PERCEPTIONS OF THE EFFECTS OF THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE ALABAMA INSTRUCTIONAL PARTNERS PILOT PROGRAM ON THE REFLECTIVE PRACTICE OF EDUCATORS

by

DELAINA GREENE

DAVID DAGLEY, CHAIR
DAISY ARREDONDO RUCINSKI
JUDY GIESEN
BRENDA MENDIOLA
C. JOHN TARTER
STEPHEN TOMLINSON

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ABSTRACT

This study assessed the impact of the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program (AIPP) upon the perceived levels of reflective practices of the instructional coaches (also referred to as instructional partners) and the school principals participating in the program. The intent of this study was to gain insight into the perceived use of reflective practices among instructional coaches and school principals and to expand and broaden the prior research of Scott (2015) whose research examined the impact of the AIPP on the perceived levels of reflective practices of classroom teachers.

This study was motivated by four research questions: (1) Are there differences in the perceptions of reflective practice for instructional coaches participating in the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program as compared to the reflective practices of instructional coaches not involved with the program? (2) Are there differences in the perceptions of reflective practice for principals of schools participating in the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program as compared to the reflective practices of principals not involved with the program? (3) Does the number of years of participation in the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program affect perceptions of reflective practice for the instructional partner? (4) Does the number of years of participation in the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program affect perceptions of reflective practice for the school principal?

This study identified principals and instructional coaches in schools in fourteen school districts that were participating in the Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program. The Reflective, Ethical, and Moral Assessment Survey (REMAS, Arredondo Rucinski & Bauch,

2006) was administered to participants via a mail-out survey. A total of 104 surveys were returned for a return rate of 52%. With two surveys eliminated due to incomplete surveys, data for 102 surveys were entered into SPSS and analyzed for the factor analysis. An additional 7 surveys were omitted due to missing or multiple item responses. Survey data from 50 instructional coaches and 45 principals were compared using a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA).

Based on the study findings, there was not a significant difference in the perceptions of reflective practice among the surveyed instructional coaches who participated in the Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program as compared to those who did not participate in the program. There was not a significant difference in the perceptions of reflective practice among the surveyed school principals who participated in the Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program as compared to those who did not participate in the program. There was not a significant difference in the perceptions of reflective practice among the instructional coaches and school principals based on the number of years of participation in the Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program.

DEDICATION

I have sincerely thought about this page over the last year. It is impossible to dedicate this amount of work to just one person. At various times during the writing process, I have had incidents happen or I have been reminded of things that were told to me over the years. Sometimes, those were the only things that kept me trudging along when I questioned myself in this program. And even though, I doubt that any of them will ever read or know about this, I dedicate this work to them:

To all of the women who were told they could not succeed in the world of school administration.

To my high school guidance counselor who told me I was too smart to be a teacher.

To the late Caitlin Martin and the late Eden Hill. Just as no parent should have to bury a child, no school administrator should have to face the untimely loss of students. Your shocking and untimely deaths have made me stronger as a school leader and as a human being.

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figures on television, I chuckle at some remark that Dr. Givens would make about that person's policies. Thank you, Dr. Givens, for bringing levity and a wondrous spirit to the classroom.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In 2011, the Alabama State Department of Education (ALSDE) and the Alabama Best Practices Center (ABPC) collaborated and established the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program (AIPP). In that first year of implementation, thirteen instructional coaches were employed in five districts: Attalla City, Blount County, Madison City, Talladega County, and Tarrant City. The impetus for this program grew out of the Alabama Reading Initiative (ARI) legislation, which placed reading coaches in every Alabama public school housing grades K-3, and the Alabama Math, Science, and Technology Initiative (AMSTI). As concerns about education funding and accountability increased, the ABPC formulated the plan to reassign reading and math coaches as instructional coaches. These instructional coaches, who may also be referred to as Instructional Partners (IP), were presented with several tasks: to help raise student achievement, to advance student attainment of college and career readiness goals, and to provide continuous professional development for school staffs (Gassenheimer, 2012, 2014; U.S. Department of Education, 2012). In a waiver submitted to the U.S. Department of Education, the ALSDE emphasized the use of the instructional coaches as a means of providing professional learning activities and support via a statewide partnership network organized through Regional Planning Teams (RPT) (Alabama State Board of Education, 2012).

As the pilot program grew in number of participating districts and schools, it became known as a network comprised of five regional IP networks that had been established across the state: North Alabama, Central Alabama, Wiregrass, Southwest Alabama, and West Alabama. By the beginning of the 2013-2014 school year, the number of school systems participating in the program had grown to 22, with 127 participating schools. As of the 2014-2015 school year, the regional networks serviced a combined total of 29 city and county public school systems (M. Merritt, personal communication, February 12, 2014). Although the original plan called for existing reading coaches to work as Instructional Partners, other educators such as classroom teachers, cross-curricular coaches, and assistant principals were selected by their superintendents to serve in this capacity (Gassenheimer, 2012).

The North Alabama region is comprised of the following systems: Florence City, Huntsville City, Lawrence County, Madison City, Madison County, and Muscle Shoals City. The Central region encompasses the systems of Alabaster City, Attalla City, Blount County, Hartselle City, Jefferson County, Piedmont City, Talladega County, Tarrant City, and Walker County. The Wiregrass region consists of school systems in Dothan City, Elmore County, Enterprise City, Eufaula City, and three schools in Tuscaloosa County. The Southwest Alabama region contains the systems of Baldwin County, Chickasaw City, Mobile County, Saraland City, and Thomasville City. The West Region is also known as the Tuscaloosa Region, and that region consists of Choctaw County, Marengo County, Tuscaloosa City, and twelve schools in Tuscaloosa County (M. Merritt, personal communication, May 6, 2015). Over the course of the program, funding has been provided by a Title II grant, the local systems, and the respective regional centers. As Merritt explained, the funding issue explains how Tuscaloosa County schools became split into two separate regions: the original home region had no more funds available to expand the program into more schools.

Although the pilot program has been operational for only five years, some educators report that the use of IPs in the schools and within individual classrooms has generated promising results. According to Gassenheimer, the IP program was designed to place emphasis on professional learning, data assessment, and enhanced teaching and leadership abilities (EdLeader21, n.d.). Gassenheimer (2014) wrote that seven guiding principles stimulate this focus and emphasis: (1) building professional relationships (2) accepting instructional challenges to meet the needs of educators and students (3) providing opportunities for educators to share and collaborate (4) establishing a statewide network connection of educators (5) informing educators of current curricula and pedagogical processes (6) fostering reflective practices (7) embedding all of these ideas into the daily procedures of the classroom and school.

According to Gassenheimer (2012, 2014), the Instructional Partner Pilot Program utilizes an instructional coaching process influenced by the work of Knight (2011). As the coaching process begins, relationship building may lead to increased levels of trust among the teacher and instructional partner. The focus of this phase sets into motion the concept and expectation for improving student achievement. A pre-conference is held to discuss planned methods for the observation. The instructional partner scripts the actions of the teacher and reactions of the students during the lesson. After the observation, the coach and teacher engage in reflective practice to discuss the merits and detriments of the lesson. Together, the instructional partner and teacher will formulate a plan to advance techniques and promote student learning.

Instructional Partners received training prior to beginning in their new work position, and this training has continued throughout the program’s duration. For first-year IPs, reading Knight’s *Unmistakable Impact* (2011) was often the first training assignment (Carlson, 2012). Training retreats at tranquil, hospitable locations such as lakes, parks, and resorts provided the IPs with time for learning, sharing, and reflecting. Carpenter (2012) wrote about her experience in the first IP professional development induction meeting:

> The 13 of us were brought together in a serene setting on Lake Martin. I personally entered the retreat worried and skeptical. I was happy in my job as a school reading coach, or so I thought at the time. My worry soon vanished though and relief began to take its place as the retreat progressed. We were immersed in the work of Jim Knight and the partnership approach to instructional coaching. It seemed this was the coaching support I had needed. The Alabama IPs were an almost instant family, and the energy surge we felt during the retreat was unmistakable. A coaching approach that honors teachers as true professional partners just felt right. We left our first face-to-face meeting both excited and energized about the work we would do in the months to come (para 3-4).

Flowers (2012) explained that this training brought together the entire original cohort of IPs and helped them form a nurturing, collaborative association of coaches who would be placed in different grade configurations.

Flowers (2012) and Huffaker (2012) reported that IPs continued to attend monthly meetings supplemented with intermittent multi-day conferences for new training. A Ning-based network for online collaboration called the Community of Practice (COP) permitted the sharing of required weekly reflective posts. Occasionally, these reflective posts featured videos of the instructional changes that have occurred in a school as a result of utilizing the IP. These reflective posts were reviewed privately by the ABPC staff who then provided constructive comments to the individual author (Alexander, 2012). As the program progressed and additional schools and systems were added, new cohorts were formed and trained with the original cohort. As a Cohort 2 IP in her first training session, Thorington (2013) began to understand her new educator role after hearing the following statement: "The IPP is not a program to replace any other program or practice. It's a school transformation through partnerships" (para 4).

After the first year of implementation, apparently favorable outcomes were reported: increases in student engagement, cooperative learning, and ownership of learning and a decrease in behavioral problems (SEDL, 2012). Gassenheimer (2014) reported that the partnership program had increased networking opportunities for administrators and teachers all across the state. She stated that these associations have produced new professional collaborations as schools have become connected in what some believe is a dynamic, innovative way. Gassenheimer noted the increased use of teacher reflection, an essential component of the partnership process. Writing and submitting a weekly reflective blog permits the IP participants to receive feedback from the project facilitators and to contemplate their successes and disappointments.

In an era of budget constraints and overcrowded classrooms, one might question the expense in employing instructional coaches who work mainly with teachers (Heinke, 2013). Utilizing instructional coaches might be viewed as a waste of limited funding if school leaders lack adequate knowledge about the theoretical underpinning of the program (Knight, 2005). Several researchers (Donahoe, 1993; Raywid, 1993; Watts & Castle, 1993) have argued that effective professional development requires time, a valuable commodity for the overworked teacher. Wildman and Niles (1987a) countered that the cost of effective professional development compensated for the cost of time and thus proved to be a worthy expenditure for a school district. Knight (2007) has argued that the salary of an instructional coach is justified by the cost savings provided with ongoing onsite professional development as an entire grade level department no longer has to miss a day of instructional time to receive training on new content or strategies. Proponents (Hill & Rapp, 2012) argued that time and money can be saved by the utilization of the instructional coach who may be embedded within the faculty work assignments and who can provide training during common planning times.

Darling-Hammond, Wei, Andree, Richardson, and Orphanos (2009) examined the professional development opportunities and work expectations for American educators and found several notable distinctions with educators in some other countries. Unlike their global counterparts, American teachers typically funded most of the costs for attending training sessions and schedule their attendance during unpaid summer vacations. In many cases, these continuing education hours are limited to one day, stand-alone workshops with no complementary school applications. Time has been limited during the school day for career development as American teachers spend 20% more of their time in an instructional capacity as compared to their global peers. Few teachers have anticipated having their professional opinions solicited for the purpose of school reform.

The policy actions aimed at transforming conventional professional development methods into a platform for continuous, job-embedded training has been bolstered by political and industry leaders who have expressed cautious expectations about the 21st century workforce (Arredondo Rucinski, Beas Franco, Gomex Nocetti, Thomsen Queirolo, & Carranza Daniel, 2009; Hazi & Arredondo Rucinski, 2014). These leaders have contended that teachers must be properly trained to prepare the new generation of American workers to be capable of competing in the global marketplace. According to Hunt (2009), the education field in the United States has lagged behind other professions which incorporate and advocate for collegial collaboration on a regular basis. Hunt argued that other countries have enacted programs to enrich and support teacher needs which contribute to an increase in student achievement.

Ovando (1993) stated that professional development designed to meet the distinctive training needs of educators should “focus on the individual rather than focusing on a problem” (p.21). According to Rock (2002), employing job-embedded professional development can better meet the needs of the individual teacher as well as the needs of the faculty as a whole body. Darling-Hammond and Richardson (2009) argued that incorporating professional development into continuous improvement plans were more beneficial than conventional singular workshops. Galluci, Van Lare, Yoon, and Boatright (2010) recommended an integrated professional development program designed to sustain administrators and specialists as they, themselves, guide their respective faculties.

Wood and McQuarrie, Jr. (1999) noted that a job-embedded approach can be viewed as an active, participatory activity for teachers in which ideas are conceptualized and implemented with the intent of improving student and teacher performance. Whereas more conventional professional development often required time away from the classroom, job-embedded professional development permitted teachers to promptly make adjustments and any accompanying refinements to their style and technique. These adjustments are guided by the knowledge and mindfulness obtained through reflective practice, a process that can be accomplished by writing and keeping a reflective journal or by following reflective procedures such as those outlined by researchers such as Arredondo Rucinski (2005) and Schön (1987). Reflective practice is believed to encourage awareness of techniques, style, personal attributes, and effectiveness that often results in another benefit: the immediacy of action (Camburn, 2010; Cruickshank & Applegate, 1981; Delaney & Arredondo, 2001; Hail, Hurst, & Camp, 2011; Wellington, 1991).

Statement of the Problem

Reflective practice is a participatory action which prompts one to examine personal experiences and beliefs as a means of acquiring new levels of awareness (Dewey, 1910/2012). Reflective practice provides a valuable and often liberating resource for the classroom teacher and administrator (Canning, 1991; Wibel, 1991). Several researchers (Arikan, 2006; Osterman & Kottkamp, 1993; Wildman & Niles, 1987b) have postulated that educators can gain insight into their professional practice through reflection. Moral dilemmas can surface in the roles, functions, and responsibilities of an administrator as many decision-making situations have the potential to challenge the ethical principles of the leader (Covrig, 2000; Hightower & Klinker, 2012). Effective school leaders talk and listen with their staffs and strive to develop a trusting relationship which, in turn, supports elevated levels of confidence and change (Arredondo & Rucinski, 1998). Teachers are more enthusiastic about modifying programs or adopting a new program if their input is valued (Goldring & Greenfield, 2002). The ethical school leader promotes democratic leadership and encourages the opinions of stakeholders. Before proceeding with a resolution, the ethical school leader utilizes listening skills and reflective practice: a process deemed “learning from experience” (Arredondo Rucinski & Bauch, 2006, p. 489).

Whereas reading and math coaches have been utilized in elementary schools for several years, the placement of instructional coaches via the Instructional Partners program in Alabama public schools is a recent endeavor. In the schools implementing the IP pilot program, the initial cognitive, social, and behavioral effects on students have been reported as promising with perceptions of increases in student engagement and decreases in discipline referrals (SEDL, 2012). According to Kaplan and Owings (1999), “instructional coaching helps novice teachers gain the skills and confidence to be effective with a wide range of students…[and] helps mature teachers reflect in their strengths and consider ways to be even more effective with more students" (p. 83). Reflective practice is considered a vital component of the program for the educators employed as Instructional Partner (Gassenheimer, 2014). Little research has been conducted to determine the effectiveness of the AIPP program for modifying the perceived use of reflective practice among the instructional coaches or administrators. An examination of the use of reflective practice among participants in this program could provide information as to the perceived effectiveness of the IP program.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine the impact of the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program (AIPP) upon the perceived levels of reflective practices of the instructional coaches and the school principals participating in the program. Results from this study may provide information about the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program and the use of instructional coaches within public schools. Recent research has examined the impact of participation in the Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program upon reflective practices of teachers (Scott, 2015). Prior to this study, there was little research available that substantiated the impact of the program upon the reflective practices of the instructional coaches and the school principals. The intent of this study was to gain insight into the perceived use of reflective practices among instructional coaches and school principals and to expand and broaden the prior research.

Significance of the Study

According to Gassenheimer (2014), instructional partners are required to engage in reflective practice via weekly weblogs and are advised to encourage reflective practice among the teachers and administrators. Some instructional partners have reported that they engage in reflective practice more than the other staff members. The findings of Blase and Blase (2000) suggested that the use of modeling, praise, and collaboration supports and emphasizes reflection. Consequently, they advocated the need for an expansion of coaching as well as more reflective communication. Recent research has examined the impact of participation in the Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program upon reflective practices of teachers (Scott, 2015). This study may expand and broaden the prior work by Scott as little research has been available that substantiated the impact of the program upon the perceived reflective practices of the instructional coaches and the school principals.

Conceptual Framework

Although the instructional coach may be considered as an additional instructional leader within the school (Killion, 2009), the most apt description for the professional relationship between the coach and fellow teacher may be that of partnership. The coach and teacher form an alliance to determine best practices, strategies, and techniques for the given material and content and with the given group of students (Devine, Houssemand, & Meyers, 2013). Styron and Nyman (2008) observed that such a partnership was “the pinnacle of teacher collaboration” (p. 3). According to Tate (personal communication, November 17, 2013), acceptance of both the coach and the new strategies and methods may increase when the teachers commit to the partnership, and the feedback of coaches may empower and motivate the teachers. An evaluation of performance occurs as the coach and teacher reflect upon the outcome of the lesson. As Knight argued, “reflection stands at the heart of the partnership approach” (2011, p. 37).

According to Dewey (1910/2012), reflective thinking can be an intensive and persistent undertaking that will require the thinker to reach beyond mentally revisiting events. Regardless of reason or motivation, the goal of reflective practice is to encourage the person to think (Lyons, 2010). Rodgers (2002) posited that the support and unity of peers enhance the teacher’s full ability to understand reflective practice and may accentuate the most beneficial aspects of the process. Reflection, according to Wellington (1991), may create a positive transformation of a teacher’s teaching practices.

Researchers (Canning, 1991; Marzano, Boogren, Heflebower, Kanold-McIntyre, & Pickering, 2012) have observed that the significance of reflective practice has not been acknowledged by many teachers in the K-12 environment. In her research, Canning found that many teachers were apprehensive about engaging in reflective practice. Teachers doubted the importance of their own opinions or were cautious about sharing their opinions with supervisors. Limitations of power in the decision-making process generated feelings of irrelevance. If no one was listening to their thoughts or suggestions, teachers saw no value in sharing viewpoints. Once teachers began writing reflections, they realized that they did have significant views that could shape direction within their individual classrooms if not the school or system. Ponticell and Zepeda (2004) wrote that promoting self-direction and goal setting among the teachers may encourage more self-reflection and may improve decision-making.

When contemplating student achievement and success, the teacher and instructional coach may experience a type of reflective collaboration that encourages acceptance of the coaching process and increases the teacher’s reflective practice (Stover, Kissel, Haag, &

Shoniker, 2011). The findings of Blase and Blase (2000) suggested that the use of modeling, praise, and collaboration supports and emphasizes reflection, and they advocated the need for an expansion of coaching as well as more reflective communication. Instructional coaches employed as a result of the Alabama Instructional Partnership Pilot Program have discovered the benefits of composing reflective blogs or passages as part of their on-going training. They report an appreciation for the process and knowledge gathered from reflection. Some have shared a belief that they engage in reflective practice more than the teachers (V. Bayles, personal communication, November 12, 2013; H. Inman, personal communication, November 5, 2013).

Research Methods

The purpose of the study is to examine the perceived influence of instructional partners (IP) on professional reflective practices in public schools in Alabama. This research study utilized a non-experimental design that examined a hypothesized relationship between participation in the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program and perceived levels of reflective practices by participants. The research was conducted with a survey instrument, The Reflective, Ethical, and Moral Assessment Survey or REMAS (Arredondo Rucinski & Bauch, 2006), to produce quantitative data. The survey was administered to school staff members employed as instructional partners/instructional coaches and principals in school districts participating in the Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program. The statistical program, SPSS, was used to perform a multiple analysis of variance (MANOVA) on the survey data.

Research Questions

1. Are there differences in the perceptions of reflective practice for instructional coaches participating in the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program as compared to the reflective practices of instructional coaches not involved with the program?

2. Are there differences in the perceptions of reflective practice for principals of schools participating in the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program as compared to the reflective practices of principals not involved with the program?

3. Does the number of years of participation in the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program affect perceptions of reflective practice for the instructional partner?

4. Does the number of years of participation in the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program affect perceptions of reflective practice for the school principal?

Hypotheses

H_1: Instructional coaches participating in the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program will demonstrate a significant relationship between involvement in the program and perceived reflective practices.

H_2: Principals of schools participating in the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program will demonstrate a significant relationship between involvement in the program and perceived reflective practices.

H_3: Instructional coaches participating in the Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program will demonstrate a significant relationship between instructional coaching and perceived reflective practices, regardless of the number of years of involvement in the program.

H_4: Principals of schools participating in the Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program will demonstrate a significant relationship between instructional coaching and perceived reflective practices, regardless of the number of years of involvement in the program.

Limitations of the Study

1. Some schools have implemented the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program for a longer period of time than other schools.

2. Some school systems declined participation in the study.

3. Some individual respondents declined participation in the study.

4. Some survey respondents may have had limited, if any, contact and working experience with the Instructional Partner.

5. Some principals and instructional coaches may no longer be employed at a school participating in the AIPP program.

Delimitations of the Study

1. The results of this study may only be generalized to educators in Alabama.

2. The study will not measure changes in reflective practices, only the perceived levels of reflective practice.

Assumptions

1. The Reflective, Ethical, and Moral Assessment Survey is a valid and reliable instrument to measure the perceived levels of reflection.

2. Survey respondents have knowledge of reflective practice.

3. Survey respondents responded accurately, truthfully, and fully to the survey questions.

4. The Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program is valid and supported by research.

Definition of Terms

Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program--A program established in 2011 by a joint collaboration of the Alabama State Department of Education (SDE) and the Alabama Best Practices Center (ABPC) to place instructional coaches in Alabama public secondary schools in an attempt to improve student performance.

Instructional Coach/Instructional Partner--Specially trained educator who provides other teachers with knowledge of research, resources, methods, and techniques (Knight 2005, 2006, & 2009).

Instructional Coaching--A job-embedded, collaborative process in which an instructional coach or partner assists teachers in improving instruction so that students expand their academic attainment (Knight 2005, 2006, & 2009).

Job-embedded Professional Development--Teacher learning that occurs during the course of daily work in which teachers examine and refine instructional practices for improved student achievement (Darling-Hammond & McLaughlin, 1995).

Monologic Reflection--Reflective process which depends solely on the inner voice of the individual (Mehlmauer-Larcher, 2012).

Reflective Practice--A participatory action which prompts one to examine personal experiences and beliefs as a means of acquiring new levels of awareness (Dewey, 1910/2012).

Weblog--Brief narrative entry presented in a conversational style on a website (*Oxford Dictionary online*, n.d.).

Organization of the Study

This research study consists of five chapters. Chapter 1 includes an introduction to the study, a statement of the problem, the purpose and significance of the study, conceptual framework, methodology, research questions, limitations and delimitations, assumptions, and definitions of key terms significant to the study. Chapter 2 includes a review of literature relevant to the following: the role and function of reflective practice, the historical development of professional development, the evolution of coaching models, and the research on the effectiveness of instructional coaching, and the organizational behavior and leadership for effective coaching. Chapter 3 includes a detailed description of the research design and methodology, the survey instrument, and data collection procedures. Chapter 4 includes a summary of the methodology used in the study, the data collected, analysis of the data, and study results. Chapter 5 includes a summary of the results, the conclusions, and implications relating to future research of professional reflective practices among instructional coaches and school principals participating in coaching models such as the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program.

Summary

Chapter 1 presented an overview of the Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program and aspects of its implementation, such as training requirements and expectations for the instructional partners. This chapter presented prevalent viewpoints for the overhaul of professional development in the United States. Educators, researchers, and community stakeholders have shared growing concerns that the future American workforce will not be able to compete in the global markets (Hazi & Arredondo Rucinski, 2014; Hunt, 2009). Research (Rock, 2002; Wood & McQuarrie, Jr., 1999) has shown that job-embedded professional development may produce beneficial effects for the teacher, administrator, and student. Increasing reflective practice through a variety of methods may result in the development of more effective instructional techniques (Bibi & Aziz, 2012; Cruickshank & Applegate, 1981; Delaney & Arredondo, 2001). According to Gassenheimer (2012, 2014), the use of instructional coaches has been recognized as a means of increasing and validating reflective practice.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter reviews the literature on which the dissertation is based: the role and function of reflective practice, the historical advancement of professional development, the development and evolution of coaching models, the prior research concerning the effectiveness of instructional coaching, and the attributes of organizational behavior and leadership in utilizing instructional coaching.

The Role and Function of Reflective Practice

Introduced in the writings of Dewey (1910/2012, 1916/1944), reflective thinking is a participatory action which prompts one to examine personal experiences and beliefs as a means of acquiring new levels of awareness. An event or situation will prompt the thinker to seek understanding and resolution to a perceived problem. Dewey identified stages of the reflective thought process, which has been equated with emulating the scientific method: determining and defining the problem, analyzing the various aspects and assessing the conditions of the problem, recommending probable outcomes, and resolving the problem. Dewey noted that the process does not necessarily have to follow a sequential pattern or allot a specific amount of time at any level. The thinker may revisit other similar experiences in an attempt to clarify the new situation.

According to Dewey (1910/2012), reflection is just one of four types of thinking. He listed the other three as imagination, belief, and stream of consciousness. Stream of consciousness is characterized as the predominant type of thinking that teachers do in the course of the work day as they review events in their minds (Rodgers, 2002). Imagination may be most closely linked to reflection as imagination permits one to revisit past experiences and formulate different solutions. Beliefs are opinions or judgments that have emanated from observations and past experiences, and they often form the basis for the development of reflective thinking (Dewey, 1910/2012, 1916/1944; Rodgers, 2002).

Dewey (1910/2012, 1916/1944) identified four attitudes that he considered essential to the reflective thinking process: single-mindedness, open-mindedness, directness, and responsibility. Whole-heartedness, also referred to as single-mindedness, is defined as having genuine and sincere feelings of passion and conviction for a specific interest such as one's chosen teaching field. Rodgers (2002) argued that a teacher's lack of whole-heartedness could result in apathy for the content, detachment from the students, and diminishment of reflective practice.

Open-mindedness permits one to be receptive to new ideas, challenges, and solutions. As Lyons (2010) submitted, open-mindedness is the ability to "listen to more sides than one" (p. 13). Directness can help a teacher eliminate presumptions of arrogance, conceit, and apprehension in one's performance. Lyons said teachers who exhibited directness showed little hesitancy in solving problems. Rodgers believed directness was a more common trait in veteran teachers than in novice teachers. Dewey considered responsibility the ability to recognize and accept the ramifications of actions and decisions.

After a thorough dissection of Dewey's various works (1910/2012, 1916/1944), Rodgers (2002) described her perspective of Dewey's beliefs about reflective thinking: reflection is a never-ending process. Although resolving problematic situations resonates throughout Dewey's stages of reflective practice, Rodgers asserted that developing new associations and exploring the significance of such situations stimulate the teacher’s advancement in inquiry. Rodgers said reflection should be a collaborative experience, rather than a solitary action, in which a shared philosophy respects the emotional, cognitive, and social development of all participants.

The work of van Manen (1977) introduced the concept of levels of reflection: technical, practical, and critical. At the technical level, learning appropriate skills and tactics and interpreting the organizational structure of the school provides the most beneficial results for the teacher. According to van Manen, rookie teachers begin at the technical action level as they are more concerned, and sometimes overwhelmed, with the rudimentary details of teaching such as daily preparation and disciplinary issues. As teachers grow more self-assured in their abilities, they move into the practical level where they deliberate and justify their actions based on their personal and professional values and beliefs. In the last level, teachers examine educational issues from a social and ethical viewpoint.

Dewey’s reflective thinking concepts were not fully actualized until the early 1980s work of researchers such as Cruickshank and Applegate (1981) and Schön (1983, 1987). Cruickshank and Applegate investigated the process of Reflective Teaching as a means of promoting “teachers to be students of teaching” (p. 553). Reflective Teaching required teachers to form a collaborative relationship with peers. Participants of the group would plan a truncated lesson in which each member would utilize the same instructional methods for teaching a fresh and interesting concept. After individually teaching the lesson, the teachers would meet again for a period of reflection. Teacher would discuss the attributes and deficits of the lesson and would reflect on how to improve teaching practice. After the implementation of Reflective Teaching in some schools and districts, Cruickshank and Applegate reported that the process supported teacher self-exploration and invigorated teacher satisfaction.

After extensive study on Dewey's theory of inquiry, Schön (1983, 1987) began research on developing effective professional practices. From this exploration, Schön introduced three new concepts: *knowing in action, reflection in action,* and *reflection on action* (Pakman, 2000; Lyons, 2010). *Knowing in action* refers to the type of knowledge acquired or developed over time. In essence, knowing in action is the daily knowledge used to perform tasks. After several years in the same school, a teacher may utilize *knowing in action* to orient a new group of students, to organize a yearly assembly program, or to conduct fire drills. *Reflection in action* transpires as the educator faces a new situation or occurrence. Typical knowledge, or *knowing in action,* does not satisfy the circumstances. For an educator, *reflection in action* occurs in the moment as a teacher instinctively tries to resolve a problem. *Reflection on action* differs in that the teacher scrutinizes the situation later as a means of reexamining the problem. As Hatton and Smith (1995) denoted, either type of reflective practice utilizes a balanced, logical, and principled thought process in the examination of methods and ideology.

The work of Schön led to the inclusion of reflective practice as an integral part of professional development and to the revitalization of school reform (Osterman, 1990). Ross (1989) wrote that the influence of Schön's work could be seen in schools and universities as reflective practice had been incorporated into pre-service teacher training and in-service professional development. The reflective practice paradigm utilized by many educators emulates Dewey's model. First, the educator acknowledges the presence of an instructional problem. The educator examines the problem to distinguish it from other comparable episodes, noting any variances. Then, the educator closely scrutinizes the problem many times. After careful consideration of possible outcomes, the educator tests several resolutions. Even though an adequate solution to the dilemma may be found, the educator finalizes the process by choosing the most appropriate answer to the problem.

Acknowledging the work of several researchers (Habermas, 1974; Schön, 1983, 1987; van Manen, 1977; Zeichner & Liston, 1985), Valli (1992, 1997) classified reflection into five categories: technical, reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action, deliberative, personalistic, and critical. Technical reflection permits teachers to assess teaching methods through the observations of administrators and trained evaluators. This type of reflection recognizes the importance of following acceptable procedures within the classroom. According to Valli, teachers employing technical reflection view the effectiveness of their job performance through the opinion of professional mentors. Appropriated from the work of Schön, reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action do not rely on the judgment of others. The teacher reflects during (reflection-in-action) and after (reflection-on-action) the class presentation and uses his or her own past situations to determine effectiveness.

Deliberative reflection occurs as a teacher incorporates shared methods, viewpoints, and appraisals from peers with personal and professional experience to formulate decisions. This type differs from personalistic reflection as the educator uses introspective awareness to explore personal beliefs to relate to students (Valli (1992, 1997). Critical reflection allows the educator to examine learning activities by considering the objectives and outcomes in relationship to the social and ethical traditions of the community without the intrusion of personal bias. With the unique goal of encouraging the educator to assess and augment the standard of living for impoverished students, this type of reflection may prove to be the most transformational and cathartic (Peterson, 2007;Valli, 1992, 1997).

Hatton and Smith (1995) were critical of Valli's (1992, 1997) work. They argued that her categories of reflection could be perceived as a structured order of progression. In the opinion of Hatton and Smith, Valli rationalized that reaching the critical reflection stage was the culmination of years of experience and expertise. Montgomery and Walker (2012) thought critical reflection was more prevalent during the early stages of a teacher's career when the teacher had not grown weary or complacent of mundane school tasks. Hatton and Smith contended that reflection-in-action was the most challenging and ambitious level to attain since it required "multiple types of reflection and perspectives to be applied during an unfolding professional situation" (p. 44). In their study, Risko, Roskos, and Vukelich (1999) found that technical reflection was the most popular type used by pre-service teachers. In contrast, Minott's research (2008), conducted after reflection became more widely used, found reflection-in-action and reflection-on-action to be the most commonly used types of reflection among pre-service teachers and critical reflection to be the least used.

Influenced by the work of Freire (1972), Smyth (1989) asserted that teachers committed to producing instructional change should progress through a platform of four steps of reflective inquiry: describe, inform, confront, and reconstruct. During the describing stage, teachers detail their actions by reviewing and clarifying specific elements of the lesson, typically as a journal entry (Emery, 1996). The informing stage may become the central focus of the reflective process as teachers seek insight from awareness gained in analyzing the description of the events. This insight leads the teachers to the confronting stage of examining "assumptions, values, and beliefs about teaching" (Smyth, 1989, p. 7). The reconstructing stage permits teachers to visualize how changes can and might be made to their instructional methods. Smyth stressed that these stages could prove beneficial for all teachers regardless of level of experience.

Arredondo Rucinski (2005) devised levels of reflective practice that practitioners reached as their cognitive faculties progressed with maturity and experience: emergent, competent, expert, and ethical and socially just. In the emergent level, the subject employs the mentor's performance evaluations to reconsider methods and to formulate new techniques. Upon entering the competent level, the educator actively seeks performance critiques from various sources and uses that frame of reference to adapt methods and techniques. During the expert level, the educator's proficiency permits an ease of acceptance of both positive and negative assessments. Consequently, the teacher meets duty obligations with little or no complaint. In the fourth level, the educator focuses on making decisions which meet a high moral and ethical standard. Importance is placed on the impact of those decisions on students, colleagues, and stakeholders, rather than on the teacher. Research conducted by Arredondo Rucinski et al. (2009) found that an additional level of pre-reflection should be included to assess the responses of pre-service and new teachers.

According to Hail et al. (2011), the movement to recognize teachers as professionals in the same light as doctors and lawyers resulted in changes in both teacher education programs and classroom practice. To enhance their social and occupational professional standing required not just intensive coursework and demonstration of subject matter, but a pattern of reflective behavior. In Dewey's viewpoint, a teacher who fails to reflect can be stymied in professional philosophy and development (Ferguson, 2012). As Farrell (2012) remarked, Dewey's concept of reflective thinking leads teachers to "make informed decisions about their teaching" (p. 10).

Wellington (1991) described reflective practice as a recurring examination of one's beliefs and accomplishments in the role of teacher. He declared reflective practice to be a revitalizing change agent for teachers rather than a grueling task; reflection should be considered a rewarding and fulfilling experience instead of another job-related responsibility. As Knight (2011) stated, denying teachers the time to reflect denies them the right to be happy in their chosen field. Bibi and Aziz (2012) maintained that reflective practice permits transformation within an organization if the staff members willingly adapt their thought processes and actions to foster change. The authors asserted that teachers who engaged in reflective practice and utilized those observations to improve skills were the most productive and successful. As such, Bibi and Aziz called reflective practice "a process of nourishing the minds of the students" (p. 9).

Lambert (2002) maintained that reflective practice promoted innovation in the classroom. Blase and Blase (2000) found that reflection empowered teachers in their lesson design and preparation and encouraged them to be more adventurous in their strategies and methods. According to Barnett (1995), engaging in reflective practice augments a person's problem-solving capabilities. Knight (2011) argued that the act of reflection separates the superior teachers from the mediocre teachers when he wrote, "Great teachers are thinking all the time" (p. 37).

Kelleher (2002) proclaimed reflective teachers to be life-long learners. He inferred that teachers who did not reflect also stopped learning and growing. Ross (1989) contended that the reflective teacher exhibits an enthusiasm for exploring new instructional approaches while also conceding that certain tactics had failed. Nolan and Huber (1989) suggested increasing reflective practice to empower teachers. As a result, teachers' confidence in their teaching abilities and in their students' academic achievement might flourish. Valli (1997) said reflective practice boosted a teacher's self-awareness of pedagogical deficiencies which, in turn, led to improved teaching practices and student performance.

After extensive consideration of the respective works of Dewey and Schon, Farrell (2012) concluded that reflective practice provides teachers with a framework for action based on an aggregate of “concrete evidence” (p. 14). Knowledge is gained not from an event, but rather from the reflective practice concerning the event (Farrell, 2006; Loughran, 2002). From Loughran’s perspective, the progressive educator does not use reflective practice solely as a means of reliving past experiences. The progressive educator uses reflective practice to steer future endeavors. Farrell (2004) acknowledged that teachers sometimes fail to recognize the disparity in their actual classroom performance and their assumptions about the effectiveness of their methods. He considered reflective practice to be the remedy to overcoming that type of faulty thought process.

Osterman (1990) argued that reflection is a necessary component of reflective practice, and that the two processes differ. Osterman described reflection as “concentration and careful consideration” (p. 134) and reflective practice as “mindful consideration of one’s [professional] actions” (p. 134). Reflection permits the acquisition of new thought for the educator while reflective practice can be a more deliberate, analytical process of behavior examination. The author wrote that reflective practice is a vital part of not only individual improvement, but also the entire school and system. In utilizing reflective practice, challenging dilemmas can be viewed as connective resources for professional growth experiences.

Valli (1997) maintained that reflective practice worked most effectively as a collective effort by a school’s staff rather than an individual activity by one or a few teachers. In situations where reflective practice was not embraced and encouraged as part of a faculty initiative, Valli argued that reflective practice could produce “detached, idiosyncratic teachers” (p. 86). According to Hatton and Smith (1995), reflective practice was encouraged and cultivated when the teacher could verbally relate with a trusted peer educator. Sharing the reflective insights with peers enabled teachers to gain a greater understanding of their experiences (Wood & McQuarrie, Jr., 1999). Farrell (2004, 2006) argued that teachers required assurance and acceptance from their collaborator before reflective practice could begin. The research of Berkey, Curtis, Minnick, Zietlow, Campbell, and Kirschner (1990) found that trust was a key element to promote reflective practice even if the collaborators had differing viewpoints on a topic.

As a means of encouraging reflective practice among staff members, the culture of a school and system should be one that embraces and cultivates open dialogue, critical feedback, and shared experiences (Minott, 2008; Osterman, 1990). Osterman wrote that such accessible environments promoted individual and organizational improvements, and teachers felt empowered to accept and implement school reform measures. According to Costa and Kallick (2000), reflective practice should be an integral part of any school as the faculty, students, parents, and community stakeholders engage in reflection via both individual and collaborative means. Including students in the reflective process can encourage them to be more observant of their academic performance and to be more receptive of school improvement innovations. Costa and Kallick contended that school faculties could not effectively initiate new methods and programs without reflective examination of past events. The authors advanced the idea that failure did not exist in reflective schools because all outcomes would be reviewed and evaluated for effectiveness, growth, and continuous improvement.

Camburn (2010) explored how teacher use of reflective practice was influenced by job embedded professional development. As the amount of time dedicated to embedded professional development activities increased, reflective practice correspondingly increased. If the professional learning focused on improving instructional methods and was conducted in a collegial atmosphere with peers and instructional experts such as coaches, then the amount of reflective practice showed greater levels of proliferation. Camburn's research found that professional development activities focusing on school wide reform initiatives did not produce similar growth in the amount of teacher reflective practice.

Although an extensive body of research (Arredondo Rucinski, 2005; Canning, 1991; Farrell, 2004; Lyons, 2010; Osterman & Kottkamp, 1993; Schön, 1983, 1987; Wagner 2006; Wellington, 1991) touts the beneficial aspects of reflective practice, Merryfield (1993) provided reasons why some educators do not utilize reflection. For some teachers, the amount of time needed for reflection was deemed excessive and demanding as they felt their time could be used in more productive ways. For others, the constant reviewing and revamping of lessons stimulated by reflective practice proved to be overwhelming. Berkey et al. (1990) argued that the school and system should find a way to allot time for effective teacher reflection. Dewey (1910/2012) maintained that beginning teachers would require more time than veteran teachers to progress through his stages of reflection. Garman (1986) claimed reflection was "misunderstood and rarely practiced" (p. 14) because of the perception that reflecting about experiences supersedes the necessity for lesson preparation. Smyth (1989) noted a discrepancy in reflective practice: there are some educators who may not see the need or want to participate in the process.

Rodgers (2002) argued that the absence of an operational definition of reflective practice and inconsistent reflective approaches minimized the effectiveness as some teachers never realized the value of the process. As Montgomery and Walker (2012) explained, many forms and methods of reflective practice exist, and a person may adapt reflective practice routines for a particular situation. Risko, Vukelich, and Roskos (2002) said the choice of reflective practice method may differ depending on the personal characteristics of the teacher and on the particular situation. Loughran (2002) made the assertion that the validity of reflective practice is reinforced when one can examine and reconcile a situation by looking at several perspectives.

According to Costa and Kallick (2000), reflection consists of two parts: an internal voice sustained by periods of introspection in which an individual listens to one's own stream of consciousness and an external voice stimulated by a participatory approach. Writing personal journal entries may nurture the development of an internal voice as the writer revisits problematic situations in words. Writing online blogs or participating in group discussions may reinforce the external voice as other viewpoints can be expressed and shared. Rodgers (2002) concurred with Costa and Kallick and found that some teachers preferred sharing thoughts in a group setting while others preferred recording viewpoints in a personal journal.

Reflective journal writing is typically comprised of four steps: recalling the events of the situation, considering why the situation occurred, determining the causes, and identifying possible plans of action for similar events (Bibi & Aziz, 2012). Bolton (2010) outlined a five-step guide for reflective journal writing. First, the individual writes non-stop for six minutes for the purposes of overcoming writer's block and for clearing one's mind of intertwining thoughts. Then, the individual writes about only one situation, regardless of perceived importance or pressing need. In the third step, the individual reads all of the passage and makes edits and addendums. Bolton suggested giving the passage to a peer for clarification and critique. In the final step, the individual takes the passage and rewrites it from a different perspective such as envisioning the resulting future outcome.

Wibel (1991) related the benefits of writing in a reflective journal as he achieved the status of principal. He found that writing in a reflection journal allowed for exploration into his management of both triumphs and predicaments. His reflective passages provided him with currents of inspiration, encouragement, and confidence. However, Bibi and Aziz's survey (2012) revealed a drawback to writing daily reflective journal entries: respondents found the process to be tedious and laborious. Stover et al. (2011) asserted that reflective writing passages do not need to be lengthy; short passages written throughout the day may prove to be as beneficial as longer journal entries written at the end of the day.

Hatton and Smith (1995) questioned the validity of using reflective journals and claimed the genuineness of using a reflective journal could be compromised if the writer knew that someone else would be reading the journal entries. (Rodgers, 2002) found that reflective portfolios are sometimes required as part of the job evaluation process, but school systems have insubstantial ways of properly assessing the reflections. Risko et al. (2002) maintained that reflective journal writing, particularly if it consisted primarily of monologic reflection, could lead to stagnation if it was the only method of reflective practice used and if a coach did not provide feedback and direction.

Casey (2011) described an alternative reflection technique that requires the teacher to participate in a modeled and videotaped lesson. Afterwards, the teacher and instructional coach view and discuss the merits of the lesson so that the teacher can reflect upon the experience from a student viewpoint. The research of Shoffner (2009) examined the use of weblogs as a reflective practice tool. Shoffner contended that the use of weblogs could change the use and purpose of writing for reflection. Although the weblogs can only be accessed via Internet connection, many are written with the intention of being shared with peers, administrators, and evaluators. Shoffner explained that weblogs, unlike traditional paper journals, consisted of a spontaneous and relaxed style of writing. Stiler and Philleo (2003) found that the scope of content covered in weblog reflective journal entries was more profound and that the lengths of entries increased. In Shoffner's study, respondents cited the convenient and easy use of weblogs as a rationale for engaging in reflective practice. The respondents reported a preference for having their electronic journals accessible to others and liked the idea of sharing their weblogs as part of a cooperative, learning experience.

According to Hart (1990), the use of reflection by a school's leadership team could prove beneficial to the school. Hart thought reflective practice permitted principals to organize and integrate many past experiences, outcomes, and courses of actions in a more efficient decision-making process. Hart contended that reflective practice enhanced the ability to discern and rationalize the actions of other administrators, and the resulting knowledge encouraged principals to adapt and modify new school improvement methods and programs. Nolan and Huber (1989) concluded that administrators increased their own reflective practice as they supported and inspired their staff members to use reflection.

Blase and Blase (1999) examined the influence of principal actions on the impact of teacher classroom performance to ascertain characteristics of effective instructional leadership. From their study findings, they (1999) formulated the Reflection-Growth (RG) model. Blase and Blase found two predominant emerging themes: "talking with teachers to promote reflection and promoting professional growth" (p. 358). Specifically, teachers appreciated when their principal offered reassuring instructional suggestions as opposed to antagonistic criticisms. Praise, feedback, and modeling promoted confidence and enthusiasm. The researchers found that teachers increased reflective practice when the principal came to them for expert knowledge.

Professional growth was found to enhance the teachers' emotional and cognitive well-being. Blase and Blase (1999) identified six factors as promoting professional growth:

> emphasizing the study of teaching and learning; supporting collaboration efforts among educators; developing coaching relationships among educators, encouraging and supporting redesign of programs; applying the principles of adult learning, growth, and development to all phases of staff development; and implementing action research to inform instructional decision making. (p. 363)

According to the authors, principals who engaged in the activities identified by the teachers as effective would correspondingly positively impact the amount and level of reflection among staff members. The authors cautioned that the study did not provide any implications as to student achievement based on the RG model.

In a study conducted by O’Doherty and Ovando (2013), first-year school principals emphasized the importance of reflective practice as a method of self-assessment of their actions, beliefs, and abilities. Reflective practice gave the principals the opportunity to evaluate personal job performance for adjustments in style, communication, and expectations and to make better preparations for their second year as an instructional leader. Given the study findings, O’Doherty and Ovando made the following proposition about the legitimacy of reflective practice:

> Reflecting on the meaning of instructional leadership is essential to enact it. Guided reflection equips novice principals with the space to analyze instructional leadership practices that have proven to be effective or merit modification give the specific school contexts in which they perform. (p. 556)

Arredondo Rucinski and Bauch (2006) associated reflective practice with moral and ethical behavior. According to Arredondo Rucinski and Bauch, possessing a strong self-awareness of personal moral values is essential prior to leading a school transformation. They argued that the school leader should be the embodiment of social mores and should use those standards to guide the decision-making process. To increase effective leadership practices, Schwan and Spady (1998) advocated that administrators cultivate a core set of morals and values that would span across all factions of the school environment and culture.

Some researchers (Arredondo Rucinski & Bauch, 2006; Goldring & Greenfield, 2002; Hughes & Jones, 2011) have examined how the reflective, moral, and ethical practices of school administrators could impact students. Arredondo Rucinski and Bauch contended that disparities in student achievement among the different economic classes would persist unless school leaders committed themselves to incorporating reflection, as well as ethical and moral behavior, into their work. Goldring and Greenfield emphasized the necessity for instructional leaders to cultivate strong moral values to counteract bad behaviors. They rationalized this need due to the age and maturity of school children who are forced into attending a particular school because of mandatory attendance laws. Hughes and Jones conducted a study which found that ethics training for elementary school principals resulted in achievement gains for students in third through fifth grades.

Schwan and Spady (1998) declared reflection to be an essential moral value component of authentic leadership. They defined reflection as promoting “thoughtful, sensitive, logical, and empathetic orientation to people, issues, and situations” (p. 50). Bolton (2010) equated ethics with actions as she wrote, “We are what we do, rather than what we say we are” (p. 4). According to Bolton, reflective practice can promote a change in personal and professional philosophies and values. Bolton claimed the act of forgiveness could be impacted by engaging in reflective practice. Bolton wrote that reflection permitted one to view incidents or individuals through different perspectives and thus enhanced one’s ability to forgive transgressions.

Historical Advancement of Professional Development

Historically, staff development and school improvement methods emanated from the introduction of supervision. Informal school supervision appeared in Colonial America during the turn of the 18th century in the form of school inspection as ministers, town councilmen, and other schoolmasters scrutinized the upkeep of the school building as well as the instruction (Glanz, 1995; Sullivan & Glanz, 2013). As the Industrial Revolution brought thousands of people into the urban areas of America, supervisors were hired and placed in the rapidly growing and diversifying urban schools. Scientific management, which had been instituted in many factories as a means of quality control, began to be used by supervisors when assessing teaching effectiveness (Fine, 1997). Cubberly (1916) championed the use of scientific management as a system for providing measurable consistency in instruction. Many educators viewed scientific management as a sound process for improving the curriculum standards needed for the new workforce at the end of World War I (Glanz, 1995).

In scientific management, some states and districts based teacher salaries on an evaluation system that scored teachers on a variety of personal and professional characteristics including grooming habits, deportment, morals, classroom management, instructional techniques, and perceived intellectual capabilities (Fine, 1997). Research by Hughes (1926) found resentment among urban teachers towards supervisors as the teachers complained about the increasing numbers of supervisors, the lack of support from the supervisors, and the large salaries of the supervisors. Some teachers reported never being informed of the findings of their own performance evaluations. During this time, interest in the writings of Dewey (1916/1944, 1910/2012) grew as educators sought collaboration and cooperation rather than inspection and intimidation (Glanz, 1995; Snow-Gerono, 2008). As supervisors sought visible, positive changes for the schools and for themselves, a new era of school supervision manifested by the desire for professionalism and progressivism surfaced (Glanz, 1995).

Democratic supervision, in which the principal and teachers operated as a team, gained momentum in the schools (Boardman, 1939; Sullivan & Glanz, 2013). During the Great Depression, supervision became the responsibility of the principal at the high school level. More school activities focused on student participation as teachers took a larger role as coaches and sponsors of extracurricular groups. Democracy and citizenship instruction were added to the curriculum. The post-World War II era returned the concept of quality control overseen by Central Office supervisors whose classroom visits filled teachers with a sense of apprehension (McKibben & Sprague, 1997). To stay relevant, supervisors became interested in the actual teaching aspect of education, and the distinction between supervision and curriculum development steadily dissipated. For two decades, supervision would focus on curriculum and leadership (Glanz, 1995; Sullivan & Glanz, 2013).

During the 1950s, Cogan, Goldhammer, and Anderson researched strategies to improve the supervision of their students at Harvard University (Reavis, 1978). The early 1970s proved to be a transformational era for supervision as the respective works of Goldhammer (1969) and Cogan (1973) introduced clinical supervision. According to Garman (1986), the primary intent of clinical supervision was to provide a supervisory process that could help novice teachers learn how to teach. Clinical supervision, as proposed by Goldhammer and Cogan, consisted of five parts: pre-observation conference, observation, data analysis of the observation, conference, and post-conference analysis. During the post-observation conference, the teacher would engage in reflective practice dialogue with the supervisor. According to Cook (1996), "clinical supervision is a form of inquiry designed to encourage reflection and analysis of supervisory methods and to develop and test hypotheses about what is effective and why." Nolan and Huber (1989) declared that reflective practice was one of the most important aspects to emanate from clinical supervision.

Certain school leaders found clinical supervision difficult to implement as the process was disliked by some teachers and administrators (Marzano, Frontier, & Livingston, 2011). Some educators regarded the clinical supervision model as democratic in that it allowed for respectful conversation between the supervisor and teacher, while others found it to be a time-consuming burden on an already overtaxed administrator (Krajewski & Anderson, 1980). Reavis (1978) analyzed several clinical supervision studies and concluded that clinical supervision supported positive modifications in teacher behaviors more effectively than traditional supervision. According to Reavis, teachers preferred clinical supervision as compared to traditional supervision.

Hazi and Arredondo Rucinski (2009) considered the use of clinical supervision models as a pivotal factor in changing how educators regarded the supervision process. As the authors explained, supervision became viewed as a "helping function" rather than an "evaluative function" (p.4). Hazi and Arredondo Rucinski stated that clinical supervision became accepted by teachers and their professional organizations due to the pre-conference and goal-setting aspects. With the pre-conference stage as a required element of clinical supervision, unannounced surprise observations were often eliminated.

Krajewski and Anderson (1980) reported that Goldhammer lamented choosing the name *clinical supervision* since it prompted an impression of incongruity among both teachers and supervisors. The word *clinical* produced reactions that the supervisor would be distant, detached, and disinterested during the classroom observations and when evaluating the teacher performance. According to Garman (1986), Cogan had chosen the name *clinical supervision* because of the similarities he found in the education and medical professions and because of the corresponding elements of clinical supervision and the scientific method. Thus, the term *clinical supervision* led to conflicting implications or was often misinterpreted in practice (Krajewski & Anderson, 1980).

Research by Glickman (1980) and Glatthorn (1984), as well as others, resulted in a derivative of clinical supervision known as developmental/reflective supervision. According to Glickman, there are three models of supervision: nondirective, collaborative, and directive. Teachers are categorized according to their professional growth as an educator: stage I, stage II, stage III. A stage I teacher would be a novice teacher who needs more direction in teaching and classroom management. Thus, a stage I teacher would require directive supervision that would include modeling of various instructional techniques. For a stage II teacher, improving instruction for all students would be the focus of collaborative supervision as the teacher and supervisor collaborate to find new strategies and to implement new ideas. The stage III teacher would take on the mentor persona for both teachers and fellow teachers. This stage would require nondirective supervision, a level consisting of reassurance and reinforcement.

Glatthorn's model (1984) of differentiated supervision presented teachers with four different types of supervision: "clinical supervision, cooperative professional development, self-directed development, and administrative monitoring" (p.11). Clinical supervision followed the pattern as established by Goldhammer (1969) and Cogan (1973). Cooperative professional development allowed for small groups of experienced, veteran teachers to observe each other's teaching methods and to collaborate on feedback and instructional techniques. For the more experienced teachers who value solitary reading and research, self-directed development would permit the teacher to develop an individualized professional growth plan and to seek guidance from the administrator. Administrative monitoring could be utilized with teachers at all levels as the administrator performs brief walk-throughs to ascertain what is happening in the individual classrooms.

Evolution of Coaching Models

During the early 1980s, educators expressed frustration with traditional professional development and supervision methods (Marzano et al., 2011). During this phase of education, many principals performed evaluations by scripting the teacher's performance followed by a short discussion detailing the strengths and weaknesses of the lesson.

Joyce and Showers (1980) are often credited as among the first researchers to develop a coaching model to address issues concerning supervision and professional development. Over the next three decades, several coaching models were introduced and implemented in schools: peer coaching, technical coaching, collegial coaching, cognitive coaching, content coaching, literacy coaching, and instructional coaching.

During a two-year period, Joyce and Showers (1980) reviewed over 200 studies as they looked for ways to transform in-service training into meaningful practice. From their examination, they identified five key elements of training: presentation of theory, modeling of teaching skills, practice in the classroom, structured feedback, and coaching for application (p. 380). Joyce and Showers wrote that no study utilized all five training elements. Of the five elements, they rationalized that modeling, simulated practice, and practice with feedback were the three most effective methods, and they proposed using a combination of any or all of the five. They reasoned that teachers wanted and needed something more extensive than one-day workshops; teachers needed the opportunity to practice and refine the techniques they had acquired. They chose the name "peer coaching" for two reasons: they did not want a name that evoked rigid supervision and they rationalized that teachers would benefit from training with a colleague (Brandt, 1987; Delany & Arredondo, 2001; Denton & Hasbrouck, 2009; Joyce & Showers, 1980; Showers & Joyce, 1986).

Typically in peer coaching, a proficient teacher is paired with a less experienced teacher. The pair participates in modeling and practicing skills during a lesson. After the peer completes this cycle, they work with a separate facilitating coach who leads the entire staff in collaboration and demonstration (Showers, 1984). Although constructive criticism was a vital component of the early peer coaching model, the researchers discovered that the feedback soon grew into more traditional evaluation, and thus they omitted that aspect. As peer coaching advanced over the course of the next decade, the model substantiated Joyce and Showers' initial study: peer coaching increases the use and frequency of new teaching skills (Brandt, 1987; Joyce & Showers, 1980, 1982; Showers & Joyce, 1986). According to Sullivan and Glanz (2000), peer coaching could "become the heart of professional development" (p. 221) and could be a new replacement for traditional supervisory methods.

The research by Joyce and Showers (1980, 1982) and others led to the emergence of technical and collegial coaching. In technical coaching, the principal role of the coach is to work with the teacher in transferring the essential techniques learned in a previous workshop or professional development setting to the classroom. This process reaches optimal effectiveness if both coach and teacher have attended the training together and if the coach assumes the role of technical specialist. However, two weaknesses are detected in the model: a requirement of many practice hours for skill attainment and a teacher evaluation mindset by the coach. To counteract the professional animosity instigated by technical coaching, collegial coaching expounds the philosophy of peer coaching as teachers work in pairs to observe, analyze, and exchange ideas for skill refinement. Thus, educators have found collegial coaching to be more conducive to promoting positive peer interaction (Denton & Hasbrouck, 2009; Garmston, 1987; Poglinco, Bach, Hovde, Roseblum, Saunders, & Supovitz, 2003).

In 1984, Costa and Garmston (1994) presented a coaching model, cognitive coaching, which was patterned after the clinical supervision methods of Goldhammer, Cogan, and Anderson. Cognitive coaching, like clinical supervision, consisted of a pre-conference, teaching observation, and post-conference. Differences occur in the implementation process as the goal changes from providing evaluative feedback to increasing teacher self-awareness and self-modification via thinking and reflection. During the post-conference, the coach assumes a relaxed, facilitative role comparable to that of a therapeutic counselor. The teacher recalls the positive and negative elements of the lesson and engages in reflective thinking, a defining factor of cognitive coaching, to formulate changes in practice (Costa & Garmston, 1994; Costa & Garmston, n.d.; Denton & Hasbrouck, 2009; Ellison & Hayes, 2009; Raney & Robbins, 1989).

As the 1990s approached, the content coaching model evolved in the New York City schools and in other places (West, 2009). Content coaching is committed to improving instruction by focusing primarily on a specific subject area. Lesson plans concentrate on curriculum knowledge and the specialized teaching skills and tools that accompany that content. Content coaches possess a comprehensive breadth of content knowledge and teaching expertise. Similar to other coaching models, content coaching follows the pattern of pre-conference, classroom participation, and post-conference. Together, the coach and teacher prepare lesson plans, discuss methods and practice techniques, but the coach provides little assessment of the teacher’s performance. The coach and teacher utilize reflective practice to analyze comprehension and achievement. Content coaches are typically assigned to the specialized areas of reading and mathematics with science coaches hired infrequently in some districts.

Policy makers provided the stimulus for the hiring of literacy coaches with two key pieces of legislation: The Reading Excellence Act (REA) of 1998 and the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) of 2001, a reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965 (Brinkley & Weaver, 2005). The REA specified funds for improving the teaching of reading in disadvantaged schools by providing monies for extending professional development in that area. Consequently, schools chose to hire reading or literacy coaches to work with both the students and the teachers. The Reading First Initiative (RF), one of the embedded mandates of NCLB, similarly included funding and stipulations for the hiring of reading or literacy coaches (Coburn & Woulfin, 2012; Denton & Hasbrouck, 2009; Dole, Liang, Watkins, & Wiggins, 2006; Toll, 2005). Additional funding for professional development had been earmarked by Title I and Title II for underperforming schools (Hirsh, 2009). In less than a decade, thousands of reading coaches were placed in elementary schools across the country, and instructional coaches were being hired and placed at all levels of K-12 education.

Instructional coaching emanated from the perceived need for a better professional development design (Knight, 2009, 2007, 2011). Experience as a researcher and workshop presenter led Knight to investigate the perceived failure of most professional development. He noted that teachers had become increasingly disillusioned with traditional one-day professional development and rarely implemented any new strategies learned in such designs. Knight argued that two reasons existed for the teachers' lack of interest and concern. First, the sheer number and scope of instructional improvement programs placed a strain on teachers' limited time. As a result, teachers felt overburdened and became resistant to changing a program that would just be altered again after the next workshop or in-service day. Secondly, Knight suggested that many professional development exercises were ill-conceived in their construction, and thus teachers questioned the validity of the learned skills.

As Knight (2009) wrote, his own experiences as a classroom teacher influenced his research in the area of instructional coaching. In the early stages of his career, he was introduced to the Strategic Instruction Model (SIM) in which effective teaching is promoted by "teaching a little less content but teaching it better" (University of Kansas Center for Research on Learning, p. 1). SIM emphasizes that teachers modify their teaching strategies to meet the needs of the individual learner. Knight's use and success with using SIM prompted him to organize and lead workshops that taught other teachers about the instructional model.

According to Cornett and Knight (2008), Knight's model was developed after years of research that focused on the following factors: a theoretical framework for the model, teacher surveys and interviews, an examination of the execution of the model, and the model development over a period of seven years. The theoretical framework is based on seven principles that incorporate research from across the disciplines of adult education, cultural anthropology, leadership, organizational theory, and epistemology (Knight, 2009). Taking concepts from authors as diverse as Freire (1970), Eisler (1988), Fullan (1993), and Senge (1990), as well as others, Knight identified the following principles to describe the partnership between a teacher and instructional coach: "equality, choice, voice, dialogue, reflection, praxis, and reciprocity" (Cornett & Knight, p. 206).

According to Knight (2005, 2006, 2009), instructional coaching is a job-embedded, collaborative process designed to help teachers improve instruction so that students expand their academic attainment. The coach and teacher form a reciprocal partnership in which decisions concerning instructional philosophy and practice are shared equally. A properly implemented instructional coaching program encourages teacher expression as the coach often assumes the role of listener. Such reflective dialogue stimulates the process as all participants plan, instruct, and reflect on improved practices in a cyclical, but not repetitive, course of action.

Knight (2009) developed an instructional coaching four-step procedural outline that illustrates the required work of an IC. Unlike other coaching models, instructional coaching focuses on effective classroom management. According to Knight, instructional improvement cannot begin or succeed in a disorderly, chaotic classroom environment. After the establishment of a structured and manageable classroom routine, the coach examines the teacher's breadth of content knowledge, planning capabilities, and awareness of required curriculum objectives. Once the teacher has a concrete grasp of the course material, the teacher and coach can focus on improving techniques and strategies. In the fourth step, the coach and teacher appraise student attainment of course content through the use of formative assessment.

Research on the Effectiveness of Instructional Coaching

Much of the coaching research has focused on student achievement or teacher performance. After the state of Wyoming instituted an Instructional Facilitator Program in 2006, Rush and Young (2011) conducted a survey to determine the impact of the program on teacher practices. The survey included questions about twelve standard instructional coaching activities such as classroom support, modeling, feedback, and use of test data. Eight-three percent of the teacher respondents stated that they collaborated at least one time with an Instructional Facilitator. Based on the survey responses, Rush and Young concluded that the use of Instructional Facilitators was valuable to Wyoming teachers at any grade level, with elementary teachers being the most receptive to the continued presence of the facilitators. Furthermore, an analysis of the survey responses indicated that all twelve coaching activities yielded beneficial results for both teachers and students. Elementary teachers advocated the use of facilitators for modeling strategies, while secondary teachers welcomed the facilitators' assistance in employing technology into the lessons and in providing new strategy suggestions.

Guiney (2001) described the impact of employing instructional coaches in the Boston Public Schools. School officials initiated the use of instructional coaches as part of professional development restructuring. Substantial increases in standardized test scores, particularly at schools that had employed instructional coaches for the greatest amount of time, were attributed to the introduction of new classroom techniques via the teacher/coach collaboration. Teachers reported that the work with the coaches increased both feedback and awareness as to what worked and what failed in the classroom. Some administrators noted changes in school culture as teachers actively sought the professional expertise of fellow staff members.

Makibbin and Sprague (1997) examined the use of instructional coaches in the Department of Defense Dependents Schools (DoDDS). With 212 schools in 19 countries and more than 10,000 employees, the DoDDS wanted to ensure that their teachers received quality staff development. Instructional coaches were placed in four volunteer schools in the Mediterranean. After one year, teachers, principals, and instructional coaches responded favorably to the new pilot program. Interestingly, principals described the new instructional situation more positively than either the teachers or instructional coaches. According to Makibbin and Sprague, the addition of the coach aided the principal by coordinating curricula and instruction without overstepping the boundary between coach and administrator. The authors noted that the selection of someone seen as a co-worker rather than another evaluator reduced the level of anxiety and resistance of the teachers.

Research conducted by Kohler, Crilley, Shearer, and Good (1997) has shown that the use of a peer coaching model may influence the instructional practice of teachers. In their study, four elementary teachers volunteered to work with a retired teacher who would serve as the peer coach. Three of the teachers had 19 or more years of classroom experience while the fourth had completed only one year of teaching. The researchers noted that all four teachers polished and enhanced various aspects of their teaching technique after working with the coach. One of the observed changes involved the peer coach's suggestion of giving student rewards, a practice which was continued intermittently after the completion of the study. As a result of these changes, students' active engagement and response increased significantly. The researchers reported that the teachers were more likely to make and maintain modifications to their methods while working with the peer coach as compared to working independently. The researchers remarked that the use of only one peer coach may have influenced the results due to that coach's particular expertise and repertoire of methods.

Research conducted by Poglinco et al. (2003) found that teachers responded to coaching more enthusiastically when given individual attention. Resistance to coaching decreased when teachers perceived themselves as respected and appreciated collaborators. As teachers felt important, their interest in working with a coach increased. To that extent, coaches who listened to teacher concerns, complaints, and ideas experienced warmer receptions within the school. Principals and teachers agreed that instructional coaching lost validity and effectiveness if the coach failed to secure the confidence and support of the staff.

Hill and Rapp (2012) related the results of their research for employing instructional coaches to serve primarily as data coaches. Data coaches performed many of the same tasks as instructional coaches, but the distinguishing aspect occurred in the focus on data analysis. Data coaches assumed responsibility for using data disaggregation to find better instructional strategies. Because the data coaches performed this task and imparted the information with the staff, teachers felt they had more time to investigate new methods and to engage in reflective practice. Administrators, teachers, and data coaches attributed the increase in student achievement to changes in methods which were developed from the reflective collaboration between the coaches and teachers.

The use of peer coaching has not been limited to the K-12 level. Skinner and Welch (1996) implemented a voluntary coaching program at the College of Charleston with the intent of promoting better teaching techniques in the college environment. As the authors remarked, most college professors are rarely observed in the classroom by anyone other than the actual students. The program followed the typical coaching formula of employing observations and feedback. Skinner and Welch reported other findings from research studies conducted in elementary and secondary schools. Skinner and Welch stated that non-evaluative instructional improvement should be the primary intent of coaching. To accomplish this, they suggested several guidelines: all participants receive proper training and appropriate tangible rewards for their voluntary involvement, coaching should be a shared collegial experience, and an environment emphasizing quality teaching should be promoted. Moreover, Skinner and Welch advised that coaches remain primarily within their own departments, because of familiarity with the courses and subject matter.

Organizational Behavior and Leadership for Effective Coaching Programs

According to the Annenberg Institute for School Reform (2004), a well-structured and well-executed instructional coaching program requires organizational support that begins at the system level with central office direction and validation of the program. Given the challenges and questions that may arise to test its viability and sustainability, a coaching program should be viewed as a system-wide initiative rather than as a classroom or school improvement plan. Support begins with the superintendent and flows to all other positions in the organizational chart. The Annenburg study suggested that a comprehensive system blueprint might encourage greater acceptance and depth of implementation.

According to Annenburg (2004), system educators, regardless of title or prestige, engaged in active coaching participation can encourage the development of an authentic collaborative partnership. Since many central office administrators and supervisors have often been away from the classroom for several years, training allows them to better comprehend the demands of contemporary teaching practices. System coaches can benefit from following a cohesive approach, rather than implementing unique applications with no supportive evidence or rationale. According to Annenburg, grade-level content learning targets and objectives may correspond better at each district school. Assessments may necessitate a uniform approach for both the administration and classification of measurements. Marsh, McCombs, and Martorell (2010) suggested that superintendents and central office personnel directors work with principals to hire effective coaches capable of securing faculty trust.

The Annenberg Institute (2004) emphasized the need for employing accomplished instructional coaches. Joyce and Showers (1982) argued that selecting the most appropriate person for the role of instructional coach may prove to be the most challenging aspect of building an effective program. The researchers admitted their own uncertainty as to the best coaching candidates and rationalized that teachers themselves should be chosen. The authors posited that teachers, rather than supervisors or college professors, were the most suited given their familiarity with other teachers and their organizational placement in the school. They explained that familiarity with the school setting reinforces the coach's reception among teachers and staff. For example, coaches in rural school systems are often confronted with challenges atypical of suburban and urban schools: limited financial resources, more community interference, and different curricula needs (Farmer, 2009; Hartman, 2013).

Knight (2011) has suggested that several personality traits are essential requirements for someone stepping into the instructional coaching role. He wrote that a coach with a cheerful, upbeat, and enthusiastic disposition will be accepted with higher regard than one who is a pessimistic and cynical critic. According to Makibbin and Sprague (1997), a reputation as an outstanding teacher and classroom manager may pave the way for the coach's acceptance. Conversely, classroom teachers perceived as weak instructors and disciplinarians can experience difficulty in gaining the necessary approval of peers. Coburn and Russell (2008) contended that administrators should place coaches based on a school's particular curriculum needs and the coach's particular expertise.

Poglinco et al. (2003) conducted research with principals and coaches and reported other viewpoints concerning instructional coach selections. Using the rationalization that some teachers work better with children than adults, principals maintained that the most skilled classroom teacher is not always a successful instructional coach. Leading adults in data-driven meetings requires a different skill set and demeanor than when working with students. Principals were similarly cautious about hiring a coach from within the school's faculty. A person who is well-respected and renowned for teaching and classroom management skills among the staff members may have no expertise in school improvement policies and regulations. Coaches confirmed these concerns; some acknowledged that they were better suited for working with children. Others found that academic roles outside of the classroom bolstered their coaching abilities.

Moran (2007) noted that exceptional communication skills are an essential job quality of any instructional coach. The ability to speak with teachers was much preferred to an inclination of dictating procedures to teachers (Neufeld & Roper, 2003). Active listening, in which the listener conscientiously pays close attention to the speaker and the conversation, was crucial to the development of trust (Marzano & Simms, 2013). Several authors identified building trust and fostering mutual respect as being essential in supportive collaboration among the coach, teachers, and administration (Hartman, 2013; Kaplan & Owings, 1999; Knight, 2011; Makibbin & Sprague, 1997). Regardless of intent, taking on the persona and role of an administrator may damage any established trust among teachers and coach. The mere perception that an instructional coach has assumed the role of administrator may irrevocably harm the peer-to-peer relationship (Hall & Simeral, 2008; Poglinco et. al, 2003).

Rogers (1987) contended that an instructional coach was the first person to require coaching due to the number of preparatory hours needed to adequately prepare the coach for working with other faculty members. Insufficiently trained coaches can unwittingly promote unfavorable teaching outcomes (Knight, 2009). The coach must remain mindful of the principal priority of the role: reform and revise teaching practices to maximize student performance (Hartmann, 2013). As Rush and Young (2011) noted, shifts in teaching strategies and viewpoints impact student performance. A muddled job description and duties list can result in a loss of performance effectiveness and acceptance by the school staff (Poglinco et al., 2003).

Fullan and Knight (2011) argued that a principal must sufficiently function as the school’s chief instructional leader for the work of the instructional coach to be recognized and valued. The principal who yields the responsibilities of instructional leadership to the coach sends a message to stakeholders: school improvement is not a priority. However, the principal who fails to share the status of instructional leader with the instructional coach can ultimately undermine the work of the coach. Killion (2009) maintained that instructional coaches were more effective when they have been recognized as a "co-instructional leader" (p. 17). Guiney (2001) argued that instructional coaches lose effectiveness when teachers regard them as another supervisor. Guiney proposed that an instructional leader gains the most following from teachers with lower confidence about their own leadership abilities. Hence, a shared approached to leadership reaffirms the effectiveness of the instructional coach.

Sharing the role of instructional leader signifies that the principal trusts the pedagogic judgment of the coach. Hall and Simeral (2008) advised that the instructional coach not engage in administrative duties such as providing directives on instruction or performing formative and summative job evaluations. Hartman (2013) maintained that the addition of an instructional coach to a school may prove disconcerting as the coach can be perceived as a meddling expert. This perception can be enhanced if the coach is younger or deemed less experienced than the majority of faculty members. According to research conducted by Poglinco et al. (2003), some coaches reported their greatest difficulty was in providing adequate, constructive feedback that would not be construed as harsh or judgmental. In many instances, teachers interpreted the feedback as demanding directives. Some coaches thought this aspect of coaching collided with the role of the administrator and diminished the peer-to-peer teamwork approach.

Some educators have equated the applications and intentions of instructional coaching as simply an extension of mentoring programs. The collaborative connections developed in the course of coaching can mimic the type of collegial relationship characteristic of professional mentoring (Barnett, 1995; McKenna & Walpole, 2008). Many states now require the use of mentors in the training of probationary teachers, and these novice teachers often look to the instructional coach as a professional mentor (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009). For these new teachers, the instructional coach can be their most consistent lifeline and advocate by providing knowledge on classroom management techniques, curriculum guide interpretation, data analysis, and school culture and climate. Conceivably, the novice teacher may eventually spend more time with the instructional coach than any other staff member (Killion, 2009).

The research of Poglinco et al. (2003) discovered that principals valued the mentoring role of coaches. Principals equated coaching practices as an extension of pre-service internship guidance, particularly for those teachers who had been hired with merely an emergency certificate. Many people with that type of certification have never worked in a classroom setting in any capacity. Therefore, they will require on-the-job training to learn the various attributes involved in being a classroom teacher. In that study, coaches revealed that they enjoyed this aspect of their job. Whereas veteran teachers were hesitant or discontent with working with a coach, novice teachers were comfortable and appreciative in accepting such direction.

Reeves (2007) advised that benchmarks of success should be determined by the needs of the school and system rather than the guidelines of a coaching model. First-year instructional coaches debated this viewpoint among themselves and their colleagues and acknowledged that validating coaching success based primarily on student achievement test scores would not tell the whole story (H. Inman, personal communication, November 7, 2013; C. J. Tate, personal communication, November 17, 2013). According to Peterson, Taylor, Burnham, and Schock (2009), the primary objective for a coach should be transforming a teacher’s instructional perspective by incorporating reflective practice. In their study, the authors noted that engaging in reflective practice resulted in sharpened and refined teaching skills such as providing more clarity in directions to the students. For the coaches, engaging in reflective practice with other coaches fortified their own ability to assist the teachers in using reflection to augment their teaching skills. Stover et al. (2011) described literacy coaching as “embedded professional development focused on reflection” (p.500).

Summary

Chapter 2 has presented a literature review of relevant and scholarly source material. A historical background has traced the development of school improvement methods from the various forms of supervision to the evolution of coaching models. Researchers such as Joyce and Showers, Costa and Garmston, Arredondo Rucinski, and Knight have produced sustainable and effective models that have been adopted in all levels and classifications of education. Examples of research concerning models and coaching programs have provided insight into the effectiveness of the distinctive approaches within different educational settings. The literature examined the relationship of organizational behavior, expectations, and leadership with respect to implementing an instructional coaching program in an individual school or an entire school system. The literature analyzed the methods of strengthening the professional relationship among instructional coaches, teachers, and administrators to encourage acceptance of coaching approaches within the school culture.

The literature showed that effective instructional coaches promote reflective practice to enhance instructional methods and school improvement. The work of scholars such as Dewey and Schön in the development of reflective practice was reviewed, and the subsequent reflective practice paradigms were analyzed and evaluated. Varying arguments concerning the significance of reflective practice on instructional effectiveness and student achievement were synthesized.

The impact of reflective practice on the ethical and moral practices of administrators was examined.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine the impact of the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program (AIPP) upon the perceived levels of reflective practices of the instructional coaches and the school principals participating in the program. Recent research by Scott (2015) has examined the impact of the work of instructional coaches on the perceived reflective practices of classroom teachers. Insight may be gained about the extent and consistency of use of reflective practices of instructional coaches and school principals and may expand and broaden the prior research. This chapter describes the purpose of the study, the research questions, the research design, the survey instrument, and the population and sample.

Problems and Purposes Overview

The Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program was established for the purpose of adapting K-3 reading coaches into instructional partners (IPs) for collaboration in elementary, middle, and secondary schools. According to SEDL (2012), the program has been credited for increasing student engagement while decreasing the number of student disciplinary referrals. For system leaders, IPs can provide cost-efficient, onsite professional development for staff members (Hill & Rapp, 2012; Knight, 2007). According to Knight (2011) and MacDonald (2013), the program may produce exceptional results when the instructional partner and the teacher form a relationship of cooperation, motivation, empowerment, and reflection.

Although Dewey (1910/2012) introduced the concept of reflection over a century ago, reflective practice as a means of professional development was not introduced until the 1980s with the work of Schön (1983, 1987). Ross (1989) and Osterman (1990) considered Schön's work as the catalyst for the inclusion of reflective practice into K-12 and university teacher training during the latter part of the 20th century. Many researchers (Arredondo Rucinski & Bauch, 2006; Arikan, 2006; Canning, 1991; Osterman & Kottkamp, 1993; Wibel, 1991; Wildman & Niles, 1987b) have promoted the insightful use of reflective practice for all educators. Hart (1990) advocated the use of reflective practice by principals as a means formulating a more efficient decision-making process. Hart wrote that reflective practice encouraged principals to adapt and modify new school improvement methods and programs. Likewise, Ponticell and Zepeda (2004) thought that teachers would enhance their own decision-making abilities through the encouragement of reflective practice.

According to Gassenheimer (2014), instructional partners are required to engage in reflective practice via weekly weblogs and are advised to encourage reflective practice among the teachers and administrators. Some instructional partners have reported that they engage in reflective practice more than the other staff members. The findings of Blase and Blase (2000) suggested that the use of modeling, praise, and collaboration supports and emphasizes reflection. Consequently, they advocated the need for an expansion of coaching as well as more reflective communication. Recent research has examined the impact of participation in the Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program upon reflective practices of teachers (Scott, 2015). Prior to this study, there was little research available that substantiated the impact of the program upon the reflective practices of the instructional coaches and the school principals. The intent of this study was to gain insight into the perceived use of reflective practices among instructional coaches and school principals and to expand and broaden the prior research.

Research Questions

1. Are there differences in the perceptions of reflective practice for instructional coaches participating in the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program as compared to the reflective practices of instructional coaches not involved with the program?

2. Are there differences in the perceptions of reflective practice for principals of schools participating in the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program as compared to the reflective practices of principals not involved with the program?

3. Does the number of years of participation in the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program affect perceptions of reflective practice for the instructional partner?

4. Does the number of years of participation in the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program affect perceptions of reflective practice for the school principal?

Research Design

This research study utilized a non-experimental design that examined a hypothesized relationship between participation in the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program and perceived levels of reflective practices by participants. According to Privitera (2014), a non-experimental design permits the researcher to study and examine actions and outcomes with no involvement or interference. In a single phase, the research was conducted with a survey instrument, The Reflective, Ethical, and Moral Assessment Survey or REMAS (Arredondo Rucinski & Bauch, 2006), which produced quantitative data. Quantitative methods produce numerical data for statistical analysis (Martin & Bridgmon, 2012). The REMAS is a 34-item survey instrument which uses a Likert-type scale. Arredondo Rucinski and Bauch designed the

REMAS to measure perceptions of reflective, ethical, and moral dispositions in professional practice.

The REMAS (Arredondo Rucinski & Bauch, 2006) was used to survey school staff members employed as instructional coaches and principals. The unit of analysis was the instructional coaches and school principals. Data collected was analyzed to determine levels of perceptions of reflective practices which may result from participation in the AIPP program as compared to those who do not participate in the program. Demographic information gathered at the time of the survey administration consisted of job title and the number of years participating in the AIPP program. At no time was any identifiable name of individual or school requested or placed on a survey instrument.

Survey Instrument

Quantitative data for this study were collected via the use of one instrument. The Reflective, Ethical, and Moral Assessment Survey (REMAS) (Arredondo Rucinski & Bauch, 2006) was used to determine how participants perceived their use of reflective , ethical, and moral dispositions as a result of their participation in the AIPP program. The REMAS is a 34-item survey instrument which uses a Likert-type scale. This type of data-gathering scale permits the respondents to rate or classify their preferences to the survey questions (Vogt, 1999). According to Privitera (2014), a Likert-type scale survey may prove expedient in the simplicity of use in performing statistical analysis. He observed that the limiting constraint of response choices was the prevalent disadvantage to using such an instrument.

For the REMAS, participant responses range from 1 = *not at all* to 6 = *often*. The REMAS measures four areas of reflective practice: (1) ethical/moral dimensions (ETHMORDM) consisting of thirteen items; (2) reflective dimensions (REFLDMS) consisting of ten items; (3)

defensive behaviors (DEFENBEH) consisting of five items; and (4) ethical priorities (ETHPRIOR) consisting of six items. Due to the wording of the questions, the DEFENBEH items were reversed scored with a response of 6 being scored as a 1.

In this study, the REMAS was used to survey school principals and instructional coaches in Alabama public schools. Data were collected as to how these particular school faculty members perceived the use of reflective practice in their professional experiences as participants in the Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program (AIPP). Data provided information about school principals and instructional coaches were not participants in the AIPP.

Validity and Reliability

According to Litwin (1995), determining the nature and significance of collected data can prove to be challenging. Evaluating the accuracy of the survey instrument can present fewer variations in data results. Prior to use, a survey instrument must be analyzed to ensure its validity, often referred to as accuracy of the results. Reliability means the survey produces compatible and congruent results upon replicated use (Carmines & Zeller, 1979). The test-retest method is a measure in which a test or survey is administered at two separate times to the same group of people. The test-retest results of said survey are found to be reliable and consistent when the two scores are comparable in value (Feder, 2008). According to Litwin, a Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient value greater than or equal to 0.70 is considered sufficiently appropriate to confirm reliability.

The REMAS was initially developed for and tested with doctoral program graduates. A pilot test was utilized to determine test-retest reliability and internal consistency. Statistical analysis conducted by Arredondo Rucinski and Bauch (2006) found the REMAS to be valid and reliable with the following Cronbach’s Alpha coefficients for each of the for survey factors:

DEFENBEH (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.71$), ETHPRIOR (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.72$), REFLDMS (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.89$), and ETHMORDM (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.91$). According to Bussey and Welch (2014), the REMAS has been used and recognized as a reliable survey instrument for evaluating the prescribed behaviors of those in leadership roles.

Population and Sample

Hinkle, Wiersma, and Jurs (2003) described a population as "all those who meet the definition for membership" (p. 12) of a distinct group. The population, or unit analysis, of this study consisted of the instructional coaches and school principals of Alabama public schools. According to the Alabama State Department of Education (ALSDE, 2014), in the 2013-2014 school year there were approximately 1500 principals employed in Alabama public schools. The number of certificated staff employed as an instructional coach or a content-subject coach in an Alabama public school may be approximated at 1000. According to Hinkle et al., a sample of the population may be used when the population is deemed too large.

Upon review of the population, I determined that a request for the administration of the REMAS survey would be sent to all of the Alabama schools participating in the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program as of the beginning of the 2013-2014 school year, with some noted exceptions. This determination was based on the relatively small number of North Alabama school systems participating in the program as compared to other locations in the state and due to the number of schools and systems in Cohort 1 that would be omitted from the study. The 2014-2015 cohort of schools were not included due to the following factors: (1) relatively short time of implementation; (2) possible training issues with those instructional partners; (3) possible lack of financial resources to fully implement the program.

Due to their inclusion in other recent studies in which the REMAS was administered, the following systems were omitted from this study: Decatur City Schools, Huntsville City Schools, and Madison City Schools. Cohort 3 schools whose participation in the AIPP was limited to only one year due to local system reassignment of teaching units or withdrawal from the program were omitted as well. Upon notification of the University of Alabama Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval, requests for permission to participate in the study were sent to the following systems participating in the AIPP program: Attalla City, Dothan City, Enterprise City, Florence City, Muscle Shoals City, Piedmont City, Tarrant City, Tuscaloosa City, Baldwin County, Blount County, Choctaw County, Elmore County, Lawrence County, Madison County, Marengo County, Mobile County, Talladega County, and Tuscaloosa County. This made a total of 18 systems, with 8 being city systems and 10 being county systems. The total number of participating schools was approximated at 77.

Data Collection

Data was collected through the use of the REMAS. Upon approval from The University of Alabama Institutional Review Board (IRB), a formal letter was mailed to the superintendent of each participating system requesting official permission for conducting the study within those schools. Approximately two weeks after mailing the letters, any superintendents who had not responded were contacted multiple times by phone call, email, and/or fax. Despite repeated attempts and requests, two systems did not formally respond: Talladega County Schools and Dothan City Schools. Two systems chose to not participate in the study: Madison County and Mobile County. The superintendent of Madison County Schools respectfully declined the invitation on the grounds that his staff members had been involved in many survey and research opportunities during the school year (M. Massey, personal communication, February 28, 2016).

Fourteen superintendents granted permission for the research to be conducted in the following systems: Attalla City, Enterprise City, Florence City, Muscle Shoals City, Piedmont City, Tarrant City, Tuscaloosa City, Baldwin County, Blount County, Choctaw County, Elmore County, Lawrence County, Marengo County, and Tuscaloosa County. Due to the omission of those four school systems, 27 schools were eliminated from the study. From the fourteen systems that agreed to participate in this study, fifty schools were identified by the ABPC as schools involved in the Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program (AIPP) as of the beginning of the 2013-2014 school year (M. Merritt, personal communication, May 6, 2015).

After approval was granted from the superintendent, two copies of the REMAS were mailed to the AIPP participating schools, with one addressed to the principal and one addressed to the instructional partner/instructional coach. According to Creswell (2012), a mailed survey can prove advantageous for the researcher because of the speed and ability to cover a large geographical distance for a widespread population sample. For the comparison group, an additional 50 schools that were not participating in the AIPP were selected from the cooperating school systems' websites. Surveys were mailed to those schools' principals and staff members who were identified on their respective school websites by the title of instructional coach, reading coach, curriculum specialist, or content coach.

There was one exception to this survey distribution method. One school system requested that all surveys designated for that particular system be mailed to a Central Office supervisor who would distribute them to the principals and instructional coaches. The Central Office supervisor would then collect the surveys and mail them back in one envelope. A pre-addressed, stamped large manila envelope was included in the surveys for their return.

In addition to a copy of the REMAS survey, participants were provided with the following: a written explanation of the study and its intent, a participant consent form, and a copy of the signed superintendent permission form. Participants were told that participation was voluntary and that they could decide to forego completing the survey at any time during administration. Participants and non-participants were guaranteed anonymity and confidentiality. A pre-addressed, stamped envelope was included for the return of each survey. After a few weeks, a second copy of the survey was mailed to the principals and instructional coaches in an effort to increase the number of completed surveys. According to Mangione (1995), follow-up contact to participants may increase the return rate of surveys by an additional 50 percent. The data collection phase was completed in approximately six weeks, a timeframe suggested by Creswell (2012) for mailed surveys.

Data Analysis

Due to the use of numerical data analysis, quantitative methods are thought to produce replicable, less biased results (Creswell, 2014). According to Creswell (2014), a quantitative study design permits the collection of numerical data for analysis. In a quantitative study, a survey may be used due to its practicality in use with large samples and in ease of administration. As developed by Arredondo Rucinski and Bauch (2006), four factors comprise the REMAS: ethical/moral dimensions (ETHMORDM), reflective dimensions (REFLDMS), defensive behaviors (DEFENBEH), ethical priorities (ETHPRIOR). SPSS software was used to calculate the following: means of all items in each of the four factors, Cronbach’s α coefficients to determine internal consistency of each of the factors, normality, and homogeneity of variances (Creswell, 2014; Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 2003).

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used for the data analysis of the four research questions. According to Charles and Mertler (2002), a MANOVA is used when a research study contains two or more dependent variables and when several independent groups are included. Utilizing MANOVA permits the researcher to examine the relationships between the independent variables and between the dependent variables. According to Leech, Barrett, and Morgan (2015), the use of MANOVA will permit the testing of the four factors of the REMAS concurrently. The MANOVA tested for the significance of the differences between the means of each of the four REMAS factors. Rather than performing the *independent sample t test* separately for each of the four factors, utilizing the MANOVA may result in less error.

Variables

According to Hinkle et al. (2003), variables may be classified as independent or dependent. An independent variable may be affected and influenced by the researcher or it may be used to rank or arrange the participants in the study. As the independent variable is affected, changes in the dependent variable will be observed by the researcher. For this study, the independent variables were the instructional coaches and principals. The dependent variables were the perception of level of reflective practice as evidenced by the scores from the four REMAS factors: ethical/moral dimensions (ETHMORDM), reflective dimensions (REFLDMS), defensive behaviors (DEFENBEH), and ethical priorities (ETHPRIOR).

Ethics

Ethical practices and principles should be scrutinized and fortified in research studies. According to Howe and Moses (1999), protecting the research participants should be a primary ethical consideration. The authors cited two methods for ensuring that protection: informed consent and privacy. Informed consent states any risks or benefits that may occur as a result of the study and gives participants the right of refusal before or at any point of the study. Privacy rights ensure that participants have the right of anonymity and confidentiality. In this study, participants were informed that participation was voluntary and that they could decide to forego completing the survey at any time during administration. Participants and non-participants were guaranteed anonymity and confidentiality.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine the impact of the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program (AIPP) upon the perceived levels of reflective practices of the instructional coaches and the school principals participating in the program. The Reflective, Ethical, and Moral Assessment Survey (REMAS) developed by Arredondo Rucinski and Bauch (2006) was administered to study participants. Results from this study may demonstrate the effectiveness of the program in promoting reflective practice. This chapter explained the methodology, survey instrumentation, sampling, data analysis, and variables of the study.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The purpose of this study was to determine the impact of the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program (AIPP) upon the perceived levels of reflective practices of the instructional coaches and the school principals participating in the program as compared to the perceived levels of reflective practices of instructional coaches and principals who were not participating in the program. In Chapters 1, background information about the AIPP and the purpose and significance of the study was presented. In Chapter 2, a review of literature provided relevant to the following: the role and function of reflective practice, the historical development of professional development, the evolution of coaching models, the research on the effectiveness of instructional coaching, and the organizational behavior and leadership for effective coaching. In Chapter 3, the research design and methodology were explained. Chapter 4 presents the results of the research study.

A survey instrument developed by Arredondo Rucinski and Bauch (2006) was used in this study, the Reflective, Ethical, and Moral Assessment Survey (REMAS). At the conclusion of the survey, participants were asked to identify their job title as that of principal or instructional coach and to identify the number of years that they had been involved with the Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program (AIPP), if any.

Chapter 4 begins with information about the participants and data collection procedures. The comparisons between the groups used to evaluate reflective responses among the four factors and the number of years of participation in the AIPP are reported and described. Chapter 4 concludes with a summary of the survey data findings.

Participants

The target group of participants were identified and employed as school principals and instructional coaches in Alabama public schools. The Reflective, Ethical, and Moral Assessment Survey (REMAS), a 34-item survey instrument developed by Arredondo Rucinski and Bauch (2006), was used to collect quantitative data. Eighteen public school districts in Alabama were identified by the Alabama Best Practices Center (ABPC) as participating systems in the Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program (M. Merritt, personal communication, May 6, 2015). Those systems included the following: Attalla City, Dothan City, Enterprise City, Florence City, Muscle Shoals City, Piedmont City, Tarrant City, Tuscaloosa City, Baldwin County, Blount County, Choctaw County, Elmore County, Lawrence County, Madison County, Marengo County, Mobile County, Talladega County, and Tuscaloosa County. Permission to conduct the survey within the districts was requested of the superintendents of all eighteen systems. Despite repeated requests, two systems did not respond: Dothan City Schools and Talladega County Schools. Two systems chose to not participate in the study: Madison County and Mobile County. Madison County Schools opted to not participate due to the number of studies that had recently been conducted in those schools (M. Massey, personal communication, February 28, 2016). Consequently, fourteen systems were included in the survey process: Attalla City, Enterprise City, Florence City, Muscle Shoals City, Piedmont City, Tarrant City, Tuscaloosa City, Baldwin County, Blount County, Choctaw County, Elmore County, Lawrence County, Marengo County, and Tuscaloosa County.

From the 14 systems that elected to participate in this study, 50 schools were identified by the ABPC as schools involved in the Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program (AIPP) as of the beginning of the 2013-2014 school year (M. Merritt, personal communication, May 6, 2015). Four of the schools were in the first AIPP cohort, which began in the 2011-2012 school year. Eight of the schools were in the second AIPP cohort, which began in the 2012-2013 school year. The remaining 38 schools were in the third AIPP cohort, which began in the 2013-2014 school year. The school principal and instructional partner were identified from the faculty and staff listing on the website of each respective school.

From these 14 school systems, 50 schools were selected to serve as the comparison schools. None of the 50 comparison schools participated in the AIPP, but each one had a staff member identified with the job title of instructional coach, reading coach, curriculum specialist, or content coach. These staff members served as the comparison group for the instructional partners. The principals were identified in the same manner as the AIPP principals. Letters containing the survey were mailed to each of these identified principals and instructional coaches.

There was one exception to this survey distribution method. One school system requested that all surveys designated for that particular system be mailed to a Central Office supervisor who would distribute them to the principals and instructional coaches. The Central Office supervisor would then collect the surveys and mail them back in one envelope. A pre-addressed, stamped large manila envelope was included in the surveys for their return. This accounted for four AIPP schools and three non-AIPP schools.

As stated above, the REMAS survey was administered via mail at 100 schools, 50 of which were participants in the AIPP and 50 of which were not participants in the AIPP. In addition to the survey, the mailing included a letter stating the intent of the research, a consent form to keep for personal records, and a copy of the signed superintendent permission form for the corresponding district. The letter stated that the survey should take no more than 15-20 minutes of the participant's time and that participation was voluntary and confidential. All participants received a pre-addressed, stamped envelope for the return of the survey.

Statistical Analysis

The Reflective, Ethical, and Moral Assessment Survey (REMAS, Arredondo Rucinski & Bauch, 2006) was the survey instrument used in this research study. The REMAS is a 34-item survey instrument which uses a Likert-type scale. For the REMAS, participant responses range from 1 = *not at all* to 6 = *often*. The REMAS measures four areas of reflective practice: (1) ethical/moral dimensions (ETHMORDM) consisting of thirteen items; (2) reflective dimensions (REFLDMS) consisting of ten items; (3) defensive behaviors (DEFENBEH) consisting of five items; and (4) ethical priorities (ETHPRIOR) consisting of six items. Due to the wording of the questions, the DEFENBEH items were reversed scored with a response of 6 being scored as a 1.

Statistical analysis conducted by Arredondo Rucinski and Bauch (2006) found the REMAS to be valid and reliable with the following Cronbach's Alpha coefficients for each of the for survey factors: DEFENBEH (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.71$), ETHPRIOR (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.72$), REFLDMS (Cronbach's $\alpha = 0.89$), and ETHMORDM (Cronbach's $\alpha =0.91$). These alpha reliabilities scores were generated from Arredondo Rucinski and Bauch's original work with doctoral program graduates. A factor analysis performed by Poovey (2012) found the REMAS to be valid and reliable when used with teachers. According to Bussey and Welch (2014), the REMAS has been used and recognized as a reliable survey instrument for evaluating the prescribed behaviors of those in leadership roles.

The REMAS (Arredondo Rucinski & Bauch, 2006) measures four areas of reflective practice: reflective dimensions (REFLDMS), defensive behaviors (DEFENBEH), ethical/moral dimensions (ETHMORDM), and ethical priorities (ETHPRIOR). The factor of reflective dimensions (REFLDMS) was assessed by 10 of the survey items (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10). The second factor of defensive behaviors (DEFENBEH) was assessed by 5 items (11, 12, 13, 14, 15). The third factor of ethical/moral dimensions (ETHMORDM) was assessed by 13 items (16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28). The fourth factor of ethical priorities (ETHPRIOR) assessed 6 items (29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34). The independent variables were the instructional coaches and principals. The dependent variables were the perception of level of reflective practice as evidenced by the scores from the four REMAS factors: ethical/moral dimensions (ETHMORDM), reflective dimensions (REFLDMS), defensive behaviors (DEFENBEH), and ethical priorities (ETHPRIOR).

Results

A total of 104 surveys were returned for a return rate of 52%. According to Creswell (2012), research studies published in prominent educational journals typically report a return response rate of 50% or higher for mailed surveys. After an initial review of the completed surveys, two surveys were omitted from the statistical analysis because one had no responses marked for questions 29-32 and one had no responses marked for questions 29-33. Out of the 102 surveys remaining for analysis, 52 were returned from instructional coaches and 50 were returned from principals. Data for all 102 surveys were entered into SPSS and analyzed for the factor analysis.

Due to a few surveys having missing responses or multiple responses to the same question, 7 surveys were omitted from the MANOVA analysis. There were 50 surveys from instructional coaches that were analyzed with 23 being from instructional coaches with zero years of participation in the AIPP. For the 27 instructional coaches who were designated and trained as instructional partners with the Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program, the participants in each year of participation category were as follows: 1 year of participation, n = 4; 2 years of participation, n = 9; 3 years of participation, n = 6, 4 years of participation, n = 3, and 5 years of participation, n = 5. There were 45 surveys from principals that were analyzed with 20 being from principals with no participation with the AIPP. For those 25 principals who have been involved with the AIPP, the participants in each year category were as follows: 1 year of participation, n = 3; 2 years of participation, n = 10; 3 years of participation, n = 7, 4 years of participation, n = 3, and 5 years of participation, n = 2.

The REMAS (Arredondo Rucinski & Bauch, 2006) measures four areas of reflective practice: reflective dimensions (REFLDMS), defensive behaviors (DEFENBEH), ethical/moral dimensions (ETHMORDM), and ethical priorities (ETHPRIOR). These four constructs were summarized in Table 1.

Table 1

Factors, Items, Internal Consistency, and Descriptive Statistics for Variable Scales (N = 102)

Variable	Survey Items Loading on Factor	Factor Loadings	Range	Mean	SD
REFLDMS	Review actions in consequences?	.668	3 – 6	5.1569	.84132
	Ask questions about assumptions underlying action?	.583	2 – 6	4.7921	.99314
	Invite feedback about actions?	.672	2 – 6	4.9902	.93866
	Respond to feedback from others with clarifying questions or paraphrased statements?	.741	2 – 6	4.8400	.95049
	Ask questions about perspectives of others?	.638	2 – 6	4.7451	.91939
	Ask questions about your own perspective?	.532	2 – 6	4.8137	.95161
	Construct meaning in conversations?	.789	2 – 6	4.9010	.83072
	Interpret and check interpretations of others?	.664	2 – 6	4.7059	.89651
	Plan actions?	.631	3 – 6	5.3627	.80579
	Describe plans and check plans with others?	.600	3 – 6	5.1471	86054
	Cronbach's □ =	.879			
DEFENBEH	Become defensive when questioned by others?	.630	1 – 5	1.8039	.91239
(Reversed)	Deny responsibility for decisions or actions you take?	.797	1 – 6	1.4118	.89391
	Intentionally screen out criticisms: e.g. Use expressions like "I don't remember saying that"?	.789	1 – 5	1.5392	.67003
	Rationalize behaviors: e.g. "I only did that because…"?	.744	1 – 5	1.8725	.84046
	Blame others: e.g., "I could not do that because policy/past practices/others/forbid it."	.525	1 – 5	2.0392	.94315
	Cronbach's α =	.743			
ETHMORDM	View workplace decisions and actions as having moral and ethical dimensions?	.746	2 – 6	5.1667	.92365
	Ask the question: "Is this a moral action?'	.872	1 – 6	4.5686	1.25477
	Ask: "Is that an ethical decision?"	.855	1 – 6	4.8235	1.09374
	Ask: "What is the likely effect on marginalized or disadvantaged groups?"	.498	2 – 6	4.8529	1.09361
	Ask: "What is the likely result on future practice?"	.536	2 – 6	4.8824	1.11953
	Ask: "What is the likely result on policy?"	.671	2 – 6	4.3333	1.18014
	Ask: "What is the likely result on clients or customers?"	.614	1 – 6	5.0294	.96939
	Ask: "What is the likely result on society in general?"	.592	1 – 6	3.7157	1.33778
	What is the likely effect on marginalized or disadvantaged?	.697	2 – 6	4.6200	1.01285
	Examine decisions from an ethical or moral perspective?	.820	2 – 6	5.0392	.81958
	Ask: "Is this decision right or wrong?'	.395	3 – 6	5.6765	.58296
	Exhibit moral or ethical motivation in the workplace (i.e., prioritize moral and ethical values relative to other values)?	.685	1 -6	5.4118	.80041
	Exhibit moral or ethical character in the workplace (i.e., demonstrate sensitivity, courage, persistence, and implementation behaviors)?	.444	4 – 6	5.5050	.62648
	Cronbach's α =	.908			

(*table continues*)

Variable	Survey Items Loading on Factor	Factor Loadings	Range	Mean	SD
ETHPRIOR	Rate the needs of employees first and above future practice, policy, clients or customers, society in general, or persons from disadvantaged groups?	.656	1 – 6	3.7500	1.17529
	Rate practice first and above the needs of employees, policy, clients/customers, society in general, or persons from disadvantaged groups?	.696	1 – 6	3.3232	1.16784
	Rate policy first and above the needs of employees, future practice, clients/customers, society in general, or persons from disadvantaged groups?	.734	1 – 6	3.3300	1.32615
	Rate clients/customers first and above the needs of employees, future practice, or persons from disadvantaged groups?	.779	1 – 6	4.5900	1.39331
	Rate the needs of society in general first and above the needs of employees, future practice, policy, clients/customers, or persons from disadvantaged groups?	.692	1 – 6	3.1800	1.13155
	Rate the needs of persons from disadvantaged groups first and above those of employees, future practice, policy, clients/customers, or society in general	.803	1 – 6	4.2941	1.19063
	Cronbach's α =	.854			

The factor of reflective dimensions (REFLDMS) was loaded and assessed by 10 of the survey items (1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10). The second factor of defensive behaviors (DEFENBEH) was loaded and assessed by 5 items (11, 12, 13, 14, 15). The third factor of ethical/moral dimensions (ETHMORDM) was loaded and assessed by 13 items (16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28). The fourth factor of ethical priorities (ETHPRIOR) loaded on and assessed 6 items (29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34). In each subscale, the mean of all survey item responses was used to determine factor scores. Cronbach's α coefficients were calculated for each subscale. According to Litwin (1995), a Cronbach's α coefficient value greater than or equal to 0.70 is considered sufficiently appropriate to confirm reliability. Strong internal consistency for the four subscales was indicated based on the following coefficient values: REFLDMS, Cronbach's α = .879; DEFENBEH, Cronbach's α = .743; ETHMORDM, Cronbach’s α = .908; ETHPRIOR, Cronbach’s *a* = .854. Mean scores were calculated and rounded to the nearest hundredth for the four factors: REFLDMS (*M* = 4.95, *SD* = .627), DEFENBEH (*M* = 5.27, *SD* = .602), ETHMORDM (*M* = 4.90, *SD* = .687), and ETHPRIOR (*M* = 3.75, *SD* = .926).

For the instructional coaches, the largest mean values for the REMAS factors were produced by those with 3 years participation for REFLDMS (*M* = 5.52, *SD* = .39), ETHMORDM (*M* = 5.41, *SD* = .43), and ETHPRIOR (*M* = 4.17, *SD* = .38) and by those with 4 years participation for DEFENBEH (*M* = 5.73, *SD* = .23). The smallest mean values for the REMAS factors were produced by those 2 years of participation for DEFENBEH (*M* = 5, *SD* = .71) and ETHMORDM (*M* = 4.47, *SD* = .84) and by those with 4 years of participation for REFLDMS (*M* = 5.00, *SD* = .40) and ETHPRIOR (*M* = 3.06, *SD* = .46). For the principals, the largest mean values for the REMAS factors were produced by those with 1 year of participation for REFLDMS (*M* = 5.3, *SD* = .75) and ETHPRIOR (*M* = 4.33, *SD* = 1.48) and by those with 3 years of participation for DEFENBEH (*M* = 5.31, *SD* = .55) and ETHMORM (*M* = 5.41, *SD* = .51). The smallest mean values for the REMAS factors were produced by those 2 years of participation for REFLDMS (M = 4.56, SD = .97), 1 year for DEFENBEH (M = 4.87, SD = .76), 4 years for ETHMORM (M = 4.54, SD = .76), and 5 years for ETHPRIOR (M = 3.08, SD = .118).

A principal component factor analysis with varimax rotation and Kaiser normalization was performed and confirmed the use of four factors located above the scree (Figure 1) with Eigen values of 9.298, 3.748, 3.175, and 2.909, respectively.

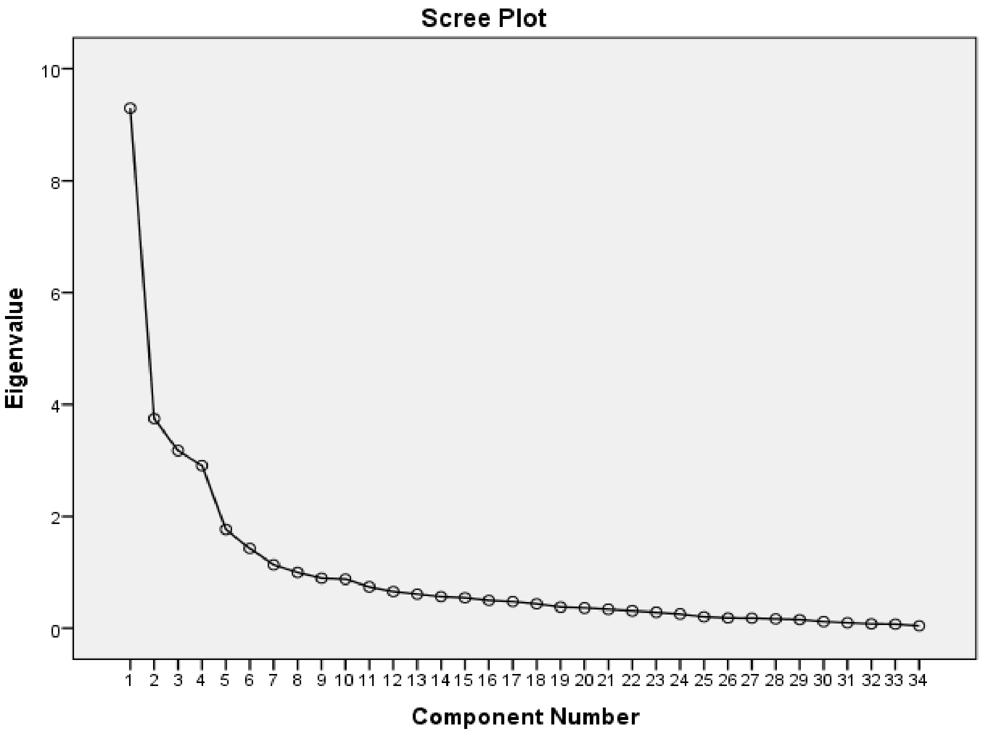

Figure 1. Eigen values of the four factors loaded above the scree.

The four factors cumulatively explained 56.264% of the variance. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure (KMO) of Sampling Adequacy value (KMO = .759) substantiated that the data were adequate and sufficient for factor analysis (Kaiser, 1970). Bartlett's Test of Sphericity value of .000 ($p < .05$) confirmed that the factor analysis was valid by rejecting the null hypothesis that the correlation matrix for the variables was an identity matrix (Pett, Lackey, & Sullivan, 2003). All factor loadings ranged from 0.395 to 0.872. Therefore, the factor analysis results substantiate the use of the survey instrument.

The Shapiro-Wilk Test was used to test for normality of the data in relation to job title. When analyzing the data for school principals, normality was met in the factors of REFLDMS ($p = .172$), ETHMORDM ($p = .138$), and ETHPRIOR ($p = .123$). For instructional coaches, normality was met in the factors of REFLDMS ($p = .323$), ETHMORDM ($p = .075$), and

ETHPRIOR (*p* = .061). Normality was not met in the factor of DEFENBEH for principals (*p* = .000) or instructional coaches (*p* = .001). The boxplots for the principals and instructional coaches in this factor were negatively skewed. One might explain that this negative skewness is the result of the reverse scoring of this section.

The Shapiro-Wilk Test was also used to test for normality of the data based on the number of years that a respondent, regardless of job title, had been involved with the AIPP. Normality was met in the REFLDMS factor for those participants who had no involvement with the AIPP (*p* = .413), those with 1 year of participation (*p* = .669), those with 4 years of participation (*p* = .396), and those with 5 years of participation (*p* = .844). Normality was met in the factor of DEFENBEH for all subcategories with the exception of those with three years of participation (0 years, *p* = .054; 1 year, *p* = .167; 2 years, *p* = .135; 4 years, *p* = .445; 5 years, *p* = .264). Normality was met in all subcategories for the ETHMORDM factor (0 years, *p* = .397; 1 year, *p* = .083; 2 years, *p* = .581; 3 years, *p* = .093; 4 years, *p* = .555; 5 years, *p* = .197). In the ETHPRIOR factor, normality was met in all categories with the exception of 0 year and 1 year (2 years, *p* = .933; 3 years, *p* = .175; 4 years, *p* = .171; 5 years, *p* = .862).

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to assess the data to answer the four research questions. According to Charles and Mertler (2002), a MANOVA is used when a research study contains two or more dependent variables and when several independent groups are included. Utilizing MANOVA permits the researcher to examine the relationships between the independent variables and between the dependent variables.

The MANOVA was used to makes comparisons to answer the first question, “Are there differences in the perceptions of reflective practice for instructional coaches participating in the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program as compared to the reflective practices of instructional coaches not involved with the program?" The instructional coaches who had participated in the AIPP for one or more years were compared to the non-participating instructional coaches. The MANOVA did not reveal a significant difference in instructional coach perceptions based on participation in the AIPP, Wilks' Λ = .852, F(4, 45) = 1.961, *p* = .117, partial η^2 = .148. Power for the effect was .545. Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances assessed the homogeneity of variances for the four factors and resulted in the following values: REFLDMS, *p* = .068; DEFENBEH, *p* = .178; ETHMORDM, *p* = .637; ETHPRIOR, *p* = .580. These results suggest that involvement in the Alabama Instructional Pilot Program does not have a statistically significant effect on instructional coaches' perceptions of reflective practice as compared to those surveyed who had not participated in the AIPP.

The MANOVA was used to make comparisons to answer the second research question, "Are there differences in the perceptions of reflective practice for principals of schools participating in the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program as compared to the reflective practices of principals not involved with the program?" The principals of schools who had participated in the AIPP for one or more years were compared to the non-participating principals. The MANOVA did not reveal a significant difference in principal perceptions based on participation in the AIPP, Wilks' Λ = .821, F(4, 40) = 2.178, *p* = .089, partial η^2 = .179. Power for the effect was .589. Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances assessed the homogeneity of variances for the four factors and found that all values were less than .05: REFLDMS, *p* = .042; DEFENBEH, *p* = .008; ETHMORDM, *p* = .002; ETHPRIOR, *p* = .012. These results suggest that participation in the Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program does not have a statistically significant effect on principals' perceptions of reflective practice as compared to those surveyed who had not participated in the AIPP.

The MANOVA was used to make comparisons to answer the third research question, “Does the number of years of participation in the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program affect perceptions of reflective practice for the instructional partner?” The MANOVA did not reveal a significant difference in instructional coach perceptions based on the number of years of participation in the AIPP, Wilks’ $\Lambda = .554$, $F(20, 136.931) = 1.334$, $p = .168$, partial $\eta^2 = .137$. Power for the effect was .762. Levene’s Test of Equality of Error Variances assessed the homogeneity of variances for the four factors and resulted in the following values: REFLDMS, $p = .247$; DEFENBEH, $p = .159$; ETHMORDM, $p = .314$; ETHPRIOR, $p = .644$. These results suggest that the number of years of participation in the Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program does not have a statistically significant effect on instructional coaches’ perceptions of reflective practice.

The MANOVA was used to make comparisons to answer the fourth research question, “Does the number of years of participation in the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program affect perceptions of reflective practice for the school principal?” The MANOVA did not reveal a significant difference in principal perceptions based on the number of years of participation in the AIPP, Wilks’ $\Lambda = .538$, $F(20, 120.348) = 1.236$, $p = .237$, partial $\eta^2 = .144$. Power for the effect was .711. Levene’s Test of Equality of Error variances assessed the homogeneity of variances for the four factors and resulted in the following values: REFLDMS, $p = .327$; DEFENBEH, $p = .031$; ETHMORDM, $p = .001$; ETHPRIOR, $p = .011$. These results suggest that the number of years of participation in the Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program does not have a statistically significant effect on principals’ perceptions of reflective practice.

Although the survey did not ask any open-ended questions or request other feedback, a few participants wrote comments on their surveys. A respondent with 0 years of involvement in the AIPP wrote at the bottom of the paper, “I have been an instructional coach with ARI for 9 years.” Another respondent with no AIPP involvement wrote, “Instructional coach 11 yrs.” A principal marked 3 years of program participation and wrote, “Not sure how many years we’ve had the program. I have been associated with it since its inception.”

Questions 29-33 in the ETHPRIOR construct seemed to warrant the interest for comments from the respondents. An AIPP instructional partner with 4 years of program participation wrote several comments directed towards the survey questions. Question 24 states “Ask: ‘What is the likely effect on marginalized or disadvantaged?” The respondent circled 5 and then wrote a question mark in the margin. Question 29 states “Rate the needs of employees first and above future practice, policy, clients or customers, society in general, or persons from disadvantaged group.” Once again, the respondent circled 5 and wrote in the margin “Basic needs. Ex. paper, etc.” Question 30 states “Rate practice first and above the needs of employees, policy, clients/customers, society in general, or persons from disadvantaged groups.” The respondent circled 4 and wrote “Instructional practice” in the margin. Question 32 states “Rate clients/customers first and above the needs of employees, future practice, or persons from disadvantaged groups.” The respondent selected 5 and wrote “Students first” in the margin. A principal with 4 years of program involvement wrote these same comments beside questions 29, 30, and 32. One may conjecture that this IP and principal work together at the same school and completed their surveys together.

A principal with 3 years of program participation wrote, “Yes!” on questions 20 and 33 and wrote, “Children come 1st” on Question 29. An AIPP instructional partner with 2 years of program participation circled the words clients/customers on question 32 and wrote "students" slightly above the question. Another AIPP instructional partner with 2 years of program participation did not mark anything on questions 29-33 in the ETHPRIOR construct. She drew a line connecting 29-32 and wrote in the margin "All of these must be considered." A principal with 4 years of program participation circled responses for questions 29-32 and then put correctional fluid over them. This respondent also drew a line connecting 29-32 and wrote in the margin, "All must be considered."

Summary of Survey Results

Following the survey data analysis, there does not appear to be a difference in perceptions of reflective practice in instructional coaches trained and designated as instructional partners in the Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program as compared to instructional coaches who do not participate in the program. There does not seem to be a difference in perceptions of reflective practice in principals of schools participating in the Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program as compared to principals who do not participate in the program. For both the instructional coaches and principals who participate in the AIPP, there does not seem to be a difference in perceptions of reflective practice based on the number of years of participation in the Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program. The analyses of these results were supported by the findings that there were no significant statistical differences ($p > .05$) in all four situations among the four factors of the REMAS survey instrument.

Summary

This chapter presented the findings of the research study, an explanation of the data collection process, a description of survey results, and a report of the findings. Based on the study findings, there was not a significant difference in the perceptions of reflective practice among the surveyed instructional coaches who participated in the Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program as compared to those who did not participate in the program. There was not a significant difference in the perceptions of reflective practice among the surveyed school principals who participated in the Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program as compared to those who did not participate in the program. There was not a significant difference in the perceptions of reflective practice among the instructional coaches and school principals based on the number of years of participation in the Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program.

Chapter 5 describes and summarizes the results, answers the research questions, and discusses the implications for further research. The discussion presents the significant relationships between the perceived reflective practices of principals and instructional partners/coaches and the implications for educational practices. The final chapter presents recommendations for supplementary research.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Reflective practice may promote a change in personal and professional philosophies and values (Bolton, 2010). According to Dewey (1910/2012), reflective thinking can be an intensive and persistent undertaking that will require the thinker to reach beyond mentally revisiting events. Barnett (1995) argued that engaging in reflective practice augments a person's problem-solving capabilities. For the classroom teacher, reflection may create a positive transformation of a teacher's teaching practices (Wellington, 1991). Blase and Blase (2000) suggested that the use of modeling, praise, and collaboration may support and emphasize reflection, and they advocated the need for an expansion of coaching as well as more reflective communication.

Valli (1997) maintained that reflective practice worked most effectively as a collective effort by a school's staff rather than an individual activity by one or a few teachers. Hart (1990) wrote that the use of reflection by a school's leadership team could prove beneficial to the school. According to Lambert (2002), effective schools share a prevalent characteristic: reflective practice is used by staff members to help avert stagnation. Day and Harris (2002) declared that "reflective practice is an important component in fostering and developing both principal and teacher leadership for school improvement" (p. 958).

The Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program (AIPP) was established in 2011for the purpose of fostering school improvement by placing an emphasis on professional learning, data assessment, and enhanced teaching and leadership abilities (EdLeader21, n.d.). According to Gassenheimer (2014), seven guiding principles stimulate this focus and emphasis: (1) building professional relationships (2) accepting instructional challenges to meet the needs of educators and students (3) providing opportunities for educators to share and collaborate (4) establishing a statewide network connection of educators (5) informing educators of current curricula and pedagogical processes (6) fostering reflective practices and (7) embedding all of these ideas into the daily procedures of the classroom and school. Utilizing an instructional coaching process influenced by the work of Knight (2011), instructional partners were trained and placed in schools to assist teachers and principals in this school improvement.

This chapter includes the purpose and significance of the study, the research questions, a summary of the data collection and methodology, a summary of the results, a discussion of the results, and the answers to the research questions. The chapter concludes with suggestions for future research.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the impact of the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program (AIPP) upon the perceived levels of reflective practices of the instructional coaches and the school principals participating in the program. This study supplemented previous research that examined the impact of participation in the Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program upon reflective practices of teachers (Scott, 2015). Prior to this study, there was little research available that substantiated the impact of the program upon the reflective practices of the instructional coaches and the school principals. The intent of this study was to gain insight into the perceived use of reflective practices among instructional coaches and school principals and to expand and broaden the prior research.

Statement of the Problem

Reflective practice is a participatory action which prompts one to examine personal experiences and beliefs as a means of acquiring new levels of awareness (Dewey, 1910/2012). Reflective practice provides a valuable and often liberating resource for the classroom teacher and administrator (Canning, 1991; Wibel, 1991). Several researchers (Arikan, 2006; Osterman & Kottkamp, 1993; Wildman & Niles, 1987b) have postulated that educators can gain insight into their professional practice through reflection. Moral dilemmas can surface in the roles, functions, and responsibilities of an administrator as many decision-making situations have the potential to challenge the ethical principles of the leader (Covrig, 2000; Hightower & Klinker, 2012). Effective school leaders talk and listen with their staffs and strive to develop a trusting relationship which, in turn, supports elevated levels of confidence and change (Arredondo & Rucinski, 1998). Teachers are more enthusiastic about modifying programs or adopting a new program if their input is valued (Goldring & Greenfield, 2002). The ethical school leader promotes democratic leadership and encourages the opinions of stakeholders. Before proceeding with a resolution, the ethical school leader utilizes listening skills and reflective practice: a process deemed “learning from experience” (Arredondo Rucinski & Bauch, 2006, p. 489). Whereas reading and math coaches have been utilized in elementary schools for several years, the placement of instructional coaches via the Instructional Partners program in Alabama public schools is a recent endeavor. Reflective practice is considered a vital component of the program for the educators employed as Instructional Partner (Gassenheimer, 2014). Gassenheimer reported that the partnership program had increased networking opportunities for administrators and teachers all across the state. She stated that these associations have produced new professional collaborations as schools have become connected in what some believe is a dynamic, innovative way. This study examined a hypothesized relationship between participation in the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program and perceived levels of reflective practices by school principals and instructional coaches.

Summary of Methods

The study involved principals and instructional coaches employed in fourteen school systems participating in the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program (AIPP). With permission from the superintendent of each district, the principals and instructional partners/coaches of the 50 schools in these districts participating in the AIPP as of the 2013-2014 school year were mailed surveys as the data collection method. The principals and instructional partners/coaches of 50 schools that were not participating in the AIPP were selected as the comparison group, and they were mailed the same survey. The AIPP participant group was divided into groups according to number of years of participation in the program, which began in 2011.

Data were collected for this study by the survey instrument, the Reflective, Ethical, and Moral Assessment Survey (REMAS, Arredondo Rucinski & Bauch, 2006). The REMAS is a 34-item survey that uses a 6-point Likert type scale to assess perceived levels of reflective practice. The unit of analysis was the principals and instructional partners/coaches. The REMAS measures four areas of reflective practice: (1) ethical/moral dimensions (ETHMORDM) consisting of thirteen items; (2) reflective dimensions (REFLDMS) consisting of ten items; (3) defensive behaviors (DEFENBEH) consisting of five items; and (4) ethical priorities (ETHPRIOR) consisting of six items.

104 surveys were returned for a return rate of 52%. Two surveys were excluded from the data input into SPSS due to several unanswered questions for the ETHPRIOR factor. Of the 102

remaining surveys, 52 had been completed by instructional coaches and 50 by principals. Due to missing responses or multiple responses to the same question, data from 7 surveys were omitted during the MANOVA analysis. 50 surveys from instructional coaches were analyzed with 23 designated as 0 years of participation in the AIPP, 4 with 1 year of participation, 9 with 2 years of participation, 6 with 3 years of participation, 3 with 4 years of participation, and 5 with 5 years of participation. Forty-five surveys from principals were analyzed with 20 being from principals with no participation with the AIPP, 3 with 1 year of participation, 10 with 2 years of participation, 7 with 3 years of participation, 3 with 4 years of participation, and 2 with 5 years of participation.

Summary of Findings

Quantitative data collected from the Reflective, Ethical, and Moral Assessment Survey (REMAS, Arredondo Rucinski & Bauch, 2006) measured perceptions of the participants' reflective practice. The factor analysis of the REMAS confirmed the instrument was valid and reliable for use in this study. Several surveys were returned with comments or question marks written in the margins beside the items that comprise the ETHPRIOR factor. Some of the comments and markings led the researcher to believe that those respondents were confused as to the meaning of *client/customer* in those items. This result emulates the findings of Arredondo Rucinski and Bauch (2006). In the original study, the authors estimated that 10 percent of the surveys were returned with that entire section unanswered. The authors attributed the non-responses and the lower mean to the complexity of those survey items.

The data analysis for the first research question compared the perceived reflective practices of instructional coaches participating in the AIPP with those who had no involvement with the program. The analysis did not reveal a significant difference (p = .117) in instructional coach perceptions based on participation in the AIPP. These results suggest that involvement in the Alabama Instructional Pilot Program does not increase instructional coaches' perceptions of reflective practice as compared to those surveyed who had not participated in the AIPP. The comparison group for the instructional partners was comprised of those faculty members who were identified with the job title of instructional coach, reading coach, curriculum specialist, or content coach. A participant in the comparison group wrote at the bottom of the paper, "I have been an instructional coach with ARI for 9 years."

ARI, the Alabama Reading Initiative, is a statewide program that provides and promotes training for teachers to improve student literacy skills (ALSDE, n.d.). The first instructional partners in the AIPP were reading and math coaches who were reassigned as instructional coaches (Gassenheimer, 2012, 2014). Although some of the current AIPP instructional partners may have been selected from other certified staff positions, many of them became an IP because of their previous work as a reading coach with ARI. Training for AIPP and ARI uses an instructional coaching process influenced by the work of Knight (2011). This process emphasizes and encourages the use of reflective practice by the instructional coach.

The data analysis for the second research question compared the perceived reflective practices of principals participating in the AIPP with those who had no involvement with the program. The study found no significant difference (p = .089) in principal perceptions based on participation in the AIPP. Although the principal and instructional partner collaborate on the implementation of the AIPP within a school setting, the instructional partner may work more closely with the classroom teachers in encouraging and developing reflective practice (Gassenheimer, 2012, 2014). Many institutions of higher learning, including the University of Alabama and Auburn University, promote the use of reflective practice in coursework for students pursuing educational degrees. Students applying for the Masters of Arts in Instructional Leadership degree at the University of North Alabama (UNA) College of Education of Human Sciences must complete an interview as part of the admissions process. A major portion of the interview consists of knowledge and insight of the college's conceptual framework which includes the ability to "know and use self-awareness and reflection as decision-making tools for assuring student learning, professional performance and personal growth" (UNA, 2015). One may surmise that principals utilize reflective practice as a result of their education and training for certification.

Based on an analysis of the data for the third and fourth questions, the results did not find that the number of years of participation in the Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program affected perceptions of reflective practice for instructional coaches ($p = .168$) or for principals ($p =.237$). For the survey respondents in both groups, participation in AIPP ranged from 1-5 years. The largest number of participants in both groups marked 2 years of involvement with AIPP, with 9 surveys returned from instructional partners and 10 from principals. These numbers are not surprising considering the 2013-2014 cohort accounted for 36 of the 50 schools included in this survey.

After analyzing the REMAS factor means for the instructional coaches, one may argue that the instructional coaches are experiencing Fullan's (2001) implementation dip. This argument was also postulated in Scott's study (2015) concerning the reflective practices of classroom teachers who participated in a peer coaching model. Fullan wrote that the introduction of new methods and skills in a school setting can produce confusion and trepidation. Staff members will undergo a period of adjustment that leads into "a dip in performance and confidence as one encounters an innovation that requires new skills and new understandings"

(p. 40). At the beginning of a new program implementation, there will be a small jump in growth as staff members gain awareness and knowledge of the program. This will be followed by an almost equal drop in growth as concerns mount about the feasibility of the program. As implementation time increases, growth increases to the awkward stage where staff members either continue with the changes or stop the implementation. If the staff members continue with the program, they will reach the consciously skilled level in which the new skills have become familiar and accepted. Graphically, the implementation dip has been portrayed as that of a mountain range with peaks and deep, scooped out indentations.

As for the principals, several factors may explain the results. After entering all data, only two principals with 5 years of participation were included in the comparison group due to incomplete surveys. This level of participation was expected to be the smallest due to the small number of schools in the first cohort and due to the elimination of some schools from the study. Consequently, surveys were mailed to only four cohort 1 schools. This study did not address possible contributing factors to principal reflective practice such as perceptions of job stress, size and setting of school, demographic makeup of student body, or years of experience.

This study sought to answer four research questions as previously discussed. For each of the four questions, we fail to reject the null hypothesis.

Study Limitations and Delimitations

This study contained a few limitations. One such limitation was that some systems had participated in the Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program (AIPP) for a longer period of time than other systems. A second limitation was that some systems declined to participate in the program. Four of the eighteen AIPP systems did not participate: two responded that they had chosen to not participate and two did not respond despite numerous and varied attempts of communication. Due to the absence of those four school systems, the proposed sample size of 308 total participants was decreased to 200. Given that some individuals declined participation, the final sample size was 102, approximately one-third of the proposed sample size.

A fourth limitation was that some of the survey respondents may have had limited, if any, working contact and experience with an instructional partner/coach. A fifth limitation was that some principals and/or instructional coaches may no longer be employed at a school participating in the AIPP. During the course of the 2015-2016 school year, approximately five schools had a change in either the school leadership or instructional coaching position as documented by updates made to their school contact information. This information was verified by listings obtained from the Alabama Department of Education, the school district websites, and/or a school's individual website.

Delimitations of the study included that the study was a survey that could only be generalized to principals and instructional coaches in Alabama public schools. A second delimitation was that the survey would not measure changes in reflective practices, but only the perceived levels of reflective practices.

Implications

Although an analysis of the data did not substantiate the four hypotheses, the researcher found merit in the study. This study complements the prior research of Scott (2015) who examined the impact of the AIPP peer coaching model on the reflective practice of teachers. The findings of this study correspond to those findings. Scott's research found no significant difference in perceptions of reflective practice of the teachers who participated in the coaching model as compared to those who did not. This study found no significant difference in the perceived reflective practice of instructional coaches and principals who participated in the program. Scott's study did find that years of participation affected the perceived levels of reflective practice for classroom teachers; however this study revealed no such findings for instructional coaches and principals.

The varying numbers of participants in each subgroup may have affected the results of this study. For both the instructional coaches and principals groups, the number of participants with two years of AIPP participation was substantially greater than any of the other subgroups. However, the AIPP may want to explore the possibility of an implementation dip (Fullan, 2001) as posited by this study and Scott's study. One may conjecture that an increase in time spent in this program should correlate to an increase in perceptions of reflective practice. As persons become more acclimated to the duties and requirements of instructional coaching, reflective practice should become second nature. However, one may contend that the implementation dip occurs because of familiarity with the program expectations and outcomes.
Novices to the program may embrace reflective practice more fully because of a commitment to the new instructional challenge. Perhaps reflective practice becomes so second nature to seasoned instructional coaches that they do not recognize the full extent of its use.

Arguably, one of the challenges of this program has been the addition of instructional coaches into middle and high schools. The introduction of an instructional coach may affect the school culture, especially in a high school setting. Due to their content specialization, high school teachers often feel territorial when an out-of-field curriculum specialist promotes new strategies. Several researchers (Guiney, 2001; Hall & Simeral, 2008; Poglinco et al., 2003) have cautioned that an instructional coach should not be viewed in the role of an evaluating administrator as such perceptions can damage the working relationship between peers. One instructional coach credited the deliberate use of reflective practice for giving her the confidence to provide new techniques to the teachers and administration of her high school (V. Bayles, personal communication, November 12, 2013). Reflective practice enabled her to feel that that she had become more qualified to give instructional suggestions that would be considered and accepted.

Given the findings of this study and similar studies, one may question the justification of continuing the AIPP. In a rural state with limited financial resources, are the costs of the program validated at the state and local level? Participating systems are expected to absorb some of the costs associated with this program in the form of purchasing books for training, travel expenses for meetings, and other related professional development expenditures. One of the largest expenses for a system is the cost of reassigning a certified staff member to the role of instructional coach. In an impoverished school district, such a reassignment could result in the potential termination of other personnel as the district struggles to finance the instructional coach’s salary and benefits package. Some school districts have cut back their involvement in the program due to such financial considerations. In some cases, instructional coaches have been returned to the position of classroom teacher or perform instructional coaching responsibilities in addition to other duties.

Conversely, one could reason that the cost of employing an instructional coach and implementing this program is minimal compared to other professional development costs. Wildman and Niles (1987a) argued that effective professional development was a worthy expenditure for a school district. According to Knight (2007), the salary of an instructional coach is justified by the cost savings provided with ongoing onsite professional development. He contended that the use of an instructional coaching model could provide savings in costs for substitutes, travel, and registration fees. He also stressed that teachers did not have to miss valuable teaching time to attend a workshop as training on new content or strategies could be provided on a daily basis by the instructional coach.

Although this study examined the perceived levels of reflective practice among participants in the AIPP, reflective practice is just one of seven principles of the program. As one reads the weblogs written by the instructional partners, one senses a feeling of joy and newfound love of being a public educator. Perhaps it is the state-wide network of collaboration with peers or perhaps it is the ambience of relaxing training sessions that provide the instructional partners with a stimulating learning opportunity. Something must be working in this program to elicit these positive approaches to the classroom in an era of ever-increasing educator malaise. The drawback to this program may be that it has not extended more fully across the state into additional schools and classrooms. By incorporating instructional coaching into every school and every classroom, acceptance and recognition of the merits of the program can be realized to a greater extent.

Suggestions for Future Research

According to Bolton (2010), “Discovering what needs to be reflected upon, and how, can be an exhilarating journey. Insights gained and inevitable changes seem obvious afterwards” (p. 8). During the course of this study, other questions concerning the Alabama Instructional Partner Pilot Program have emerged with respect to reflective practice, instructional coaches, and principals. As of the 2015-2016 school year, the Instructional Partner network has expanded to include 58 school systems. The researcher suggests that this study be replicated to include those new systems. The researcher suggests that a study be conducted that compares the reflective practices of participants as related to the training and guidance received from the five regional IP networks and corresponding regional in-service center.

During the preliminary, investigatory phase of this study, the researcher noted that instructional partners were open and receptive to discussing various aspects of their job. The researcher suggests that a qualitative study be conducted in which observations and interviews are conducted with instructional partners in regards to their training retreats, interactions with teachers and principals, and use of reflective practice.

According to Drago-Severson (2012), "reflecting on thinking and practice in the company of colleagues can be an important source of renewal for principals" (p. 5). After administering and analyzing the results of the Reflective, Ethical, and Moral Assessment Survey (REMAS, Arredondo Rucinski & Bauch, 2006), the researcher suggests that this instrument be used to determine perceived levels of reflective practice of principals in regards to their professional relationship with the other members of the school leadership team, such as assistant principals, school counselors, and lead teachers. Such research could provide valuable insight into the use of reflective practices in regards to the decision-making processes in relation to effective school reform.

Conclusion

As Bolton wrote, "Discovering what needs to be reflected upon, and how, can be an exhilarating journey. Insights gained and inevitable changes seem obvious afterwards" (p. 8). Researchers (Costa & Kallick, 2000; Valli, 1997) have espoused the belief that faculties who embrace reflective practice as a collaborative effort can lead a more effective school reform. Reflective practice can be a time for rediscovery and revitalization for all educators. For many educators, making the time in a day packed with lesson plans, discipline, conferences, paperwork, and high-stakes assessment can prove the biggest limitation for engaging in more reflective practice. As Wellington (1991) wrote, reflection should be considered a rewarding and fulfilling experience instead of another job-related responsibility.

Job-embedded professional development can give educators that time through the inclusion of instructional coaching. Utilizing instructional coaching models in a school allows for continuous improvement as these coaches work with principals and teachers to incorporate new strategies and instructional perspectives. These coaching models promote the knowledge and mindfulness obtained through reflective practice. Although the Alabama Partner Pilot Program may culminate or transform its conceptual context, instructional coaching models will continue to evolve and be more readily available to schools and their staffs. The next phase of instructional coaching is rapidly developing in the form of online virtual coaching (Lauer, 2016).

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APPENDIX A

THE REFLECTIVE, ETHICAL, AND MORAL ASSESSMENT SURVEY (REMAS)

SURVEY

Please Note: All responses will be kept confidential. There are 34 total questions in this survey. You may decline to answer any or all.

PART I: REFLECTION. Please mark the frequency with which you engage in the reflective action described for each item. For example, if you perceive that the activity is one in which you engage very often then you would put an X in the far right column ("6"); if the activity is one in which you never engage, please mark an X in the first column ("1").

Item	While reflecting on activities and actions at work, how frequently do you ----?	Not at all 1	2	3	4	5	Often 6
1.	Review actions in conversations?	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	Ask questions about assumptions underlying actions?	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	Invite feedback about actions?	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	Respond to feedback from others with clarifying questions or paraphrased statements?	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	Ask questions about perspectives of others?	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	Ask questions about your own perspective?	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	Construct meaning in conversations?	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	Interpret and check interpretations of others?	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	Plan actions?	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	Describe plans and check plans with others?	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	Become defensive when questioned by others?	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	Deny responsibility for decisions or actions you take?	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	Intentionally screen out criticisms, e.g., Use expressions like, "I don't remember saying that –"?	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	Rationalize behaviors, e.g., "I only did that because –"?	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	Blame others, e.g., "I could not do that because policy/ past practice/others forbid it."	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	View workplace decisions and actions as having moral and ethical dimensions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	Ask the question: "Is this a moral action?"	1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	Ask: "Is that an ethical decision?"	1	2	3	4	5	6

19.	Ask: "What is likely to be the result of this action on fellow employees?"	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	Ask: "What is the likely result on future practice?"	1	2	3	4	5	6
21.	Ask: "What is the likely result on policy?"	1	2	3	4	5	6
22.	Ask: "What is the likely result on clients or customers?"	1	2	3	4	5	6
23.	Ask: "What is the likely result on society in general?"	1	2	3	4	5	6
24.	Ask: "What is the likely effect on marginalized or disadvantaged	1	2	3	4	5	6
25.	Examine decisions from an ethical or moral perspective?	1	2	3	4	5	6
26.	Ask: "Is this decision right or wrong?"	1	2	3	4	5	6
27.	Exhibit moral or ethical motivation in the workplace (i.e., prioritize moral and ethical values relative to other values)?	1	2	3	4	5	6
28.	Exhibit moral or ethical character in the workplace (i.e. , demonstrate sensitivity, courage, persistence, and implementation behaviors)?	1	2	3	4	5	6
29.	Rate the needs of employees first and above future practice, policy, clients or customers, society in general, or persons from disadvantaged groups?	1	2	3	4	5	6
30.	Rate practice first and above the needs of employees, policy, clients/customers, society in general, or persons from disadvantaged groups?	1	2	3	4	5	6
31.	Rate policy first and above the needs of employees, future practice, clients/customers, society in general, or persons from disadvantaged groups?	1	2	3	4	5	6
32.	Rate clients/customers first and above the needs of employees, future practice, or persons from disadvantaged groups?	1	2	3	4	5	6
33.	Rate the needs of society in general first, and above the needs of employees, future practice, policy, clients/customers, or persons from disadvantaged groups?	1	2	3	4	5	6
34.	Rate the needs of persons from disadvantaged groups first and above those of employees, future practice, policy, clients/customers, or society in general?	1	2	3	4	5	6

Mark your employment description: ______ principal ____ instructional coach or content coach

Mark the number of years (do not count this current school year) that you have been associated with the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program: _____ 0 ____ 1 _____2 _____3 _____4 _____ 5

APPENDIX B

SUPERINTENDENT PERMISSION TO SURVEY LETTER

Superintendent Permission to Survey Form

Dear Superintendent:

Your school district has been invited to take part in a research study to learn more about the influence of instructional partners/instructional coaches on the reflective practices of educators.

This study will be conducted by Delaina Greene, a doctoral student at the University of Alabama. She will be conducting this research under the supervision of Dr. David Dagley, and this research is a part of her dissertation, *Perceptions of the Effects of the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program on the Reflective Practice of Educators*. This study has been approved the University of Alabama Institutional Review Board (IRB).

If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to do the following:

1. Give written consent for the research to take place within the district. An addressed, stamped envelope is enclosed for the return of this form.

Participation in this study will involve approximately 15-20 minutes of each participant's time. There are no known risks associated with participation in this research. Although the school district will receive no direct benefits, this research may help add to the current knowledge of educator reflective practice and the use of instructional partners/instructional coaches.

Confidentiality of research records will be strictly maintained. Faculty members will not be asked to record any identifying information on the survey forms. Each participant will return a completed survey to Delaina Greene in an addressed, stamped envelope. Participation in this study is voluntary. Faculty members may refuse to participate simply by not completing the survey. If there is anything about this study, your participation, or your faculty members' participation that is unclear or that you do not understand, or if you have questions or wish to report a research related problem, you may contact Delaina Greene at 256-710-0866 or dgreene@lawrenceal.org at Hatton High School, 6909 Alabama Highway 101, Town Creek, AL 35672.

If you have questions about your rights as a person taking part in a research study, or if you would like to make suggestions or file complaints and concerns, you may call Ms. Tanta Myles, the Research Compliance Officer of the University at (205)-348-8461 or toll-free at 1-877-820-3066. You may also ask questions, make suggestions, or file complaints and concerns through the IRB Outreach Website at http://osp.ua.edu/site/PRCO_Welcome.html. You may email us at participantoutreach@bama.ua.edu.

I, ______________________________, give permission for Delaina Greene to survey employees within the

____ School District.

Signature ____

Date ____

APPENDIX C

LETTER TO PRINCIPALS

LETTER TO PRINCIPALS

Dear Principal:

Your school district has been invited to take part in a research study to learn more about the influence of instructional partners/instructional coaches on the reflective practices of educators.

This study will be conducted by Delaina Greene, a doctoral student at the University of Alabama. She will be conducting this research under the supervision of Dr. David Dagley, and this research is a part of her dissertation, *Perceptions of the Effects of the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program on the Reflective Practice of Educators*. This study has been approved the University of Alabama Institutional Review Board (IRB). I am enclosing a copy of your district superintendent's approval to conduct this study in your school.

Participation in this study will involve approximately 15-20 minutes of each participant's time. There are no known risks associated with participation in this research. Although the school district will receive no direct benefits, this research may help add to the current knowledge of educator reflective practice and the use of instructional partners/instructional coaches.

Confidentiality of research records will be strictly maintained. For the purposes of this study, only you the principal and the instructional partner/instructional coach of your school will be surveyed. Participants will not be asked to record any identifying information on the survey forms. Each participant will return a completed survey to Delaina Greene in an addressed, stamped envelope. Participation in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate simply by not completing the survey. If there is anything about this study, your participation, or your faculty members' participation that is unclear or that you do not understand, or if you have questions or wish to report a research related problem, you may contact Delaina Greene at 256-710-0866 or dgreene@lawrenceal.org at Hatton High School, 6909 Alabama Highway 101, Town Creek, AL 35672.

If you have questions about your rights as a person taking part in a research study, or if you would like to make suggestions or file complaints and concerns, you may call Ms. Tanta Myles, the Research Compliance Officer of the University at (205)-348-8461 or toll-free at 1-877-820-3066. You may also ask questions, make suggestions, or file complaints and concerns through the IRB Outreach Website at http://osp.ua.edu/site/PRCO_Welcome.html. You may email us at participantoutreach@bama.ua.edu.

Thank you for your support of this research study.

Delaina Greene
Graduate Student
The University of Alabama
Department of Educational Leadership
307 Graves Hall
Tuscaloosa, AL 35847
205-348-7826

APPENDIX D

LETTER TO INSTRUCTIONAL COACHES

LETTER TO
INSTRUCTIONAL PARTNER/INSTRUCTIONAL COACH

Dear Instructional Partner/Instructional Coach:

Your school district has been invited to take part in a research study to learn more about the influence of instructional partners/instructional coaches on the reflective practices of educators.

This study will be conducted by Delaina Greene, a doctoral student at the University of Alabama. She will be conducting this research under the supervision of Dr. David Dagley, and this research is a part of her dissertation, *Perceptions of the Effects of the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program on the Reflective Practice of Educators*. This study has been approved the University of Alabama Institutional Review Board (IRB). I am enclosing a copy of your district superintendent's approval to conduct this study in your school.

Participation in this study will involve approximately 15-20 minutes of each participant's time. There are no known risks associated with participation in this research. Although the school district will receive no direct benefits, this research may help add to the current knowledge of educator reflective practice and the use of instructional partners/instructional coaches.

Confidentiality of research records will be strictly maintained. For the purposes of this study, only the principal and the instructional partner/instructional coach of your school will be surveyed. Participants will not be asked to record any identifying information on the survey forms. Each participant will return a completed survey to Delaina Greene in an addressed, stamped envelope. Participation in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate simply by not completing the survey. If there is anything about this study or your participation that is unclear or that you do not understand, or if you have questions or wish to report a research related problem, you may contact Delaina Greene at 256-710-0866 or dgreene@lawrenceal.org at Hatton High School, 6909 Alabama Highway 101, Town Creek, AL 35672.

If you have questions about your rights as a person taking part in a research study, or if you would like to make suggestions or file complaints and concerns, you may call Ms. Tanta Myles, the Research Compliance Officer of the University at (205)-348-8461 or toll-free at 1-877-820-3066. You may also ask questions, make suggestions, or file complaints and concerns through the IRB Outreach Website at http://osp.ua.edu/site/PRCO_Welcome.html. You may email us at participantoutreach@bama.ua.edu.

Thank you for your support of this research study.

Delaina Greene
Graduate Student
The University of Alabama
Department of Educational Leadership
307 Graves Hall
Tuscaloosa, AL 35847
205-348-7826

APPENDIX E

PARTICIPANT INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Participant Informed Consent Form

You have been invited to take part in a research study to learn more about the influence of instructional partners/instructional coaches on the reflective practices of educators.

This study will be conducted by Delaina Greene, a doctoral student at the University of Alabama. She is conducting this research under the supervision of Dr. David Dagley, and this research is a part of her dissertation, *Perceptions of the Effects of the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program on the Reflective Practice of Educators*.

If you agree to participate in this study, you will be asked to do the following:

1. Complete a survey about the perceived effects of reflective practice.

Participation in this study will involve approximately 15-20 minutes of your time to complete the survey. There are no known risks associated with your participation in this research. Although you will receive no direct benefits, this research may help the investigator to understand effects of the use of Instructional Partners/Instructional Coaches on the reflective practice of educators.

Confidentiality of your research records will be strictly maintained. You will not be asked to record any identifying information on the survey forms. A pre-addressed, stamped envelope is included so that you may return your own survey to Delaina Greene. Participation in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate simply by not completing the survey. If there is anything about this study or your participation that is unclear or that you do not understand, or if you have questions or wish to report a research related problem, you may contact Delaina Greene at 256-710-0866 or dgreene@lawrenceal.org at Hatton High School, 6909 Alabama Highway 101, Town Creek, AL 35672.

If you have questions about your rights as a person taking part in a research study, or if you would like to make suggestions or file complaints and concerns, you may call Ms. Tanta Myles, the Research Compliance Officer of the University at (205)-348-8461 or toll-free at 1-877-820-3066. You may also ask questions, make suggestions, or file complaints and concerns through the IRB Outreach Website at http://osp.ua.edu/site/PRCO_Welcome.html. You may email us at participantoutreach@bama.ua.edu.

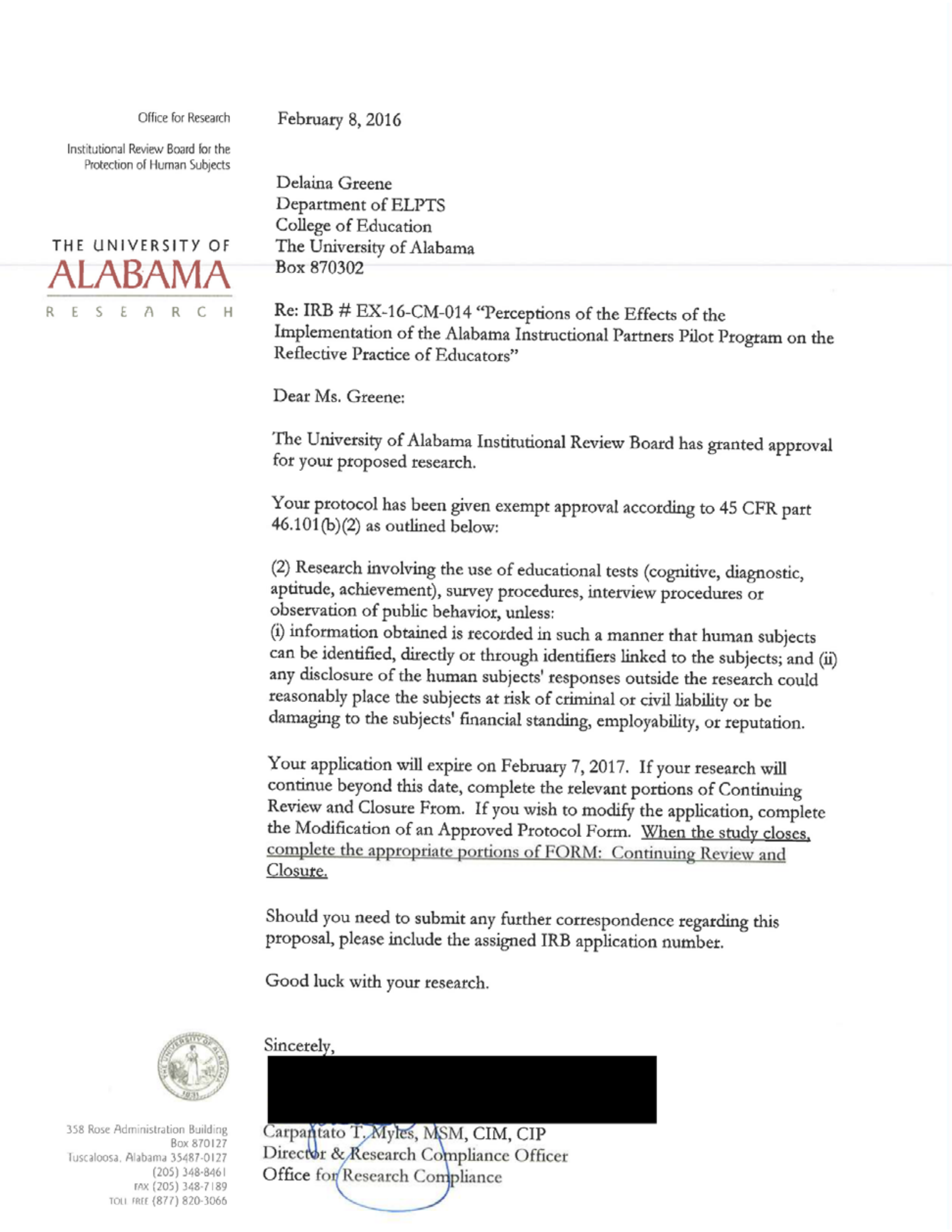
Agreement to Participate

By completing the survey you are consenting to participate in this research study.

This is your copy of the consent document to keep for your own personal records.

APPENDIX F

IRB APPROVAL LETTER



Office for Research

Institutional Review Board for the
Protection of Human Subjects

THE UNIVERSITY OF
ALABAMA
RESEARCH

February 8, 2016

Delaina Greene
Department of ELPTS
College of Education
The University of Alabama
Box 870302

Re: IRB # EX-16-CM-014 "Perceptions of the Effects of the Implementation of the Alabama Instructional Partners Pilot Program on the Reflective Practice of Educators"

Dear Ms. Greene:

The University of Alabama Institutional Review Board has granted approval for your proposed research.

Your protocol has been given exempt approval according to 45 CFR part 46.101(b)(2) as outlined below:

(2) Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior, unless:
(i) information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be identified, directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects; and (ii) any disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation.

Your application will expire on February 7, 2017. If your research will continue beyond this date, complete the relevant portions of Continuing Review and Closure From. If you wish to modify the application, complete the Modification of an Approved Protocol Form. When the study closes, complete the appropriate portions of FORM: Continuing Review and Closure.

Should you need to submit any further correspondence regarding this proposal, please include the assigned IRB application number.

Good luck with your research.

Sincerely,

[redacted]

Carpantato T. Myles, MSM, CIM, CIP
Director & Research Compliance Officer
Office for Research Compliance

358 Rose Administration Building
Box 870127
Tuscaloosa, Alabama 35487-0127
(205) 348-8461
FAX (205) 348-7189
TOLL FREE (877) 820-3066