to be the level of teacher empowerment, and how teachers perceive their role in school governance and decision-making processes.

## Type of Study

This study is a multi-site case study. Case studies allow for an intensive investigation of a phenomenon [Bogdan and Biklen, 1982].

A case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used" [Yin, 1984, 23].

Accepting the notion of school context as a constantly evolving entity would seem to call for the use of case study methodology for this investigation. (see Figure 3.1)



**Figure 3.1: Research Design**

## Preliminary Data Collection

Initially questionnaires were sent to middle/junior high schools in Eastern Massachusetts that maintained membership in the New England League of Middle Schools (NELMS). The assumption was that membership in NELMS indicates a philosophical orientation toward middle school concepts and practices which were discussed in Chapter 2.

The questionnaire (see Appendix A) focused on the demographic and organizational characteristics of these schools. Ninety six questionnaires were sent out and sixty two (64.6%) were returned. Twenty four schools (25% of the total schools and 38.7% of those returning questionnaires) were identified through this initial questionnaire as having peer coaching programs for teachers.

Each school which indicated the existence of a collegial coaching program was contacted by phone in order to insure the accuracy of the data and to ascertain whether or not the school might be willing to participate further in this study. This resulted in a lower number of schools with the types of collegial coaching activities consistent with this research. A number of schools which indicated no program at their schools were also contacted at random in order to once again insure the accuracy of the data. This resulted in no changes in the initial findings.

Although the primary purpose of the questionnaire was the identification of schools with peer coaching programs, interesting and revealing data emerged which will be discussed in Chapters 4 and 5.

### Sampling Strategy

Although the temptation was to include the researcher's school in this new study, it was decided to adhere to Bogdan and Bilken's advice to "study something in which you are not directly involved" [Bogdan and Bilken, 1982, 57] since it is difficult to distance oneself from personal concerns and common sense understandings of what is going on. It is also difficult to interact with people within the organization as a researcher or as a neutral observer. This may in turn skew the data in terms of its authenticity and validity. "The transition from your old self to your researcher self becomes more ambiguous" [Bogdan and Bilken, 1982, 57].

Initially, a form of criterion sampling [Patton, 1990, 176-177] was used to identify those schools that might be utilized for further investigation. However, given the limited resources of this investigation, it was not feasible to study all of the cases meeting the criteria outlined below. Schools identified for further investigation were



selected on the basis of four criteria: 1) the grade structure consisted of at least two grades, no more than five grades, and included grades seven and eight, 2) there existed a form of collegial coaching in the school which, at a minimum, was in its third year of implementation, 3) the concept of coaching consisted of a transaction between and among equals, and 4) the program was not related to staff evaluation and played no role in staffing decisions of administrators. Schools identified as fulfilling these criteria were selected for possible participation in this study.

Ultimately, a form of maximum variation sampling was utilized. "This strategy for purposeful sampling aims at capturing and describing central themes or principal outcomes that cut across a great deal of participant or program variation" [Patton, 1990, 172]. In selecting school sites some attention was given to selecting schools which reflected real world diversity. In 1985 the State Department of Education for the Commonwealth of Massachusetts developed a system for categorizing communities which has been utilized for reporting results on state mandated testing programs such as the Massachusetts Educational Assessment Program. These categories reflect the range of communities in the state. They use seven different descriptors as categories: urbanized centers, economically developed suburbs, growth communities, residential suburbs, rural economic centers, small rural

communities, and resort/retirement and artistic communities. For more information regarding this classification system please see Appendix C. Three sites were selected for further study: one each in an urbanized center, in a growth community, and in a residential suburb. Additional data will be presented in Chapter 4.

Multiple sites were selected for the purposes of external validity. The purpose is not to attain "statistical" generalization but "analytical" generalization. Here "the investigator is striving to generalize a particular set of results to some broader theory" [Yin, 1984, 39]. Nevertheless, the qualitative interpretive assumption remains that "the social world is always changing and the concept of replication is itself problematic" [Marshall and Rossman, 1989, 147].

Unless a school district had a different protocol, access to the schools was arranged through the building principals. Informational meetings with prospective teacher participants were held. An "overt approach" was used with the schools. This approach consisted of providing information to the school authorities and faculty about the research focus and methods, and to seek their cooperation on a voluntary basis [Bogdan and Biklen, 1982, 121].

## Data Collection

Although some quantitative data was collected through the use of the written questionnaire, qualitative methodologies were the primary vehicles of this investigation.

Qualitative methods permit the evaluator to study selected issues in depth and detail. Approaching fieldwork without being constrained by predetermined categories of analysis contributes to the depth, openness, and detail of qualitative inquiry [Patton, 1990, 13].

The research setting is a naturally existing program that has no predetermined course established by the researcher. The goal of qualitative research is to "understand naturally occurring phenomena in their naturally occurring states" [Patton, 1990, 41].

The main source for data collection was interviews (see Appendix B) conducted with the administration and staff members in each school. The approach used was a general interview guide approach coupled with some aspects of a standardized open-ended approach. Unlike a written questionnaire, interview methodology allows the informant "freedom to introduce materials that were not anticipated" [Whyte, 1984, 97]. The role of the interviewer is to allow the person being interviewed to bring the interviewer into his/her world [Patton, 1990, 279]. Although the general

focus of the interviews was related to a selected question format, the issues were not taken in any particular order due in part to the logistics unique to each site. This approach allowed for greater flexibility and created a conversational tone to the interviews. "The interviewer is required to adapt both the wording and the sequence of questions to specific respondents in the context of the actual interview" [Patton, 1990, 280]. Although this approach can result in the inadvertent omission of important topics or decrease the comparability of responses it was felt that careful construction of the interview guide avoided these pitfalls while allowing the researcher to pursue unanticipated lines of inquiry.

Twenty seven informants, three administrators (the principal and/or other administrators responsible for facilitation of the programs) and twenty four teachers, participated in this study. Teachers represented all major academic disciplines as well as enrichment and remedial subjects. This was particularly important since, in middle schools, working conditions of regular classroom teachers can vary significantly from other staff members. No volunteers were excluded from participation in the study. The vast majority participated in individual interviews although some small group interviews were held. This was based on the wants and needs of the informant rather than the researcher. Interviews were recorded with the full knowledge and consent

of participants with confidentiality of the schools and participants guaranteed. Tapes were transcribed for the organization and review of data. Direct observation and review of pertinent existing documents as well as the information collected from the questionnaires were utilized to corroborate and validate information.

### Data Analysis

The basic proposition of this study is that collegial support programs operate within varied organizational contexts, and that components within middle school organizations may promote and nurture implementation efforts. This study is not explanatory in nature (i.e. an attempt to establish causal relationships among variables) [Yin, 1984, 25] but rather exploratory. Each phase of data analysis consists of "data reduction" as the diverse elements of collected data are processed into meaningful information and "interpretation as the researcher brings meaning and insight to the words and acts of the participants in the study" [Marshall and Rossman, 1989, 114].



## Questionnaire Data

Initial data analysis involved review and compilation of data from the written questionnaire. The data highlighted various organizational characteristics within surveyed middle schools. Although the ultimate purpose of the questionnaire was to identify middle schools with a history of collegial coaching, some interesting data emerged which helped identify contemporary practices in surveyed middle schools and their progress in implementing middle school concepts consistent with the recommendations of the Carnegie Council for Adolescent Development.

The data was analyzed from multiple perspectives. First it was viewed holistically, followed by analysis focused on several variables. Other than looking at frequency of response, no statistical procedures were attempted. Nevertheless, the data was useful in establishing a frame of reference for this study, and a realization of the relative scarcity of mature peer coaching programs in area middle schools.

## Qualitative Data Analysis

There are "few agreed on cannons for qualitative data analysis, in the sense of shared ground rules for drawing

conclusions and verifying their sturdiness" [Miles and Huberman, 1984, 16]. Given the uncertainty regarding the identification and nature of variables and units of analysis consistent with qualitative research studies [Yin, 1984, 99], the beginnings of a strategy for choosing appropriate methods for analysis of the data were found in the fieldwork. There is an emergent quality to qualitative inquiry in which themes and patterns gradually become more evident as the researcher develops a better understanding of the informants' perceptions of their world. "Qualitative data analysis is a search for general statements about relationships among categories of data; it builds grounded theory" [Marshall and Rossman, 1989, 112].

Triangulation of data sources was utilized for data analysis.

Triangulation is the act of bringing more than one source of data to bear on a single point.... Designing a study in which multiple cases are used, multiple informants or more than one data gathering technique can greatly strengthen the study's usefulness for other settings [Marshall and Rossman, 1989, 146].

This study utilized three sites, multiple informants at each site, and a variety of data sources: questionnaires, interviews, direct observation, and written documents. Data was organized and categorized for the purpose of evaluation

and analysis. Alternate interpretive assumptions were considered and investigated among the sites.

A total of twenty two interviews were completed with twenty seven informants: teachers and administrators, nine informants in each building. In most cases interviews were completed in one session although a second interview had to occasionally be scheduled due to time and scheduling constraints. In most cases the interviews were with individuals. These interviews were recorded with the knowledge and consent of the participants. Initial reflections on the interviews were logged for later reference and consideration. The tapes were later transcribed for analysis.

Initial review of the transcripts consisted of content analysis and coding. "Content analysis is a process of identifying, coding, and categorizing the primary patterns in the data" [Patton, 1990, 381]. A system of color coding and labeling segments of transcripts and other documents was developed. This code was related to emerging patterns and themes that would be utilized later in the interpretation of the data. Once the raw data was coded and labeled it was extricated from the raw data and filed electronically by computer for subsequent retrieval for inductive analysis. Patton explains that:

Inductive analysis means that the patterns, themes, and categories of analysis come from the data; they emerge out of the data rather than being imposed on them prior to data collection and analysis. The analyst looks for natural variation in the data...

Two ways of representing the patterns emerge from analysis of the data. First, the analyst can use the categories developed and articulated by the people studied to organize presentation of particular themes. Second, the analyst may also become aware of categories or patterns for which the people studied did not have labels or terms, and the analyst develops terms to describe these inductively generated categories [Patton, 1990, p.390].

Through data analysis themes were identified in an attempt to make "linkages between concepts, noting irregularities which have aroused the researcher's curiosity" [Miles, 1984, 26].

When possible feedback from study participants regarding findings was utilized as a validating procedure particularly with regard to the existence of actual phenomena rather than interpretation of said phenomena [Yin, 1984, 137]. This helped to corroborate the evidence collected as data while still allowing for differences in interpretation.

Findings are reported using a cross-case analysis format in which cross-case issues and the information from the individual cases will be dispersed throughout each section in Chapter4 in the presentation of case study data.

## C H A P T E R I V

### STUDY DATA

#### Introduction

This chapter presents the data obtained from questionnaires, personal interviews and other relevant sources.

Initially the questionnaire data will be presented in order to provide a context for the rest of this investigation. A comprehensive item analysis of the data is not presented. Rather, the presentation will focus on demographic data and programmatic structures as they relate to this study, and the selection of sites for further research.

The second part of this chapter will profile the schools and communities that were selected for further study. Discussion will outline demographic factors in each community, the diversity of the student body, programmatic features, the organization of each school and the development of collegial coaching at each site.



The third part of the chapter will present data collected on-site at each school. The primary data source is interview transcripts. Much of the data will be presented in the words of the participants. In addition some other relevant data from direct observation and official documents will be included. A cross case analysis format will be utilized focusing on common patterns and themes that emerge from the data as well as significant differences found among the sites.

### Questionnaire Data

The questionnaire was sent to ninety six schools in eighty two communities in the Greater Boston / Framingham area. All participating schools were active members in the New England League of Middle Schools. Sixty two schools (64.6%) responded to the questionnaire. Twenty four schools (38.7% of the respondents) indicated that collegial coaching was an on-going activity in the school.(see Table 4.1) "T of C" in the tables on page refers to "Type of Community". For more information regarding "T of C" please consult Appendix C.

Due to either some contradictory or incomplete responses contained in some questionnaires, follow-up telephone

contacts were made to all schools indicating on-going collegial coaching activities in order to ensure the accuracy of the data. Table 4.2 shows how this resulted in some significant shifts in results. Of the twenty-four sites initially identified for potential further study only twelve were judged to meet the criteria of this investigation. Schools were excluded for the following reasons:

<u># of schools</u>	<u>Reasons:</u>
4	Programs were mentor programs
3	Equated coaching with teaming
2	Only in the planning stage
2	Coaching no longer a priority
1	School changed to K-8

Mentor programs were deemed unsuitable for this investigation due to the superordinate - subordinate nature of the mentor relationship. Mentor programs consist of experienced personnel, i.e. tenured staff, senior staff or master teachers, working with new or provisional staff in order to improve instruction. Although the techniques employed in mentor programs are very similar, sometimes identical, to techniques consistent with collegial coaching programs, the focus of this investigation remains on programs that assume equality among participants.

Typically schools that equated coaching with teaming were organized in clusters staffed with interdisciplinary teams of teachers. The schools assumed high levels of collaboration and collegiality among staff. Although prior assimilation of collegial attitudes consistent with teaming may ultimately lead to the desire for and the nurturance of collegial coaching among staff, these schools were not considered as sites for further study due to the absence of a conscious commitment to coaching for improved instruction.

In addition schools that had not yet implemented collegial coaching or had discontinued coaching efforts were excluded as study sites. Sites which discontinued coaching efforts did not have long term programs. Typically programs ceased after the first or second year of operation. Implications of this phenomena will be discussed in Chapter 5.

Of the sixty two respondent schools, twelve (19.4%) were identified as possible sites for further study. However, upon further examination, that number was reduced to eight (12.9%) since the focus of this investigation was on mature (i.e. 3 or more years of implementation) collegial coaching programs.

**Table 4.1: Initial Screening**

TofC	Sent	Ret'd	W/Coaching	N/Coaching
1	27	14	7	7
2	38	28	11	17
3	4	3	1	2
4	16	12	2	10
5	8	4	2	2
6	2	1	1	0
7	1	0	-	-
Totals	96	62	24	38

**Table 4.2: Follow-up, schools indicating "w/coaching"**

TofC	W/Coaching	N/Coaching
1	3	4
2	7	4
3	1	0
4	1	1
5	0	2
6	0	1
7	-	-
Totals	12	12

**Table 4.3: Final Results**

TofC	Sent	Ret'd	W/Coaching	N/Coaching
1	27	14	3	11
2	38	28	7	21
3	4	3	1	2
4	16	12	1	11
5	8	4	0	4
6	2	1	0	1
7	1	0	-	-
Totals	96	62	12	50
%	100%	64.6%	12.5%	52.1%
%	--	100%	19.4%	80.6%

## A Demographic Perspective

Table 4.3 contains a summary of the school identification process. In this table, as well as tables 4.1 and 4.2, "TofC" stands for "Type of Community". This refers to a classification system developed in 1985 by the Department of Education for the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. Prior to this new system the state divided communities into the following: 1) large cities, 2) industrial suburbs, 3) residential suburbs, and 4) small towns and rural communities. The new classification system, developed in 1985, has been used by Massachusetts since 1986 to report results for state mandated testing programs. This system divides the communities into the seven groups listed below:

- 1 = urbanized centers
- 2 = economically developed suburbs
- 3 = growth communities
- 4 = residential suburbs
- 5 = rural economic centers
- 6 = small rural communities
- 7 = resort/retirement and artistic communities

Additional information regarding this system and the methodology utilized to develop it may be found in Appendix C.



Although this study does not require a sophisticated classification system, it does provide a perspective on the parameters of the study and its limitations. Traditionally researchers identify communities as urban, suburban, or rural. Viewed from this perspective urban would include group 1, suburban groups 2 and 4, and rural groups 5 and 6. Communities in groups 3 and 7 are somewhat more difficult to classify. Group 3 communities are growing rapidly and experiencing fundamental change with regard to the make-up of the community. Typically they are communities adopting more suburban characteristics. Group 7 communities, although not truly rural communities, share common characteristics with rural communities.

Within the context of this study rural communities represent only 8.1% of the total respondents to the questionnaire, suburban communities 69.4%, and urban communities 22.5%. The three communities selected for on site investigation represent groups 1, 3, and 4 which parallels the total representative sample.

Schools in both urban and suburban districts report similar levels of coaching activity: urban 3/14 or 21.4%, and suburban 9/43 or 20.9%. No conclusions can be drawn from the absence of coaching programs in rural districts due to the small sample size.

## Enrollment Data

School size does not appear to be a significant variable in encouraging the development of collegial coaching activities at the school level. Table 4.4 shows the range of respondent schools by enrollment. The smallest school had 165 students and the largest 1288 students. Most middle schools (80.6%) in this sample reported an enrollment of 300 to 700 students. Schools with enrollments from 200 to 800 reported the existence of coaching programs. It appears that there is no correlation between school size and the existence of collegial coaching.

**Table 4.4: Enrollment Data**

Students Enrolled	All Schools	No Program	With Program
100 - 200	2	2	0
201 - 300	2	1	1
301 - 400	10	8	2
401 - 500	18	16	2
501 - 600	15	13	2
601 - 700	7	5	2
701 - 800	6	3	3
801 - 900	1	1	0
+ 900	1	1	0

## Staff Organization

The two prevalent forms of staffing at the middle school level are departments and interdisciplinary teams. Self contained classrooms, like those found in many elementary schools, were not found in this sample.

Schools that are organized by department resemble most closely the traditional high school model where teachers teach one subject to various groups and levels of students, and infrequently plan curriculum and instruction with teachers representing other departments. Nationally, as recently as 1973, this was the prevalent organization in middle/junior high schools [Cawelti, 1988].

As the middle school concept has become established and accepted there has been a movement towards interdisciplinary teaming. This type of organization presumes a high level of collaboration and collegiality. Typically a team is composed of 4 - 5 teachers who have teaching responsibilities in one or more academic disciplines. They share a common group of students and plan cooperatively to meet the needs of these students. Table 4.5 shows the pattern of organization in the respondent schools.

**Table 4.5: Staff Organization**

Type	With Coaching	No Coaching	Reported Coaching
Departmental	16.7%	34.2%	8.3%
Interdisciplinary	66.7%	34.2%	50.0%
Both	16.7%	31.6%	41.7%

This table categorizes the schools according to their responses to the questionnaire. Numbers in the "Reported Coaching" column are those schools that were ultimately excluded from on-site participation in this study for the reasons cited earlier. Interestingly, for those schools accounted for in the "With Coaching" column and schools with similar or related practices assimilated under "Reported Coaching", very few, 12.5% combined, are organized as traditional departmentalized junior high schools. In contrast, over one third of the schools reporting "No Coaching" were organized in departments. Over two thirds of the schools adopting coaching practices were organized into interdisciplinary teaching teams. An additional 16.7% of the schools reported a combination of both departmentalized and interdisciplinary team organization. Therefore 83.4% of the schools with coaching reported some interdisciplinary teaming in their organization.

Viewed holistically this table shows the tremendous movement toward teaming practices in area middle schools and the philosophical shift toward the "middle school concept". Interdisciplinary teaming does not guarantee the successful development of coaching. There were many schools reporting interdisciplinary teaming that did not have a coaching program for teachers. Nevertheless, these kinds of schools reported a much greater incidence of these programs than departmentalized schools. The high levels of collegiality and collaboration consistent with interdisciplinary team structures seem to provide a nurturing climate for collegial coaching programs.

Departmental organizations can also support the development of collegial coaching programs. However it must be noted that within the scope of this investigation very few (16.7%) departmentalized schools reported collegial coaching.

### **Profiles of Case Study Sites**

Three schools were selected for further study. These sites form a representative sample of those schools surveyed: i.e. one urban and two suburban schools. No rural school was identified or selected. This was due to the poor



representation of rural schools in the original sample. Very few rural districts exist in the greater Boston/Framingham area.

Although the three schools involved in this study differ, not only demographically but also in terms of their programmatic organization, each school clearly demonstrates a conscious evolution toward the middle school concept. In essence, the differences are superficial when contrasted with the core beliefs of each school.

MS1 is an urban school with a population of 605 students in grades 6, 7, 8. 88% of the students are minority: 47% African-American, 34% Hispanic, and 7% Asian. Ninety percent of the students are eligible to participate in the subsidized school lunch program. Two hundred and forty five (40.5%) students receive Chapter One services in reading and/or math. One hundred and fifty (24.8%) receive Special Education services. One hundred and ten (18.2%) participate in the Transitional Bilingual Education program. The school has received national recognition for a systemic restructuring effort which included an expansion of the school day and the school year.

MS1 is in a large urban district. Students from throughout the district in grades six, seven and eight may choose to attend the school. In addition to the extension of

the school day and the school year, changes in staffing patterns, student assignment, curriculum adoption, and building governance have placed the school on the cutting edge of reform efforts at the middle school level.

Staff and students are assigned to one of five clusters. Cluster teachers are responsible for instruction in the major disciplines as well as English as a second language. There exists one multi-level cluster in the school. Chapter One, Special Education, bilingual and E.S.L. staff are assigned to specific clusters. All bilingual children are assigned to the multi-level cluster along with monolingual students. Cluster teachers meet daily to plan activities, write curriculum, design lessons, discuss the needs of children, and decide cluster governance issues. Within clusters teachers work in interdisciplinary teams utilizing the common planning time opportunities in the daily schedule. As a result there is a great deal of team planning, team teaching, and team decision-making throughout the school. Cluster activities are coordinated through the use of the W.I.P. (weekly instructional plan) which is developed by the teachers in each cluster.

In addition to the teaching faculty, each cluster has a cluster coordinator. The coordinator is not an administrator. He/she is a teacher who has been relieved of regular classroom assignments in order to provide support to

teachers within the cluster. They assist teachers with disciplinary issues, provide the liaison between school and home, are responsible for organizing and running cluster meetings, and provide the link between the administration and the teaching staff.

Clusters are given control over the scheduling of classes and student grouping. There are no bells and the period length is determined by the time demands of a lesson on a given day. These issues are resolved at cluster meetings. There is a tremendous amount of sharing and teaming in the building. Many of these school governance issues will be discussed at length later in this chapter.

The essence of this school was described by a multi-level teacher:

They (the teachers) believe in what they do. They believe in the letter of the law but they're also here for the kids beyond the requirements of contract... Here people extend themselves because they feel a tremendous level of support. There are a lot of great ideas that get shared through the team process and encouraged by the other people you work with. The principals that we've had have encouraged us to take risks and try new things out without having to worry that if things didn't work out it would reflect negatively on their evaluation of our performance.

Collegial coaching activities have grown as a direct result of the high level of collaboration and team teaching found at the school. Teachers are constantly in one

another's classrooms, frequently providing feedback on instruction, and replanning and revising lessons and units. There is no mandated instructional format or lesson design in the school. There are, however, some standard practices such as the weekly instructional plan and the writing program adopted by the teachers at the school.

Financial and political concerns consistent with large urban districts continue to threaten the long term viability of the program.

MS2 is a small suburban regional middle school with an enrollment of 354 students in grades 6, 7, 8. Less than 1% of the students are minority or are eligible for the subsidized school lunch program. The district is not eligible for Chapter One services nor does it have a Transitional Bilingual Education program. Forty three students (12.2%) receive Special Education services. The combined population of the two towns that support the regional school district is 11,221. The state classifies the towns as "residential suburbs". According to the town assessors' offices the average residential property value is between \$225,000 and \$250,000.

MS2 is a middle school housed in two buildings servicing students in grades six through eight. The staff is organized into four cluster teams. These teams are responsible for the



delivery of instruction in the traditional academic areas of language, social studies, mathematics and science. There are currently four cluster teams (6th, 7th, 7/8th and 8th). This configuration can change from year to year based on enrollment and other considerations. In addition, there is a specialist team whose teachers instruct various enrichment subjects such as art, music, physical education, etc., and a Special Education team. The organizational emphasis is on teaming and collaboration.

Each team has a team leader. The leader is primarily responsible for developing agendas, running team meetings, and fostering communication between staff and administration. Team leaders, elected by their respective teams, assume leader duties on a voluntary basis and are not financially rewarded for their efforts.

Common planning/meeting time is critical to the successful implementation of the cluster concept. All teams meet at a minimum once a week with the cluster teams meeting daily. Generally these team meetings are utilized to discuss students and cluster activities, meet with parents, conduct Child Study meetings, solve cluster problems and resolve issues. Clusters are ultimately responsible for student assignment within the cluster, the selection, development and implementation of interdisciplinary units, and, for the first



time during the 1989-90 school year, the flexible scheduling of classes to suit the changing needs of students and the demands of the curriculum.

The district has adopted Bernice McCarthy's "4Mat", a lesson design system based on current research on learning styles. This program has been mandated in the district for the last three years. The expectation is that all teachers will plan their lessons on the "wheel" in order to meet the diverse needs of the students.

The development of peer coaching in the district is directly related to the adoption of 4MAT and the emphasis of learning/teaching styles in the district. According to the learning styles plan for the 1988-89 school year:

The coaches are assigned to teams as resources to assist in lesson plan development and will serve as support for the project leaders. Through additional training they will become well versed in 4MAT and leadership and coaching techniques. Peer coaching provides an opportunity for staff members to explore new roles, develop new skills and become part of an ongoing working group within the district.

At the middle school level any staff member who wished was afforded the opportunity to become a peer coach. In addition, in order to articulate the implementation of 4MAT and foster increasing levels of collaboration and collegiality among the staff, the process of peer partnering

was instituted. Each staff member had to select a peer partner and participate in three observation cycles. There has been some controversy associated with the selection and implementation of the 4MAT system which will be discussed later in this chapter.

MS3 has a total enrollment of 477 students in grades five through eight. The town is classified as a growth community. Only two percent of the population is minority including Hispanic, African-American and Asian cultures. Participation in the subsidized school lunch program has consistently been about 7% of the total enrollment. The town is not eligible for Chapter One services nor does it offer Transitional Bilingual Education services. Ninety four students (19.7%) receive Special Education services. The average residential property value is about \$150,000.

MS3 encompasses grades five through eight in a small suburban district. There is a variety of organizational patterns within the school. The fifth grade classes, which were just recently incorporated into the middle school, continue to operate as self contained classes, typical of elementary school organization. Grades six through eight are in the midst of considerable structural change. Although the school was built approximately twenty years ago as a middle school, many of the organizational structures and practices were more typical of a junior high school. In recent years

the staff and administration have attempted to assimilate practices more consistent with the middle school concept

Grades six through eight are currently in the midst of moving from a more traditional departmentalized structure to a team/cluster organization more typical of middle schools. This change effort has been embraced by a significant proportion of the faculty though progress has not been consistent throughout the building. The school has successfully incorporated some common planning time into the weekly schedule making it possible for teams within clusters to collaborate and coordinate their efforts more closely. In addition, for the 1989-90 academic year, flexible scheduling for part of the day has become a reality. Long range goals call for the school to adopt flexible block scheduling and interdisciplinary teaming more consistent with the middle school concept.

The school system has developed a partnership with a local college to institute a comprehensive staff development program in the system. This program has been primarily teacher directed from planning, through training, to implementation. Teachers who are utilized as staff developers are able to complete a C.A.G.S. program in staff development at the college. The "collaborative" team developed the collegial coaching program in order to support teachers' attempts to infuse thinking skills in the

curriculum. The work of teachers in the collaborative in general and in peer coaching in particular has led staff to reevaluate existing practice, critically assess alternatives, and develop an action plan for change. When asked to assess her school, a member of the eighth grade team indicated that:

It's a place where we're willing to try a lot of new ideas and we have tried some different things. Some things have worked, some things haven't, but the main thing seems to be that there are always quite a few different ideas being tossed around and people willing to help.

The work on the collaborative has energized the faculty and helped create a climate for change and risk taking.

### **Case Study Data**

As discussed in Chapter 3, there is an emergent quality to qualitative inquiry in which themes and patterns gradually become more evident as the researcher develops a better understanding of the informants' perceptions of their world. The data presented in this section uses as primary evidentiary material the actual words of the participants taken from interview transcripts and/or documents at each site. Taken as a whole the data represents the perceptions, thoughts, joys and concerns of the participants with regard to the implementation of collegial coaching practices in their respective schools.



Presentation will begin with an overview of the organizational patterns present in each school. Data from all schools will be presented in relation to the emergent themes which lead to a better understanding of the reality present in each implementation effort. There are some striking similarities between and among the schools as well as some significant differences. Chapter 5 presents the major findings that emerge from case study data and discusses implications and avenues for further research.

These three schools have undergone some significant changes within their organizations, each striving to achieve congruence between the middle school concept and current practice. What is particularly striking when interviewing faculty at each school is the consistent and conscious effort to become "middle schools" consistent with the vision outlined in Turning Points. There is a conscious sense of evolution, an implicit level of trust, and a quiet confidence that problems can be confronted and goals achieved.

Through the interviews at each site themes emerged that illustrate facets within the schools that nurture and support collegial coaching practices. In the discussion that follows, areas isolated for review include: teacher empowerment and the role that teachers play in decision-making at the school level, the effect of administrative



mandates on implementation efforts, problems and barriers to successful implementation of collegial coaching, effects of collegial coaching on staff and organization, and reasons attributed by staff for success of collegial coaching programs.

### A Sense of Empowerment

In each building all study participants spoke of a pervading sense of empowerment. A teacher at MS1 pretty much summed it up when he said: "I'm in control of my school life and what I want to do."

This empowerment manifests itself in many areas and in a variety of ways. In addition to the areas of curriculum and instruction, where teachers have historically exercised more autonomy in terms of teaching the "real curriculum", teachers in these schools have impacted in significant ways in other areas such as scheduling/grouping, staff development and, in one building, staffing decisions.

Common Planning Time. As reported by all participants in each building, at the core of this sense of empowerment is the common planning time built into the schedule. During this time teaching teams or clusters are relieved of all teaching and supervisory responsibilities.

The decisions are made among the teachers. How long are the classes, when assemblies are scheduled, what to do with the classes, we have our weekly meetings and we have common planning time which is, I think, something I would always advocate.

In all three buildings the administrative staff rarely attends cluster meetings. Teachers are allowed a great deal of latitude in making decisions that impact on their classes and cluster/team. In addition to being given the decision making authority, teachers report a tremendous sense of support from administration and the encouragement to take risks. Teachers report that this administrative support, this empowerment, has been the catalyst for much of the dynamic change in each building. A teacher in MS1 explained:

I felt that empowerment when I came here. I felt the people in this cluster were really trying to make things work. And we worked together and right away we pulled together and you could feel the administrator at that time was very powerful in allowing you to take charge of what you were supposed to do. Making you feel that you had the power because right now there are 7 of us who are finishing up our masters program requires a certain inspiration that had us all going again. Less than 1/2 of the teachers were taking courses when I came and now about 75-80% are. There was a great feeling that you couldn't do enough, you just really wanted to learn. I've learned more in the past few years than I have in the previous 15 years of teaching.

**Scheduling/Grouping.** This empowerment manifests itself in many areas. In all three schools teachers have at least some control over their schedule. In both MS1 and MS2

the only constraint is the scheduling of enrichment classes such as art, music, and physical education. Common planning time is accommodated through the scheduling of these enrichment classes. Since these services are shared throughout the building, a master schedule dictates when students will take these courses. However, during the rest of the day, cluster teachers have total control over the instructional time. A teacher at MS1 explains how it works:

I would say that the major impact of restructuring was to redesign the day so that there was common planning time as C.M. said, actually three times a day, but, twice while the students are here. The rest of the time was left totally open, that's why there are no bells in the building. Each team works out its' own schedule. We have a schedule we run on day to day but we interrupt that with great regularity to do cooperative learning and with this two team approach to do other things as they come along. Anything...Like if we want to show a film we might break them up etc. One thing every teacher in this cluster is very flexible and no one feels they are being stepped on, or, if they do, they step back and say wait a minute maybe I am this time, but, maybe last month it was for me. We do bend over and try to remain flexible.

At MS3 teachers have begun experimenting with block scheduling for part of the day. These scheduling decisions are made in collaboration with the cluster and are based on instructional needs rather than arbitrary time limits:

Now we are able to control a block of time and use the time to fit the needs of the students. Next year we hope to expand that block of time to work with the same group of students, and work in some intercurricular types of activities. In some respects it's kind of scary because we've never had that kind of responsibility, and you don't know if it's going to work or not. The key is whether or not you can work with whom your teaming.

Some anxiety regarding this new responsibility has accompanied this "control". In some ways a schedule mandated by the administration absolves teachers of any responsibility or ownership for the consequences of scheduling decisions. With teacher-controlled scheduling, the responsibility for these decisions shifts to the teachers. In an environment where trust between teachers and administration did not exist the provision of this empowerment might be perceived as a negative rather than a positive force in the school climate. As a seventh grade teacher at MS2 remarked: "Accountability is higher with heightened levels of teacher empowerment."

**Staff Development.** Staff development is another area where teachers play a significant decision-making role in all three schools. Although teachers at MS3 were the strongest advocates of the positive effects of staff development on levels of empowerment, in each school teachers reported feeling that they had real input in the design and implementation of staff development efforts. The level of input and control varies among these buildings.



At MS1 most staff development proposals are generated by individual teachers, frequently in collaboration with other team members. The administration has encouraged the pursuit of funds through grant writing and development. In addition, there have been on-going staff development opportunities related to the writing program at the school. Many teachers point to the quality of the staff development opportunities as one of the strengths of the program at the school.

At the beginning of the year we brainstorm and make suggestions to the administration... planned cooperatively. Sometimes members of the faculty will lead a workshop. We use a lot of our own resources on workshop days. We've also been lucky because we have a lot of consultants and we have a lot of really neat people here that can offer a lot to staff.

What's particularly striking in talking with faculty at this school is the high level of friendly competition that exists in the building. A multi-level teacher explained that there was "a lot of competition but a lot of sharing. In a very subtle way you are in competition because you're expected to do your best. I like it because it brings the best out of me".

At MS2 much of staff development efforts have involved training in 4MAT lesson design and its implementation. The planning and coordination of staff development activities at the building level are the responsibility of the peer coaches



and the administrative team. Any staff member may volunteer to become a peer coach. No interested staff member has ever been denied the opportunity to become a peer coach. Every Wednesday students are released early and time is set aside for staff development throughout this school district. In addition there have been more extensive training opportunities available in a variety of disciplines.

As reported by a specialist teacher, at MS3 "staff development is the jewel of the system as far as teacher control over the decisions that are made." The entire staff development program has been researched, designed, developed, and implemented by the teachers:

Staff development, it's been done all by teachers. The administration has given us carte blanche. They allow us to explore whatever it is that we want to explore. Since this program has come about, we've actually developed the programs, we've sent out the surveys and the needs assessment kind of thing to find out what the staff had an interest in, what would they like to do, and then we developed the course for them, things that we thought would be an appropriate thing that they had shown an interest in. We're doing the peer coaching, information skills, reading across the curriculum, and, of course, critical thinking, and learning / teaching styles. We're doing the planning and the teaching. And that's great!

Staff development programs are designed and implemented by the teaching staff. Very little of the staff development is done by outside consultants. The result is a staff that is extraordinarily receptive and supportive of staff development

activities. Members of the teaching staff have joined a collaborative with a local college in which they can earn a C.A.G.S. in staff development through their work in their local district. The use of staff as consultants has added to the credibility of the program and has demonstrated what a powerful component school/college partnerships can be in the support of local change efforts. [see Jones & Maloy, 1988]

The climate, we were ready. It was a real teacher morale thing to make us feel professional and act it. Because it was not an outsider coming in it was less threatening to the staff. Initially, we thought that would be a negative, but, it's been a real positive. The enthusiasm just seems to grow and grow. They also know that we are very responsive to their needs. Instead of reading evaluations at the end of the course we do it at the end of each session. We adjust each session based on the input. Its the little things that make staff development fly, like a comfortable room and coffee and refreshments. Good staff development is good teaching!

In terms of creating a heightened sense of empowerment in the building, the staff development program has really been the catalyst. Currently over 75% of the staff are involved, either as staff developers or participants in the after school programs.

**Staffing Decisions.** An intriguing and unique aspect of teacher empowerment at MS1 is the role that teachers play in staffing decisions. New teachers and non-tenured teachers apply for positions in the school with an understanding of

the structure and philosophy of the school. A committee consisting of the Principal, Vice Principal and several teachers interview candidates for positions on the staff. The result of this process has been a cohesive faculty with all teachers committed to the middle school concept as it's currently interpreted in the building. The majority of participants at this site (7 of 9) emphasized the positive impact on school climate its contributions to school change efforts. It has led to realistic expectations and goals for new and returning non-tenured teachers since "if they choose to be on a team they know what that team is about".

**Program Mandates.** A heightened sense of empowerment in each building has contributed to the development of a climate for substantive change. Nevertheless, each case presents very different elements which contribute to this empowerment. In two of the three cases program implementation and participation is not administratively mandated. Teachers may choose whether or not to participate in coaching activities and the role they wish to assume in the process. However, MS2 presents a unique approach to program development - unique at least among these three cases.

At MS2, and indeed throughout the district, the adoption of 4MAT lesson design has been mandated. The expectation is that teachers will plan lessons on the 4MAT "wheel" in order to accommodate the diverse learning styles of their students.

to accommodate the diverse learning styles of their students. Collegial coaching in its planning stage was seen as a means of supporting the implementation of 4MAT teaching methods in district classrooms. Teachers who voluntarily became peer coaches received additional training in 4MAT, observation and conferencing techniques. At the building level "peer partnerships" were introduced. Teachers were compelled to choose a peer partner and complete several observation cycles by the end of the school year. This has led to some dissatisfaction at the school level. According to administration the adoption of the standard lesson design format seems to be the main area of contention:

The peer partnership has never been argued. It's the learning styles piece that has been a bone of contention. When they evaluate everything that's gone on it's the one plus that they see. It supported a lot of laughs. It's worked in a lot of ways. There's more honoring diversity.

This view was partially corroborated in a review of staff information feedback forms and through staff interviews. Following the completion of a coaching cycle, participants completed feedback forms which were submitted to the project director. These forms asked staff to comment, not on the content of the observation, but on the feelings of the participants during the coaching process. In a review of forms submitted by all faculty, not just participants in this study, all but one member of the staff reported on the feedback forms overall satisfaction with their peer



partnering experiences. Staff interviews yielded insights into the reactions and effects of this mandate. There seems to be an agreement among the participants that the mandate was helpful and necessary to assure the progress that they had experienced. One teacher expressed her feelings regarding the mandate as follows:

I think for some individuals if it wasn't mandated it wouldn't be happening. Many teachers didn't have an open relationship with their peers. I think that if it were not mandated we wouldn't be remotely where we are today if it was not mandated. Sometimes you have to do that to light a fire under some people. There's screaming and yelling and gnashing of teeth, I think it really pulled the faculty together. There are still some that are resistant but overall the experience has been positive.

Participants seem to view the expectations as being quite reasonable and there's a sense that those on staff that persist in being negative would be negative regardless of the implementation model.

There's been a lot of choice. What they've said is - this is what we'd like to do, how would you like it to go about it. I think the mandatory aspect has really been overexaggerated. I think this idea that it's been mandated has just been killed. Nobody from on high has said we have to do this by next month. We have three years to do it. They've given us a lot of time, they've given us Wednesdays and nobody has been standing at my door telling me I've got to do this, that or the other thing. There's just been a directive, yeah we're going to do learning styles, and we'd like you to share with each other through peer partnerships....If it were voluntary I think those negative people would still be negative, I really do. I think they would have found an excuse not to do it. By making it mandatory it took away all the excuses that other



people had for not doing it. The people that are real negative are negative about everything. They're resentful about anybody telling them what to do. They want to be left alone to do something, not to do something productive. It's mandated but the demands are very minimal.

In spite of this sense of legitimacy regarding the mandate there are some negative consequences that have resulted. For example, a specialist spoke of the mandate and the resulting peer pressure in the building:

Well, I take it as pressure that I can't toot my own horn. You don't want to be pushing anything back in their face; nor do you want to get that negative reaction from them saying.... I'd hate to be thought of as being buttering up to the administration 'cause that's not my goal, but you might get that reaction. So I just keep it to myself. I do share a lot with my peer partner who is very much into the program.

Overall even this teacher felt that the mandate was, in fact, necessary and did not interfere with the positive impact of the program in the school. Interestingly, the sense of empowerment seemed as powerful in MS2 as in the other buildings. Ultimately, as a seventh grade teacher told me, "it's a case where the perception structures the reality."

It may be that organizational norms have a tremendous impact on acceptance level and cooperation. In discussing the notion of mandated programs with teachers at the other sites they were unanimous in discouraging this approach. A teacher at MS3 counseled:

Allow people to make their own decision about participating, make presentations for informed choices, ... teachers teaching teachers. People can talk to one another at the same level. It's really transformed our building.

Another teacher indicated:

I think if this was directed by the administration, people would have been blatantly negative or rude. Our biggest bonus was that the program was delivered by peers and teachers had an enormous respect for them as they did for the teachers. Let's face it, adult learners can be a very difficult audience.

Teachers at MS1 had similar reactions to the notion of administrative mandates stressing the resistance that teachers in the building would have for these kinds of mandates.

### **Barriers to Implementation**

Barriers identified by participants in this study were consistent with previous research in this area. The primary barrier was time. This problem does not simply consist of finding the time to get into another teacher's classroom to observe followed by an opportunity for a post conference. At all three sites the administration was ready, willing, and able to provide coverage for teachers working on an observation cycle. Teachers were confronted with the dilemma

of wanting to enjoy the benefits of coaching while not wanting to involve their students with "busy work", and not wanting to lose valuable teaching time. In most instances this led to the use of preparation time and after school meetings to meet the requirements of an observation cycle. A coaching cycle is a very labor intensive, time intensive endeavor. Because of this most participants in the study reported completing less than four coaching cycles a year, in spite of their overall positive feelings toward the process and the value of coaching.

In addition to time, trust was identified as a critical factor for successful implementation:

Basically before anything happens, the person your partnering with needs to know whatever you see you think is wonderful and there is a trust. But until that happens your not getting any true feed back.  
(MS2 teacher)

The confusion that teachers still encounter between the notion of "supervision or observation" and "evaluation" can undermine an appropriate trust level:

There's still that emotional barrier that we have of connecting observing and evaluating. Who am I to sit in on a class and script and take notes and make comments on what I've seen. The key has been that we've been able to pick each other as peer partners. You have to allow people to find someone that they are comfortable with. Being empowered to do that is wonderful. Trust factor is the number one barrier. (MS3 teacher)

Staff involved in coaching can feel very vulnerable and insecure if an appropriate trust level is not maintained. Participants need to know that information gathered in a coaching cycle will only be shared by the participants. In these schools the only feedback that is shared with administration is feedback regarding the comfort of participants with their coaching roles. No information regarding teaching episodes or performance are shared either formally or informally with administration. The only exception to this is when the teachers request input from the administration regarding specific teaching issues.

Collegial coaching requires a willingness of staff to assume significant changes in their roles and function within their team and the building. A barrier that can be devastating is readiness for change. A teacher at MS3 describes the effect of readiness on the change process:

There was an attempt several years ago under another administrator to bring some of these things up but it was a dismal failure for a lot of reasons. I think the foremost reason was that people didn't trust that person and that people weren't ready for that kind of change and there was a major backlash and it took some time for those wounds to heal. Now we're talking about it again and I think it has a much better chance to succeed. Before, when people were encouraged to take a look at that status quo a little bit they reacted violently in the other way. My perception is that they just weren't ready, and the big element that was missing was the staff development component. That even though the other administrator was right in doing the nudging and people were encouraged to make their own way it wasn't interpreted that way because people didn't have an information base.



They really didn't understand it because it was so foreign to what they were doing that they just wanted to close it out and they just became very defensive. They weren't really listening to what was happening.... My feeling is that no matter who the administrator would have been at that time, that person would have been vilified. So I guess it was a necessary catharsis but it's taken a lot of time for things to calm down.

This lack of understanding coupled with a school climate that was unprepared to nurture change efforts led to a lack of trust between teachers and administration, and ultimately, a failed effort at school improvement and change.

### The Emergence of Collegial Coaching

Earlier in this chapter the schools were described as "emerging middle schools". This notion of "emerging" presupposes change, maturation and reorientation - a metamorphosis. The institutionalization of coaching activities at these sites parallels this sense of "emergence" and transformation. Initially coaching was seen as a means to an end, introduced to support the implementation of new instructional techniques and practices: e.g. 4MAT, thinking skills, writing process, etc. Gradually, the implementation of collegial coaching came to be seen as an end:

Peer coaching was really a means to an end. That's how I viewed it in the beginning. What happened was we ended up going out in a totally different direction. Now we're being trained in how to do observations and to write up those observations...



and coaching has become something onto itself. When I signed up to be a peer coach I wanted to learn some leadership skills, and how to be in with a peer... then we started to address this whole issue of how do we act as peer partners, and this is how we're going to train you to observe your peer. And then they wanted to train us in how to do observations. And for some reason that was uncomfortable. I felt like a principal. It became another whole thing in itself. It might have just been my own confusion. Now I see that they go hand in hand. I'm realizing that it just kind of parallels. My perception of the program has changed over a period of time.

This teacher at MS2 experienced some confusion and frustration typically found when becoming acclimated to new roles and responsibilities. The eventual form and structure of coaching activities grew gradually, changing and accommodating to the existing climate and the needs at each site. The typical process is illustrated by this MS3 teacher:

It started to spiral. That small group of people didn't know where they were going but they got the ball rolling. Then as we tried it, as part of the course, we found that we liked it. We laughed together at the foul ups, there was no fear of negative evaluation, and we ended up enjoying it. It's expanded from the one course. I was the only guy in there. Any teacher could participate. There were no restrictions.

As teachers become more comfortable with the notion of observing and providing non-judgemental feedback to peers, coaching activities at each site seemed to adopt much more informal procedures as indicated by the following statements:

Coaching activities happen very informally. I'll go into someone else's class and co-teach or observe and share my thoughts with the other teacher. Happens in a very informal way that has grown out of the fact that we team and cluster... We like to have others come in and observe. We don't feel any threat. There's really a lot of coaching going on, a lot of personal and professional support. I know what the other teachers in my building are doing and that's nice. I love it! (MS1)

It happens on a much more informal basis with less filling out of the forms etc. In the course we had to meet with the instructor and discuss what we should look for and fill out a pre-conference form. Keep a chart during the observation and then a post-observation conference to discuss the observation. The observation report was written up for the teacher with some recommendations, perhaps with a follow-up later. Feedback is non-judgemental in nature, suggestions rather than recommendations. Documentation was submitted as part of the course but went nowhere else; it is not shared with administration. It was the teacher's own interpretation of the presented data that was the focus of the peer coaching.... As a result of that people have a tendency to work closer together and have less anxiety about people in their classroom making suggestions, recommendations. Coaching continues to happen but in a much more informal way. (MS3)

At each site coaching activities happen in a much more informal atmosphere than originally conceptualized. Certainly the notion of coaching as a peer "expert" assisting another teacher implement new instructional strategies into existing repertoires [Joyce and Showers, 1982] is not the most common form in practice. Although this does occur, teachers report that coaching practices have become much more informal in the sense that written documentation and reports are rarely utilized. They have experienced, however, heightened levels of collegiality in a climate where it is an

accepted part of the school culture for teachers to observe in other teachers' classrooms. Borrowing a term from Robbins and Wolfe [1987], there is a lot of "sharing and caring" at each site. Although implementation efforts have differed in format, coaching has become an accepted practice within the respective school climates.

### Effects of Collegial Coaching

Participants report many positive benefits, intended and unintended, through their participation in the coaching process. Many of the areas identified by study participants as areas of positive impact tend to corroborate and validate studies cited in Chapter 2. Rather than present a comprehensive list of these benefits, discussion will focus on those few effects that were frequently cited by participants and seemed noteworthy.

All teachers at each site consistently stressed how coaching activities have helped to "open doors" or "break down the walls of isolation". Although isolation in middle schools is somewhat lessened due to the emphasis on collaboration and teaming within clusters, frequently clusters become isolated from other clusters. A teacher at MS2 explains:

So when you open your door and you let someone come in and they share your world for just a little bit there's a greater appreciation for what you're doing, who you are in the building, how you handle kids and what you teach. That has definitely happened with the specialist and the academic teachers. It's definitely a positive situation... It validated everything that I did. It helped people understand me and understand that, yes, even the art program has a curriculum and that our teachers go to college and learn how to do these things. It enthralled me to see how other teachers teach... Kids are very comfortable having people in and out of their rooms; it's no big deal. It's an accepted part of the school culture.

Through this sharing and collaboration teachers reported a higher level of professionalism and a change in the general tenor of conversations among staff. In addition, teachers felt increased levels of support among professionals as exemplified by this comment from a teacher at MS3:

I see us doing more cross school, cross curricular and cross grade level. There's a greater degree of professionalism now. You tend to not focus on gripes anymore. The whole conversation in the teacher's room has changed... I really feel that the walls that separated people have really started to come down. The lunch and prep has become a really positive brainstorming event, and we can't believe that the 42 minutes is over...The other component is that we've become much more personally supportive of each other. We take more of an interest in each others' lives both personally and professionally. We do take an interest in people's lives more and look at that whole human quality of the person and you kind of tell when someone's having problems, or whatever's happening there's a little bit more of a support system, and people are a little bit more ready to chip in and cover and help out.

Given the condition of the local economy, it is not surprising that one of the chief concerns of staff in each



building regarding the continued success of their programs is the financial commitment that can be expected from their districts. Most cities and towns are struggling with increased expenditures and decreasing revenues which have coupled to squeeze school department budgets. Already, financial problems have forced some political decisions regarding student assignments at MS1 which threaten the long term viability of many of their programs. For many in each of the sites coaching has helped them to cope with the financial uncertainties in their district. The following remark was made by a teacher at MS3:

Because of this coaching program it's helping to keep us as positive as possible in the face of overwhelming financial concerns throughout the district. It's something to keep focused on and it stops us from feeling absolutely defeated.

Teachers at each site echoed these sentiments. At the time of this researcher's investigation at MS2 the school and community were preparing for an attempt to override Proposition 2 1/2, a law that allows property taxes to exceed certain limits (2 1/2% of the total value of real estate in the community) only by referendum vote in Massachusetts communities. If the referendum had been defeated it would have meant the virtual dismantling of entire programs at the school. Coaching helped them to focus on their work at the school and draw emotional support from one another as they awaited the ballot results due in April. I'm delighted to



report that the override passed and, at least temporarily, the threat of financial chaos has dissipated. Unfortunately, financial shortfalls have been predicted to continue and negatively impact school budgets in Massachusetts for the foreseeable future.

### **Rationales for Success**

Many factors responsible for the successful implementation of coaching programs identified by participants have been discussed earlier in this chapter. They include: the encouragement of teacher empowerment as evidenced in many areas of school governance, heightened levels of collegiality and collaboration, structural design that incorporate common planning time and encourage communication and teaming, and nurturance of a supportive, risk-free environment.

Excellent leadership; tremendous professionalism on the part of the teachers; commitment to personal excellence and team excellence; the ability to make decisions; clustering; flexible scheduling. We got to be the number one school in the city and we got there because everyone had a common vision. It's like being in a neighborhood where everybody takes care of one another. The emphasis is on we rather than me. (MS1 teacher)

All of these areas are positively impacted by the adoption of middle school practices as discussed in Chapter 2. Several points warrant some elaboration.

Several of the participants in this study were teachers who were assigned to the middle school following a reduction in force action in their school systems. Others were new to their schools from other school districts. These participants were able to articulate unique perspectives based on their experiences. For example, a teacher at MS3 who had transferred from the high school to the middle reflected on the differences:

Middle school is where it's at as far as education. Number of kids, schedule, supervision is constant, more demands from kids, more intense vis a vis kids. A lot more exciting though... Working here there's a much closer working relationship. You're on a team and you have to be more involved. The kids make you more involved. The huge difference between high school and middle school is that h.s. people are much more entrenched and inflexible. They are much more territorial. It's very hard to get the kind of movement that we've had here, at the high school. The typical high school attitude is "I don't need you in my class. I can handle it myself." I think it could even work at the high school if they tried some of the things we do here.

The high school level has been the most resistant area for school change efforts. Staff remain very much entrenched and isolated in their classrooms and their disciplines. Teachers tend to be "territorial". In other words, others are neither expected nor welcome in their classrooms. Teaming is an all

too often foreign concept at the high school level. This teacher, following his forced transfer to the middle school now feels very much liberated from the constraints of the high school. He went on to describe how he felt renewed or reborn at the middle school. The collaboration, the support, the collegiality, all contributed to a sense of excitement that has led him to greater professional fulfillment.

Much of the literature on school change identifies the critical need for effective leadership for the implementation of successful school change efforts. The high quality of leadership is also reported by the participants in this study as being critical for the nurturance of successful school improvement efforts which include collegial coaching. Although the leadership styles at each site were quite different the comments from participants at the schools were quite similar:

There's human nature and there again even though you have clustering and everything else you still have to have somebody at the top who is a good leader, who really knows how to assess people well and get them to work. There's also a tremendous opportunity to do other things besides just being the teacher in the classroom. There are many grant opportunities. Both principals have been the two best principals I've ever worked for. They really respect you as a professional, you're allowed to participate in other things, you're really encouraged to go out and become the best you possibly can be. You have a real influence over the decision-making process. (MS1 teacher)

Understanding that a lot of peer partnering works as well as it does because of the people at the top. She is a very unique person. She is able to very nicely listen to all sides and I think one of the reasons that things do work in this school is that they listen. Neither one of them are rugs. You don't walk over either one of them but they do listen to all sides, every opinion has a fair chance to be heard. The constant message is that 'I am very available and I'm one of you', and they both are... They're a wonderful pair of administrators, a wonderful team, and I think that more than anything, that stage having been set allows people to grow professionally. (MS2 teacher)

Support of the administration, and they've given us the time, they've always been supportive, they've encouraged staff to take the course. They've shown an interest in it, the principal was involved in the original planning sessions for the project. So the support has always been there and the encouragement has always been given by administration for this. (MS3 teacher)

Different schools, different administrations, but each with tremendous respect afforded the administration by the teaching staff. In each school the administration is seen as very supportive and caring, willing to listen and willing to give teachers a real voice in the operation of the school.

Although it's a small factor as to the overall success of the programs in these buildings, it is important to note that incentives have been created in each building to encourage the participation of staff. Although these incentives are not directly germane to middle schools alone, they do warrant mentioning since participants did allude to the benefits of incentives. At MS1 with the extended day and the extended school year, teachers on staff are given an



additional stipend. At MS2 accommodations in the teaching loads (number of classes taught, and scheduling of early release days) have been incorporated into the schedule in order to allow additional time for coaching activities. At MS3 participants are given in-service or college credit which helps teachers move across the salary schedule. Through the latest collective bargaining agreement, the school department established a Masters + 60 column. The effect has been to encourage those staff who were languishing at the top of the salary column to become involved in additional professional development opportunities.

### **Summary**

Through examination of the questionnaire data within the geographic confines of this study, the existence collegial coaching activities appear to be relatively rare phenomena. Factors such as type of community, school size, and socioeconomics do not appear to be related to the existence of these programs. Nevertheless, there does appear to be increased interest in this area given the number of schools that reported being in the planning stage or the first year of implementation. Mature programs are few in number and vary in scope and complexity.



Several months of research at three schools which had implemented collegial coaching practices for at least three years resulted in the case study data cited in this chapter. Examination and analysis of the data has led to a greater understanding of the nature of collegial coaching programs and the schools that support them. These understandings taken as a whole constitute important considerations for practitioners interested in implementing collegial coaching programs in schools. In Chapter 5 the major findings will be presented, and the implications of this data analysis will be discussed.

## C H A P T E R V

### ANALYSIS AND IMPLICATIONS

#### Introduction

Pilot studies completed prior to the beginning of this investigation led to the conceptualization of this research. It seemed that greater levels of collaboration and collegiality among teachers coupled with a heightened sense of empowerment were powerful variables contributing to successful implementation of collegial coaching practices. Middle school practices consistent with the implementation of the middle school concept as currently outlined in Turning Points were thought to have a positive impact on these variables.

Although the data does support the importance of these variables, it's important to remember, as previously discussed in Chapter 3, that a cause - effect relationship is not being proposed, nor suggested. Rather, this exploratory study seeks through the close examination of the successful implementation experiences at three middle schools to understand how these schools encouraged and nurtured the

development of collegial coaching programs. Ultimately, the purpose of this investigation has been to determine whether or not components within middle school organizations promote and nurture efforts to implement collegial coaching programs.

Following a review of the current state of collegial coaching practices in area middle schools, this chapter summarizes the major findings of this investigation consistent with qualitative and quantitative data presented in Chapter 4. Much of this data supports the initial propositions regarding the importance of empowerment, and the effects of organizational components consistent with the "middle school concept" on levels of collegiality and collaboration. This analysis will be followed by discussion of the implications of these findings for practitioners who may wish to establish collegial coaching programs in existing facilities as well as recommendations for further research in this area.

### **Collegial Coaching: A Local Status Report**

Although there has been a general proliferation in the research advocating widespread development of collegial coaching practices in schools, collegial coaching among teachers remains a relatively rare phenomenon in middle schools in the Greater Boston/Framingham area. Among the

almost one hundred schools surveyed only twelve schools were identified as having collegial coaching programs. Of these schools only eight had programs implemented for at least three years. In fact, no school was found to have practiced collegial coaching for more than four years.

As previously discussed in Chapter 4 such factors as kind of community, size of community, and school enrollment do not seem to have an impact on the viability of collegial coaching programs. In addition factors such as teacher age and experience do not seem to be important factors in collegial coaching. Participants in this investigation included relatively novice teachers, veteran mid-career teachers, as well as some approaching the end of their teaching careers. In addition attitudes regarding coaching did not appear to be dependent on teacher status. Along with school administrators, teacher participants included team leaders, cluster coordinators, officers in the teachers' unions, and rank and file teachers.

A somewhat encouraging note was the number of schools that were either in the early stages of implementation or had begun planning for future implementation efforts. Even some schools that did not have programs indicated some interest in initiating collegial coaching in the future. This would seem to reflect the current interest in the literature in these

programs and the belief that coaching is not only a desirable, but a necessary, component of any comprehensive staff development program [Joyce and Showers, 1982]

In addition there is growing interest in mentor programs which, although somewhat different in terms of orientation, are strongly related to collegial coaching. The major difference is the nature of the supervisory relationship. Collegial coaching emphasizes peer relationships while mentor programs imply the existence of a superordinate-subordinate relationship. Nevertheless, the observation and consultation components consistent with both programs, based on the clinical supervision techniques discussed in Chapter 2, are virtually identical.

It would appear that the value of teachers providing instructional support to other teachers is gaining widespread support in the local educational community as implementation efforts seem to be increasing. The perspectives and understandings inherent in the case study data could be very useful in the design and implementation of subsequent collegial coaching efforts.



## Major Findings

This investigation yielded a wealth of information which corroborated findings of past studies in this area, for example: data regarding the effects of coaching programs on the participants, the effects of peer coaching within the organization, barriers to collegial coaching programs, the role of training and staff development on implementation efforts, and the positive impact of partnerships on school improvement efforts. Other data supported findings in school improvement literature, particularly the impact of a clearly articulated school vision on school change efforts. The major findings outlined below will focus on two general areas that are specific and unique to this investigation: 1) the effect of middle school organization on the implementation of collegial coaching programs, and 2) the nature and implementation cycle of collegial coaching programs within these case studies.

In the first area this discussion will focus on the effect of teaming and common planning time on school climate and the enabling nature of enhanced levels of teacher empowerment. Teachers and administrators at all three schools express a keen sense of their identity as "middle schools" and a commitment to research and to adopt practices consistent with middle school concepts articulated in Turning Points. In the second area discussion will focus on the

specific characteristics of collegial coaching efforts at each site. This discussion will be related to the stages of collegial coaching [Glatthorn, 1984] discussed in the review of collegial coaching literature in Chapter 2.

### **Clusters/Teams and Planning Time**

In an attempt to create a more personal and nurturing environment for students, these middle schools are organized into clusters/teams where a common group of teachers is responsible for the instruction of 80 to 125 students in reading, writing, social studies, math and science. There was compelling evidence at each site that these middle schools, by virtue of their cluster arrangement, create school climates which nurture high levels of collaboration and collegiality among the teaching staff. Nevertheless the mere grouping of teachers together on instructional teams responsible for the same groups of youngsters, though important, is not enough. There is a need to emphasize teaming and sharing in all facets of the school program.

To this end, the creation of blocks of common planning time in the schedule is critical. Each participant in this study underscored the importance of common planning time, its contribution to improved school climate, and identified it as a crucial component of their school schedule which supports

the on-going process of collegial coaching. These blocks provide a structure which help teachers overcome the traditional norms of isolation found in many schools. This structure enables them to plan, to discuss, and to get to know one another much more intimately on a professional level. Much of the work during this common planning time consists of coordination of instructional activities within the cluster with groups of teachers cooperatively planning activities, designing lessons and units, and collaborating on cluster projects. As teachers share information about their classes, their students and their concerns they begin to develop trust and empathy. As teachers become more comfortable planning activities and instructional units together, it becomes quite natural and non-threatening for them to spend time in each others classrooms in team teaching activities or as peer observers. In addition, these schools encourage the delivery of remedial services (Special Education, Chapter One) to students within the context of the regular classroom.

As these practices become institutionalized, the individual teacher's classroom is transformed from a very closed, isolated environment into an open, collaborative environment where teachers share their knowledge and skill with each other and the responsibilities inherent in their

roles. Schools organized in this manner provide climates that support rather than discourage the development of collegial coaching practices.

Although on its face the concept of organizing teachers in clusters is very compelling, the human factor must be taken into consideration. As with any human endeavor requiring people to work together in close relationships, great care must be taken in organizing these clusters. Factors such as interpersonal relationships, core beliefs, group dynamics, problem solving and decision-making skills need to be considered. Failure to consider these aspects can result in very dysfunctional clusters which would create a hostile rather than a nurturing climate for coaching practices due to low levels of group collegiality and collaboration. Since the success of these teaching teams or clusters is so critical to the success of the middle school program, these schools have organized staff development programs to address these concerns.

Not surprisingly, at each site teachers who teamed effectively with others and/or experienced positive interaction within their team/cluster reported the highest satisfaction and comfort levels with collegial coaching. Through their close working relationships in clusters these teachers developed enhanced levels of collaboration and



collegiality which created professional relationships built on trust and respect - the basic requirements for the development of collegial coaching.

### **Teacher Empowerment**

Much has been written in the literature on school improvement regarding the need for empowering teachers to help bring about substantive school change. In some cases the term "empowerment" has been interpreted to mean that teachers be given the right to make all decision that effect their working lives. Clearly this is not the sense of teacher empowerment at work in the school sites included in this study. At these schools teacher empowerment encompasses the feeling on the part of participants that they play a significant role in decision-making in their respective buildings. These decisions, however, are made within the parameters of the school's vision and mission as determined collaboratively by the administration and staff.

**Clusters and Empowerment.** The cluster organization at each school implies the assumption of new decision-making roles for teachers. While mindful of school goals, teachers in clusters are allowed the autonomy to confront persistent problems, brainstorm possible solutions and make decision in many areas. Participants spoke of their empowerment in areas



such as: curriculum and instruction, scheduling and grouping, professional/staff development, school governance and staffing. Teachers at each site frequently referred to their "empowerment" and linked this sense of empowerment to their willingness, in fact eagerness, to become involved in professional development through collegial coaching. In the same way that clustering and teaming creates a climate for collegial coaching, this sense of empowerment creates the psychological catalyst for program involvement. The pervading sense within the organization becomes one of teachers feeling the power to confront and solve institutional problems. This power is transferred to the classroom setting through collegial coaching where the participants are able to work collaboratively to look at instruction and propose alternatives and improvements. Within this climate of empowerment, collegial coaching becomes an appropriate and accepted vehicle for instructional improvement in the school.

In thinking about the role of teacher empowerment in schools and ways to encourage its development, two critical factors must be considered: 1) the difficulty school administrators encounter when attempting to determine appropriate levels of empowerment, and 2) the power of teachers' perceptions regarding their relative empowerment.

Teacher Accountability. Teacher empowerment presupposes, in addition to the authority to make decisions on a wide range of issues, a high level of accountability. Administrators must weigh very carefully the readiness of teachers to assume decision-making authority in their respective buildings. Some teachers simply may not be ready to assume these roles due to a lack of self-confidence or concerns regarding administrative motives.

Earlier in Chapter 4, in the discussion of flexible scheduling and grouping practices a teacher at one school indicated how, in the beginning, this newly designated control over the schedule was "scary". Teachers are apprehensive about taking control of decisions in areas that traditionally have been controlled by administration. The data from this study suggests that for empowerment to be successful teachers need to have a willingness to accept ownership of responsibilities inherent in making decisions coupled with a perception of administration as being supportive and encouraging. Administrators need to carefully weigh the readiness and ability of teachers to assume decision-making authority prior to giving this authority. An assessment of factors that may impact readiness is helpful in determining what steps need to be taken prior to the assumption by teachers of this authority. Clear and direct

communication of expectations, training opportunities and a climate that encourages risk-taking were identified in this study as important factors.

**The Trust Factor.** Teachers need to feel that failure is an acceptable part of risk taking, and constitutes an opportunity to learn rather than an event meriting reprimand and recrimination. In other words, there needs to be a sense of collegiality and trust among teachers and administrators. Without this trust and confidence the level of anxiety for the teacher, the cluster and the school will be very disruptive. Clearly, if teachers do not trust administration the assumption of greater decision-making authority will result in debilitating, rather than empowering, experiences.

**Perception and Reality.** The components that constitute areas of empowerment for teachers at the three sites are quite different. Yet, participants at all three schools consistently reported high levels of teacher empowerment. As one teacher indicated, "It's a case of where the perception structures the reality".

Actions in one setting may have a very different result in another setting. A clear example of this phenomenon was cited in Chapter 4. At MS2 there exists a standard instructional format, mandated not only in the building, but throughout the district. Although teachers may choose to

become peer coaches they are compelled to participate in peer partnering. Nevertheless, participants at this school consistently reported high levels of teacher empowerment in spite of the existence of these administrative mandates. On the other hand, when study participants in other buildings were queried on their thoughts regarding program mandates, they were unanimous in their assessment that mandates and directives would result in negative reactions and ultimately program failure in their respective buildings. Program mandates at these sites would have detracted from their sense of empowerment and would have probably doomed the prospects of successful implementation of collegial coaching.

Even at MS2, in spite of the perception of empowerment, there were negative consequences of this mandate cited in Chapter 4. Interestingly, although the mandate was cited by many participants as necessary to create some momentum for the program, it was clear that the mandate had caused some negative reaction among some faculty members. Because of this element of negativity it was difficult for some to speak openly and freely in the Teachers' Room about their coaching experiences for fear of upsetting disgruntled staff. In spite of the partially successful use of mandates at this site, it seems that mandates are not universally accepted and in many school cultures would lead to certain failure.



In another example, at MS3, many of the changes which have resulted from current school change efforts were apparently considered by the previous administration. These initiatives failed at the time primarily due to how teachers viewed their role in the decision making process. Decisions were seen as being very administratively directed. Recently, with the perception of enhanced levels of empowerment, similar school change efforts have encountered tremendous staff support and achieved impressive results.

### Collegial Coaching: A Developmental View

In Chapter 2 four stages of coaching were identified:

- 1) pre-coaching, 2) coaching for curriculum improvement,
- 3) coaching for instructional improvement, and 4) coaching for transfer of training.

Much of the activity described by Glatthorn in the pre-coaching and coaching for curriculum improvement stages consistently exists as part of the normal operation of the middle school team or cluster. These are typically the conditions that need to precede the development of collegial coaching for improvement of instruction and the transfer of training.



Coaching for the transfer of training, or expert coaching, continues to be the most elusive form of coaching. MS2 and MS3 began their respective collegial coaching program in order to support on-going staff development initiatives such as the 4MAT lesson design and the infusion of thinking skills instruction in the curriculum. At MS1 linkages did not exist between training and coaching activities.

As formal training requirements in collegial coaching were satisfied, the practice of collegial coaching became much more informal and less focused on expert coaching. Coaching for the improvement of instruction is the most prevalent form of coaching practiced at each site. Two factors would seem to influence this to a great degree: 1) time and 2) reluctance of teachers to assume quasi-administrative roles.

Without question time is the greatest inhibitor of any form of formal coaching, or, for that matter, any form of coaching. Although the value of coaching is recognized and accepted, teachers with full teaching loads along with supervisory and related duties simply find it very difficult to complete more than three cycles a year with accompanying documentation due to time constraints. Ideally, coaching activities should avoid confronting teachers with the dilemma of wanting to participate in coaching activities while also wanting to teach their students. These two activities should

not be mutually exclusive and teachers should not be put in the position of having to choose. In order to nurture the further development of collegial coaching practices schools will need to consider creative ways to resolve this time factor.

Teachers are also reluctant to assume a quasi - administrative role. One teacher explained, with some discomfort, that the formal documentation requirements of the program made her feel like an administrator. Until schools can adequately address the distinctions between formative supervisory support and summative evaluation teachers will continue to feel uncomfortable with formal aspects of coaching programs.

Nevertheless, teachers were very comfortable with coaching practices that were more informal, and focused on the improvement of instruction. The data in this study seems to indicate that, in terms of collegial coaching practices, expert coaching is the rarest form of an already scarce phenomenon.

### Summary of Findings

While corroborating the findings of earlier studies on collegial coaching this investigation identifies powerful

factors which help to nurture existing collegial coaching programs examined at each site. These factors include:

- 1) the organization of teachers in teams or clusters
- 2) the effective use of common planning time to foster enhanced levels of collaboration and collegiality
- 3) the enabling effect of high levels of teacher empowerment on the implementation of coaching programs.

Important considerations relative to teacher empowerment were found to be:

- 1) teacher accountability
- 2) development of appropriate levels of trust
- 3) the relationship of reality and perception.

Ultimately the practice of coaching at each site shifted from more formal protocols during training to less formal protocols in ensuing collegial coaching experiences.

The implications of these findings on future implementation efforts are discussed below.

## Implications for Practitioners

Much has been written, particularly in the last fifteen years, about collegial coaching programs. In spite of this interest relatively few coaching programs exist. This reality supports Alfonso's [1977] assertion that only when the basic norms for teacher interactions change, and collaboration becomes valued within the school climate will collegial coaching succeed.

This multi-site case study consisted of an investigation of implementation characteristics of collegial coaching practices at three middle schools. Although the focus of this study was the middle school level, the findings would seem to have implications for other levels.

The study has implications for three major constituencies: 1) staff developers wishing to incorporate collegial coaching practices as part of existing programs, 2) school leaders confronted with the need to seek out alternative practices as part of major school change and improvement efforts, and, most importantly, 3) teachers seeking to find ways to support each other in the improvement of instruction.

The major implication of this study is the need for schools to restructure their organizations in such a way as to create schools where the basic norms of teacher interaction modified by an emphasis on collaboration and collegiality transforms the essence of the school. The middle schools that participated in this study are all in the process of some significant restructuring. Some of the modifications, though specific to these schools, could certainly be tailored in some fashion to meet the needs of other schools and other levels. Given a commitment to school change and improvement, the structures that have been discussed in this paper could, assuming the professional and political will, exist in any school.

The organization of teachers in teams and/or clusters, the development of schedules that incorporate significant blocks of common planning time for teams or clusters of teachers, the emphasis on teaming and collaboration among staff, and the conceptualization of education as a lifelong process are all possible at any level. In order to make these a reality schools will need to make some tough choices and, indeed, some compromises. In this kind of setting collegial coaching can make some significant contributions in the improvement of instruction and the transfer of training to current practice.



Even in the less than perfect settings where collegial coaching is practiced, it is making significant contributions. These contributions have been discussed throughout this study. Additionally, for coaching to have maximum impact it must be valued by the organization as preciously as instructional time and any other facet of the school program. Rather than accommodating its practice when possible, its practice should be incorporated into the very fabric of the school community.

### Recommendations for Further Research

Within the context of this study organizations are viewed as changing and evolving entities. During the years of implementation, collegial coaching programs evolved to meet the changing needs of the participants and the schools. Although important factors have been isolated through this multi-site case study many questions remain unanswered.

Some questions that would seem to merit further examination are:

- 1) Are the findings of this study corroborated in other sites, with programs of longer standing, particularly when the on-going focus of training and implementation efforts have passed?

- 2) Under what conditions does expert coaching exist and prosper?
- 3) What are the long term implications of mandated collegial coaching programs? i.e. what will the level of participation be when the mandate has passed?
- 4) What understandings can be developed through the examination and study of schools in which implementation efforts have met with failure and frustration?
- 5) Do successful coaching efforts result in higher levels of students achievement?

In spite of the amount of literature that exists in the area of collegial coaching it's important to remember that this field is in many ways in the earliest stages of development. If educators hope to realize the promise of collegial coaching used for the transfer of training, continued research needs to focus on how to encourage the development of expert coaching in schools and the organization of schools to help nurture these efforts.

### A Final Concern: The Ultimate Obstacle

The vitality, the enthusiasm and the levels of caring in these schools were remarkable. In speaking with staff at each site one could sense the professionalism and the commitment in each building. Unfortunately, a great deal of anxiety was also present; anxiety produced by uncertain finances and questionable political will to support not only collegial coaching practices but all school programs. Interestingly, for many participants, their experiences in coaching has "supported a lot of laughs" and helped them to cope with increasing financial and political pressures. These factors are not within the control of school staff and one can only hope that the financial climate will improve before educational opportunities are decimated.

# APPENDIX A: SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Principal: \_\_\_\_\_

School: \_\_\_\_\_ Telephone: \_\_\_\_\_

Street: \_\_\_\_\_ City/Town \_\_\_\_\_ Zip \_\_\_\_\_

## DEMOGRAPHIC DATA:

Total enrollment: \_\_\_\_\_ # of boys \_\_\_\_\_ # of girls \_\_\_\_\_

% Free/Reduced Lunch \_\_\_\_\_

Number receiving:

Chapter One \_\_\_\_\_ Special Education \_\_\_\_\_ Bilingual Ed. \_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_ % minority enrollment. Minority groups represented:

\_\_\_\_\_

## ORGANIZATIONAL DATA:

# of years your school has been a middle/junior high school \_\_\_\_\_

Grade Configuration: 5-8 \_\_\_\_\_ 6-8 \_\_\_\_\_ 7-9 \_\_\_\_\_ Other \_\_\_\_\_

Please check off the descriptors or programs that exist in your school:

_____ departmental organization		_____ remedial reading
_____ single subject teaching teams		_____ talented and gifted
_____ interdisciplinary teaching teams		_____ foreign language
_____ cluster organization:		_____ art
# of staff per cluster _____		_____ industrial arts
# of students per cluster _____		_____ home economics
single grade _____		_____ drama
multiple grades _____		_____ instrumental music
		_____ career education
		_____ physical education
_____ traditional block schedule		_____ health education
_____ modular schedule		_____ substance abuse ed.
_____ flexible schedule		_____ sex education
_____ homogeneous grouping in:		_____ peer coaching(teachers):
_____ Math _____ Rdg _____ Lang. Arts		
_____ Science _____ Social Studies		# yrs since implementation:
		_____
_____ heterogeneous grouping in:		% staff participating _____
_____ Math _____ Rdg _____ Lang. Arts		mandatory participation _____
_____ Science _____ Social Studies		voluntary participation _____
_____ advisor-advisee program		length of training _____
_____ peer tutoring		part of evaluation _____yes____no

## APPENDIX B: INTERVIEW OUTLINE

### **Personal Profile & Background:**

- Name, Position, Yrs. in position, Yrs. in teaching
- General perceptions about school? i.e. good place to work, improving, etc.
- Quality of interpersonal relationships in the school/cluster/team.

### **Organizational Profile:**

- How are decisions made in the following areas:
  - teachers assignment to team/clusters/departments
  - scheduling of classes
  - student grouping for instruction
  - curriculum content decisions
  - staff development plans
- Existence of standard instructional format (i.e. Hunter, 4Mat, etc.) that has been adopted by the school or the district.
- How was this format selected?
- Training that followed selection.
- Frequency of teacher meetings and topics of discussion.

### **Collegial Coaching:**

- Nature of collegial coaching activities.
  - reasons for adoption
  - planning, training, expectations
  - attitude toward supervision
  - reasons for participation
- Frequency of coaching cycles.
- Barriers to coaching.
- Impact and results of peer coaching on individual and organization.
- Success or failure and the attributable reasons.
  - Continued participation? Yes/No - Why?
- Conclusion: Opportunity for participants to discuss important issues not directly addressed during the interview.



## APPENDIX C: TYPE OF COMMUNITY DESCRIPTORS

(reprint of 1986 informational memo to local school districts)

### Description

Like most states in America, Massachusetts is not monolithic. Within its boundaries lies a wide range of communities and residents. However, for many purposes it is simply not feasible to consider 351 communities individually. For this reason, policy-makers, staff of state agencies, researchers and analysts, educators and the general public find it easier to think in terms of categories of communities which have similar characteristics, such as 'big cities' or 'small towns.' To be useful as an analytic tool, however, such designations should be part of a formal classification scheme based on objective data rather than on popular impressions which might be imprecise or too subjective.

For over a decade the Massachusetts Department of Education has used a formal four-category community classification scheme -- (1) big cities; (2) industrial suburbs; (3) residential suburbs; and (4) other (mostly small towns). Based primarily on data from the 1980 Census, this scheme has become outdated. Many Massachusetts communities have changed markedly since that time and new sources of data have become available creating the need to update and expand the classification scheme. In response to this need a new formal classification scheme was developed which reflects the current range of characteristics of Massachusetts communities. The new categories are:

- |                                   |   |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| 1. URBANIZED CENTERS              | Manufacturing and commercial centers; densely populated; culturally diverse                         |
| 2. ECONOMICALLY DEVELOPED SUBURBS | Suburbs with high levels of economic activity, social complexity; and relatively high income levels |
| 3. GROWTH COMMUNITIES             | Rapidly expanding communities in transition   |
| 4. RESIDENTIAL SUBURBS            | Affluent communities with low levels of economic activity   |
| 5. RURAL ECONOMIC CENTERS         | Historic manufacturing and commercial communities; moderate levels of economic activity             |

- |                               |   |
|-------------------------------|---|
| 6. SMALL RURAL COMMUNITIES    | Small towns; sparsely populated; economically undeveloped   |
| 7. RESORT/RETIREMENT/ARTISTIC | Communities with high property values; relatively low income levels, and enclaves of retirees, artists, vacationers and academicians. |

### **Methodology**

The new community classification were derived using a statistical technique called 'cluster analysis'. Through extensive study, consultation, and experimentation, the KOC Working Group identified fifteen socio-economic and demographic attributes (variables). These attributes were chosen because they represent important factors which differentiate communities from one another. Data were obtained from the 1980 U.S. Census and various state agencies. The attributes and their definitions are listed in the following pages.

### **Community Attributes**

EQUALIZED PROPERTY VALUATION PER CAPITA	1984 equalized property property valuation divided by 1980 population
PERCENTAGE HIGH INCOME	Percentage of total households whose income exceeded \$50,000 in 1979
PERCENTAGE LOW INCOME	Percentage of total households whose income was less than \$10,000 in 1979
PERCENTAGE WITH SOME COLLEGE	Percentage of all adults aged 25 and over on January 1, 1980 who had completed at least one year of college education
MANUFACTURING ACTIVITY INDEX	Composite index of two attributes: a) percentage of total valuation derived from industrial property, and b) jobs in manufacturing, communication, electric, gas, sanitary services, and transportation; divided by land square miles.

## COMMERCIAL ACTIVITY INDEX

Composite of two attributes:  
a) percentage of total valuation derived from commercial property in 1984, and b) jobs in wholesale and retail trade, finance, insurance, real estate and all other services in 1982; divided by land square miles.

## RESIDENTIAL INDEX

Percentage of total valuation derived from residential property in 1984.

## UNEMPLOYMENT RATE

Average percentage of the labor force not employed during 1983.

## PERCENTAGE WHO RENT

Percentage of the population living in rented housing units.

## HOUSING AGE

Percentage of occupied housing units built before 1940.

## PERCENTAGE MINORITY

Non-white percentage plus Hispanic white percentage

## PERCENTAGE FOREIGN LANGUAGE

Percentage of the population aged five and above who speak a language other than English at home, even if English is the primary language.

## PERCENTAGE SCHOOL AGE

Percentage of the population aged 5 - 17 years.

## POPULATION CHANGE

Percentage increase or decrease in population between 1970 and 1980.

## POPULATION DENSITY

Total persons in 1980 divided by land square miles.

## Uses of Community Classifications

The new kind of community classification scheme is a tool which can be used for research, analysis, reporting and staff training. Statistically constructed on the basis of socio-economic and demographic attributes it can be used by a variety of state agencies, public interest groups, business and professional associations. The list below provides specific examples of the potential uses of the scheme.

- Assess level of resources (input) and performance (output) of various clusters.
- Improve sampling procedures for research and evaluation.
- More accurately identify service and resource gaps which can improve service delivery.
- Test new allocation formulas.
- Increase public understanding of implications of reported data.
- Assist in identifying local and statewide trends and in selecting appropriate courses of action.

For further information contact:

Office of Executive Planning, Department of Education, 1385  
Hancock Street, Quincy, Massachusetts 02169  
(617-770-7308).

A detailed explanation of the methodology used is contained in the Technical Manual for Clustering Massachusetts Cities and Towns. This manual and a limited number of state Kind of Community maps are available upon request. A state Kind of Community map also appears in the Massachusetts Department of Education Condition of Education, 1985 report, p. 33.



## B I B L I O G R A P H Y

- Acheson, K. and M. Gall. 1980. Techniques in the Clinical Supervision of Teachers. New York:Longman.
- Alexander, W. and P. George. 1981. The Exemplary Middle School. New York:Holt, Rinehart and Winston.
- Alexander, W. 1989. Presentation at the 44th Annual A.S.C.D. Conference. Orlando, FL.
- Alfonso, R.J., G. Firth, and R. Neville. 1981. Instructional Supervision: A Behavior System. Boston:Allyn and Bacon.
- Alfonso, R.J. May 1977. "Will Peer Supervision Work?" Educational Leadership 34, 8:594-597.
- Alfonso, R.J. and L. Goldsberry. 1982. "Colleagueship in Supervision." In Supervision of Teaching, edited by Thomas J. Sergiovanni. Alexandria, Va:Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Bang-Jensen, V. 1986. "The View From Next Door:A Look at Peer 'Supervision'." In Improving Teaching edited by Karen K. Zumwalt. Alexandria Va: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Bents, R.H. and K.R. Howey. 1981. "Staff Development - Change in the Individual." In Staff Development / Organization Development, edited by Betty Dillon-Peterson. Alexandria, VA:Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development..
- Blair, V.R. 1984. Peer Observation as a Means of Changing Teacher Effectiveness Behavior. Doctoral Dissertation, University of Florida.
- Blumberg, A. and P. Cusick. November/December 1970. "Supervisor-Teacher Interaction:An Analysis of Verbal Behavior." Education 91:129-131.
- Blumberg, A. 1974. Supervisors and Teachers: A Private Cold War. Berkeley, CA:McCutchen.
- Bogdan, R.C. and S.K. Biklen. 1982. Qualitative Research For Education: An Introduction to Theory and Methods. Boston:Allyn and Bacon.
- Brandt, R.S. December 1982. "A Conversation with Ronald Edmonds." Educational Leadership 40, 4:12-15.
- Brandt, R.S. February, 1985. "On Teaching and Supervising: A



Conversation with Madeline Hunter." Educational Leadership 42, 5:61-66.

\_\_\_\_\_. February 1987. "On Teachers Coaching Teachers: A Conversation with Bruce Joyce." Educational Leadership 44, 5:12-17.

Burke, P.J. Spring 1985. "Teacher's Career Stages and Patterns of Attitude Toward Teaching Behavior." Education 105, 3:240-248.

Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development, 1989. Turning Points: Preparing American Youth for the 21st Century. David W. Hornbeck, chairman. Washington, D.C.:Carnegie Council on Adolescent Development.

Cawelti, G. November 1988. "Middle Schools a Better Match With Early Adolescent Needs, ASCD Survey Finds." ASCD Curriculum Update.

\_\_\_\_\_. 1989. Report at the 44th Annual A.S.C.D. Conference, Orlando, Fl.

Chase, A. and P. Wolfe. May 1989. "Off to a Good Start in Peer Coaching." Educational Leadership 46, 8:37.

Chrisco, I. May 1989. "Peer Assistance Works." Educational Leadership 46, 8:31-32.

Christen, W.L. and T.J. Murphy. September 1987. "Inservice Training and Peer Evaluation: An Intergrated Program for Faculty Development." NASSP Bulletin 71, 500:10-18.

Clark, R. November 1985. "The :Logical Link Between Career Ladders and Teacher Education." Educational Leadership 43, 3:77-81.

Cogan, M.L. 1973. Clinical Supervision. Boston:Houghton Mifflin.

Conley, D.T. April 1987. "Critical Attributes of Effective Evaluation Systems." Educational Leadership 44, 7:60-64.

Cooper, G. 1983. Collegial Supervision: The Feasibility of Implementation and Particular Effectiveness on Teacher Attitudes and Job Satisfaction. Dissertation, University of Pennsylvania.

Copeland, W.D. and Richard Jamgochun. March 1985. "Colleague Training and Peer Review." Journal of Teacher Education 36:18-21.

Costa, A. and R. Garmston. February 1985. Supervision for Intelligent Teaching." Educational Leadership 42, 5:70-80.

- Costa, A. and R. Garmston. February 1985. Supervision for Intelligent Teaching." Educational Leadership 42, 5:70-80.
- Dillon-Peterson, B. "Staff Development/Organization Development - Perspective 1981". 1981. In Staff Development / Organization Development, edited by Betty Dillon-Peterson. Alexandria, VA:Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Edmonds, R. December 1982. "Program of School Improvement: an overview." Educational Leadership, pp. 4-11.
- Edmonds, R. and J. Frederiksen. 1978. Search For Effective Schools: The Identification and Analysis of Schools That Are Instructionally Effective for Poor Children. Cambridge:Harvard University Center for Urban Studies.
- Eisner, E. "An Artistic Approach to Supervision." 1982. In Supervision of Teaching, edited by Thomas J. Sergiovanni. Alexandria, Va:Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Ellis, E.C., J.T. Smith, and W. H. Abbott Jr. March 1979. "Peer Observation." Educational Leadership, 36:423-426
- Fredericks, A.D. March 1987. "Inservice From Within: Sharing Collegial Expertise." The Reading Teacher 40, 7:664-667.
- Fredich, G.H. November 1984. "Supervision and Evaluation - Recognizing the Difference Can Increase Value, Effectiveness." NASSP Bulletin 68:475 12-19.
- Freer, M.L. December 1987. "Clinical Supervision:Training That Works." NASSP Bulletin 71, 503:12-17.
- Garman, N.B. 1982. "The Clinical Approach to Supervision." In Supervision of Teaching, edited by Thomas J. Sergiovanni. Alexandria, Va:Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Garmston, R.J. February 1987. "How Administrators Support Peer Coaching." Educational Leadership 44, 5:18-26.
- George, P.S. 1983. Theory Z School: Beyond Effectiveness. Columbus, OH:National Middle School Association.
- \_\_\_\_\_. May 1984. "Theory Z and the Schools: What Can We Learn from Toyota?" NASSP Bulletin 68, 472:76-82.
- Glatthorn, A.A. 1984. Differentiated Supervision. Alexandria, VA:Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- \_\_\_\_\_. Winter 1987." A New Concept of Supervision." Educational Horizons 65:78-81.

- Glatthorn, A.A. and R.L. Holler. April 1987. "Differentiated Teacher Evaluation." Educational Leadership 44, 7:56-58.
- Glickman, C.D. 1981. Developmental Supervision: Alternative Practices for Helping Teachers Improve Instruction. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- \_\_\_\_\_. 1985. Supervision of Instruction, a developmental approach. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.
- Goldhammer, R. 1969. Clinical Supervision. New York: Holt Rinehart and Winston.
- Goldman, J.J. March 1983. "Supervisor's Beliefs About People and the Supervisory Plan: MacGregor's Theory X and Theory Y in the Schools." Clearing House 56:306-309.
- Goodlad, J.I. 1979. What School Are For. Bloomington , Ind: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation.
- \_\_\_\_\_. 1984. A Place Called School. New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Gray, W.M. and M.M. Gray. November 1985. "Synthesis of Research on Mentoring Beginning Teachers." Educational Leadership 43, 3:37-43.
- Green, E.E., P.F. Cook, and J.K. Rogers. December 1984. "Can Theory Z Help?-The Need for Interpersonal Skills Training and Supervision." NASSP Bulletin 68, 476:23-30.
- Grimmett, P.P. Fall 1987. "The Role of District Supervisors in the Implementation of Peer Coaching." Journal of Curriculum and Supervision 3, 1:3-28.
- Guskey, T.R. July/August 1985. "The Effects of Staff Development on Teachers' Perceptions about Effective Teaching." Journal of Educational Research 78, 6:378-381.
- Hanes, R.C. and K.F. Mitchell. November 1985. "Teacher Career Development in Charlotte-Mecklenburg." Educational Leadership 43, 3:11-13.
- Harris, B.M. 1975. Supervisory Behavior in Education. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice Hall.
- Holland, P. Winter 1988. "Keeping the Faith With Cogan: Current Theorizing in a Maturing Practice of Clinical Supervision." Journal of Curriculum and Supervision 3, 2:97-108.



Hopfengardner, J.D. and R. Walker. April 1984. "Collegial Support: An Alternative to Principal-led Supervision of Instruction." NASSP Bulletin 68 471:35-40.

Hopfengardner, J.D. and P.G. Leahy. Spring 1988. "Providing Collegial Support for Experienced Teachers." Journal of Staff Development 9, 2:48-50.

Hornbeck, D. 1989. Address at the 44th Annual A.S.C.D. Conference, Orlando, FL.

Hosford, P.L. 1984. "Introduction: The Problem, Its' Difficulties and Our Approaches." In Using What We Know About Teaching, edited by Philip L.Hosford. Alexandria, VA:Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Hunter, M. February 1980. "Six Types of Supervisory Conferences." Educational Leadership 37, 5:408-413.

\_\_\_\_\_. 1982. Mastery Teaching. El Segundo, CA:TIP Publications.

\_\_\_\_\_. 1984. "Knowing, Teaching, Supervising." In Using What We Know About Teaching, edited by Philip L.Hosford. Alexandria, VA:Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

\_\_\_\_\_. February 1985. "What's Wrong With Madeline Hunter." Educational Leadership 42, 5:57-60.

\_\_\_\_\_. 1988. "Create Rather Than Await Your Fate in Teacher Evaluation." In Teacher Evaluation: Six Prescriptions for Success edited by Sarah J. Stanley and W. James Popham, Alexandria, VA:Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Hunter, M. and D. Russell. April 1987. National Curriculum Study Institute, Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, National Conference, Boston, 1987.

Johnston, J.H. and G.C. Markle. 1986. What Research Says to the Middle School Practitioner. Columbus, Ohio:National Middle School Association.

Jones, B.L. and R.W. Maloy. 1988. Partnerships For Improving Schools. New York:Greenwood Press.

Joyce, B. 1981. "A Memorandum for the Future." In Staff Development / Organization Development, edited by Betty Dillon-Peterson. Alexandria, VA:Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

- Joyce, B. 1981. "Making the Strange Familiar: Scenes from a Future Teacher's Life." In Staff Development / Organization Development, edited by Betty Dillon-Peterson. Alexandria, VA:Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Joyce, B. and B. Showers. February 1980. "Improving Inservice Training: The Messages of Research." Educational Leadership 37, 5:379-383.
- \_\_\_\_\_. October 1982. "The Coaching of Teaching." Educational Leadership 40, 1:4-10.
- \_\_\_\_\_. 1983. Power in Staff Development Through Research on Training. Alexandria, Va: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Karier, C. 1982. "Supervision in Historic Perspective." in Supervision of Teaching, edited by Thomas Sergiovanni. Alexandria, VA:Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Kent, K.M. November 1985. "A Successful Program of Teachers Assisting Teachers." Educational Leadership 43, 3:30-33.
- Krajewski, R.J. 1976. "Clinical Supervision: To Facilitate Teacher Self-Improvement." Journal of Research and Development in Education 9, 58-66.
- Krajewski, R.J. 1977. "Instructional Supervision: Dollars and Sense." Contemporary Education 49:5-15.
- \_\_\_\_\_. Fall 1981. "Clinical Supervision in the Secondary School:Foundations for Principals." American Secondary Education 11:2-5.
- \_\_\_\_\_. Winter 1982. "Clinical Supervision: a Conceptual Framework." Journal of Research and Development in Education 15:38-43.
- Krajewski, R.J. and R.H. Anderson. February 1980. "Goldhammer's Clinical Supervision a Decade Later." Educational Leadership 37, 5:420-423.
- Lawrence, G. and J. Branch. "Peer Support as the Heart of Inservice Education." Theory Into Practice 17, 4:245-247.
- Leggett, D. and S. Hoyle. Spring 1987. "Peer Coaching: One District's Experience in Using Teachers as Staff Developers." Journal of Staff Development 8, 1:16-20.
- Little, J.W. November 1985. "Teachers as Teacher Advisors: The Delicacy of Collegial Leadership." Educational Leadership 43, 3:34-36.



- Locke, L.F., W.W. Spirduso, and S.J. Silverman. 1987. Proposals That Work (2nd edition). Newbury Park, CA:Sage Publications, 1987.
- Mandeville, G.K. and J. Rivers. December 1988/January 1989. Effects of South Carolina's Hunter-Based PET Program." Educational Leadership 46, 4:63-66.
- \_\_\_\_\_. May 1989. "Is the Hunter Model a Recipe for Supervision." Educational Leadership 46, 8:39-43.
- Marshall, C. and G.B. Rossman. 1989. Designing Qualitative Research. Newbury Park, CA:Sage Publications.
- Mattaliano, A.P. 1977. Clinical Supervision: The Key Competencies Required For Effective Practice. Doctoral Dissertation, University of Massachusetts.
- \_\_\_\_\_. 1984. Unpublished lecture notes.
- McCarty, D.J., J.W. Kaufman, and J.C. Stafford. April 1986. "Supervision and Evaluation: Two Irreconcilable Processes?" Clearing House 59:351-353.
- McFaul, S.A. and J.M. Cooper. April 1984. "Peer Clinical Supervision in an Urban Elementary School." Educational Leadership 41, 7:4-11.
- McGee J.C. and R. Eaker. Fall 1977. "Clinical Supervision and Teacher Anxiety: a Collegial Approach to the Problem." Contemporary Education 49:24-28.
- McGuire, G.K., A.M. Borth, I.E. Pudendorf, and J.P. Rose. March 1958. "Visiting Other Teachers in Your School: A Basis for Communication." The Elementary School Journal 5:331-334.
- McNeil, J.D. 1982. "A Scientific Approach to Supervision." In Supervision of Teaching, edited by Thomas J. Sergiovanni. Alexandria, Va:Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Miles, M.B. 1983. "Qualitative Data as an Attractive Nuisance: The Problem of Analysis." In Qualitative Methodology, edited by John Van Maanen. Beverly Hills, CA: Sage Publications.
- Miles, M.B. and A.M. Huberman. 1984. Qualitative Data Analysis: A Sourcebook of New Methods. Beverly Hills, CA:Sage Publications.

- Miller, R. and K. Miller. December 1987. "Clinical Supervision:History, Practice, Perspective." NASSP Bulletin 71, 503:18-21.
- Moeschl, S.H. and R.W. Costello. October 1988. "Using Joyce/Showers Teaching Models in the High School Classroom." Clearing House 62, 2:77-80.
- Moffett, K.L., J. St.John, and J. Isken. February 1987. "Training and Coaching Beginning Teachers: An Antidote to Reality Shock". Educational Leadership 44, 5:34-36.
- Mohlman, G.G., J. Kierstead, and M. Gundach. October 1982. "A Research-Based Inservice model for Secondary Teachers." Educational Leadership 40, 2:16-19.
- Mosenthal, S.W. 1984. The Design and Implementation of a Peer Supervision Course at the High School Level. Doctoral Dissertation. Columbia University Teachers' College.
- Munro, P. and J. Elliott. Spring 1987. "Instructional Growth Through Peer Coaching." Journal of Staff Development 8, 1:25-28.
- National Commission on Excellence in Education. 1983. A Nation At Risk: The Imperative of Educational Reform. Washington, D.C.:U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Neubert, G.A. and E.C. Bratton. February 1987. "Team Coaching: Staff Development Side by Side." Educational Leadership 44, 5:29-32.
- Ouchi, W.G. 1981. Theory Z. Reading, MA:Addison-Wesley.
- Patton, M.Q. 1990. Qualitative Evaluation and Research Methods. Newbury Park, CA:Sage Publications.
- Pfeiffer, I.L. and J.B. Dunlop. 1982. Supervision of Teachers: A Guide to Improving Instruction. Phoenix, AZ:Oryx Press.
- Raney, P. and P. Robbins. May 1989. "Professional Growth and Support through Peer Coaching." Educational Leadership 46, 8:35-38.
- Reavis, C.A. February 1976. "Clinical Supervision: a timely approach." Educational Leadership 33: 360-363.
- \_\_\_\_\_. 1978. Teacher Improvement Through Clinical Supervision. Bloomington, IN:Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation.
- \_\_\_\_\_. April 1978. "Clinical Supervision: a Review of the Research." Educational Leadership 35, 7:580-584.

- Robbins, P. and P. Wolfe. February 1987. "Reflections on a Hunter-Based Staff Development Project." Educational Leadership 44, 5:56-61.
- Roberts, D.L. Winter 1984. "Ideal Teaching/Learning Environments and Effective Supervisory Climate: Contradiction or Comparable?" Education 105, 2:173-179.
- Rogers, V. 1984. "Qualitative Research - Another Way of Knowing". In Using What We Know About Teaching, edited by Philip L. Hosford. Alexandria, VA:Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Saphier, J. 1989. Lecture notes from "Making Meetings Work" workshop. Carlisle, MA:Research for Better Teaching.
- Schilling, R.O. September 1986. "Exchanging Experiences Thru Interclass Visits." National Elementary Principal 36, 1:276-283.
- Schonberger, V.L. Winter 1982. "The Effective Supervision, Coordination and Improvement of the Instruction Activities of Professional Colleagues." Education 103, 2:129-131.
- \_\_\_\_\_. April/May 1986. "The Effective Supervision of Professional Colleagues: Self-Direction and Professional Growth." The High School Journal 69, 248-253.
- Sergiovanni, T.J. 1982. "The Context of Supervision." In Supervision of Teaching, edited by Thomas J. Sergiovanni. Alexandria, Va:Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Servatius, J.D. and S.E. Young. April 1985. "Implementing the Coaching of Teaching." Educational Leadership 42, 7:50-53.
- Showers, B. 1982. Transfer of Training, the Contribution of Coaching. Eugene, Oregon:Center for Educational Policy and Management.
- \_\_\_\_\_. 1984. Peer Coaching and Its' Effects on Transfer of Training. Eugene, Oregon:Center for Educational Policy and Management.
- \_\_\_\_\_. April 1985. "Teachers Coaching Teachers." Educational Leadership 42, 7:43-48.
- Sizer, T. R. 1984. Horace's Compromise: The Dilemma of the American High School. Boston:Houghton-Mifflin.
- Stallings, J. July/August 1985. "A Study of Implementation of Madeline Hunter's Model and Its' Effects on Students." Journal of Educational Research 78, 6:325-337.



- St. John, W.D. January 1983. "Successful Communication Between Supervisor and Employees." Personnel Journal 62, 1:71-77.
- Sullivan, C.G. 1980. Clinical Supervision, A State of the Art Review. Alexandria, VA:Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- \_\_\_\_\_. October 1984. "Theory Z for Supervisors." Educational Leadership 42, 2:93.
- Tracey, S.J. Fall 1984. "Expanding the View of Instructional Supervision: Shared and Borrowed Concepts From Supervision of Counseling." Clearing House 57:281-283.
- Van Maanen, J. 1983. "Reclaiming Qualitative Methods for Organizational Research: A Preface." In Qualitative Methodology edited by John Van Maanen. Beverly Hills, CA:Sage Publications.
- Wagner, L.A. November 1985. "Ambiguities and Possibilities in California's Mentor Teacher Program." Educational Leadership 43, 3:23-29.
- Weller, R.H. 1971. Verbal Communication in Instructional Supervision. New York:Teachers College Press, 1971.
- Whyte, W.F. 1984. Learning from the Field. Beverly Hills, CA:Sage Publications.
- Wildman, T.M. and J.A. Niles. February 1987. "Essentials of Professional Growth." Educational Leadership 44, 5:4-10.
- Withall, H. and F.H. Wood. "Taking the Threat Out of Classroom Observation and Feedback." Journal of Teacher Education 30, 1:55-58.
- Wolfe, P.R. 1984. Instructional Skills Trainers' Manual. Napa County, CA:Office of the Superintendent of Napa County.
- Wood, F.H., F.O. McQuarrie Jr., and S. R. Thompson. October 1982. "Practitioners and Professors Agree on Effective Staff Development Practices." Educational Leadership 40, 1:28-31.
- Wu, P.C. Spring 1987. "Teachers as Staff Developers: Research, Opinions, and Cautions." Journal of Staff Development 8, 1:4-6.
- Yin, R.K. 1984. Case Study Research: Design and Methods. Beverly Hills, CA:Sage Publications.





