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This chapter is designed to aid in the understanding of trends toward developing more effective programs of selecting and preparing educational supervisors. A survey of present policies and procedures in the selection of personnel for supervisory positions shows that the selection process could be significantly improved simply by setting up and adhering to specific procedures and standards. An evaluation of certification requirements for supervisors points out the general lack of provisions to enforce professional ethics and standards. A description of trends in the education of supervisors covers such new programs as internship, specialist programs, continuing development programs, simulation training, inservice education, and sensitivity programs. A final section reviews research on leadership, showing its implications for the selection of supervisors. Predictions are made regarding future supervisor selection procedures. (TT)

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SUPERVISION:

A SYNTHESIS OF THOUGHT AND ACTION

Second Edition

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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PREFACE

When the American people grow impatient with flaws in their schools and in their children or their children's teachers, a different emphasis in supervision is required. Because of more and more vigorous demands on pupils' minds, students of supervision must address themselves to the task of shaping the process and content of supervision in accordance with both ideals and reality. This textbook is written on the assumption that students of supervision—superintendents, principals, teachers, coordinators, and curriculum workers, as well as those in preparation for leadership positions in the schools—have responsibility for exploring, surveying, and mapping new terrain in supervision. To grasp and influence the forces which affect our thinking and behaving is a new requirement to which supervision must accommodate its technique.

The reader is reminded that this is a textbook. It is not a monograph dealing in depth with a small corner of the field of supervision nor is it a treatise which attempts to place the facts and principles of supervision into a coherent system. But as a textbook it draws upon a number of treatises and aims at brevity and simplicity

of treatment. Our constant target has been to beckon students of supervision into new paths in order to determine why certain procedures are superior to others for given purposes. As a result of reading this book, it is hoped that the supervisor will respond to an environment of uncertainty with better choices because interpretation rather than prescription is featured. The reader is expected to regard all prescriptions for appropriate action in this book as an invitation to question and adapt. This is not to say that the authors do not seek to evoke a certain kind and quality of response. On the contrary, there is a deliberate attempt to make a case for three beliefs regarding supervision:

1. We believe that supervision requires a super *vision*—a superior perspective attained by special preparation and position. We argue, for example, that a supervisor's education and responsibilities can provide maximum differentiation of conditions and alternatives, bringing a larger view of the instructional mission and process. To the extent that a person is confined to a particular situation and has only a partial or distorted view of teaching and its ends, he is not a supervisor. As a prerequisite to supervision we would require possession of a methodology which respects (a) the learner; (*b*) the disciplined approaches to knowledge; and (c) social conditions. The features of such a methodology consistent with philosophical and psychological imperatives are presented in detail. We believe that a supervisor must be a statesman, able to give direction beyond merely ministering to the organization's equilibrium. To this end, the notion of the supervising statesman is a recurring theme in this text.

2. We believe that those accepting responsibility for selected behavioral changes in learners must be held accountable. For this and other reasons, nearly every chapter advances the notion of supervision by objectives. We feel that the observation of results of instructional practice for both immediate and long-term consequences is consistent with the premise that supervision is itself a process of discovering what values are worthwhile and proper for instructional objectives. Paralleling our advocacy of supervision by objectives is our concern that data and propositions from a number of disciplines be made available to those accepting responsibility for supervision. However, we offer these data and propositions as instruments for (a) defining situations; (*b*) suggesting promising avenues for experimentation; and (c) making more intelligent educational decisions. We do not regard theories from organized disciplines as fixed rules for practice in unique situations. A schema to help clarify this point of view appears in *A Visual Concept of Supervision*.

3. We are committed to the supervisory methods of reason and practical intelligence. The method of reason requires the formulation of explicit purposes to be fulfilled by the school and the direction and dedication of the main energies of all concerned in accordance with these purposes. The method of practical intelligence permits all to judge these purposes. It is necessary to ensure that (a) these formulated purposes do not become

idols which limit freedom; (*b*) the purposes are reinterpreted through judgment of their consequences by those affected in particular situations; and (c) those who are expected to invest their energies can be committed to the purposes and conduct themselves appropriately.

While this book aims at a realistic conception of what constitutes supervision and suggests ways to do better the things that are now necessary, much has been intentionally left to the reader and instructor. Everything that ought to be known about supervision has not been put into the book.

Part One serves as a point of departure by presenting changing views of supervision and the varied roles associated with supervisory positions. It provides requisite descriptive information by which a supervisor can conduct self-appraisal. It sets the stage for a systematic treatment of the human and technical skills associated with successful supervision.

Part Two aims at giving the reader power in observing and interpreting supervisory situations. Research from many sources is used to help the supervisor translate practical supervisory procedures into their theoretical equivalents; to know not merely as a matter of brute fact that certain arrangements work, but to know how and why they work.

Part Three seeks to put the reader in control of the conditions which effect better human relations and increase supervisory effectiveness. These conditions have to do with the elements in human relations, learning, communication processes, and ways of working toward change.

Part Four focuses on those supervisory skills applicable to the evaluation of teacher performance and instruction, and the methods of research. A rationale for curriculum development is presented to help give direction for decisions about *what* and *how* to teach. The supervisor's appropriation of the subject matter in this section should improve his own scholarship and help him to realize more consciously the nature of inquiry and method in supervision.

The planning of this book was a cooperative venture from its inception. Each author contributed suggestions and materials to chapters written by the other. Responsibility for the writing and content of chapters, however, has been placed: J. D. M. for Parts One and Two and Chapter 12; W. H. L. for Parts Three and Four and illustrative figures.

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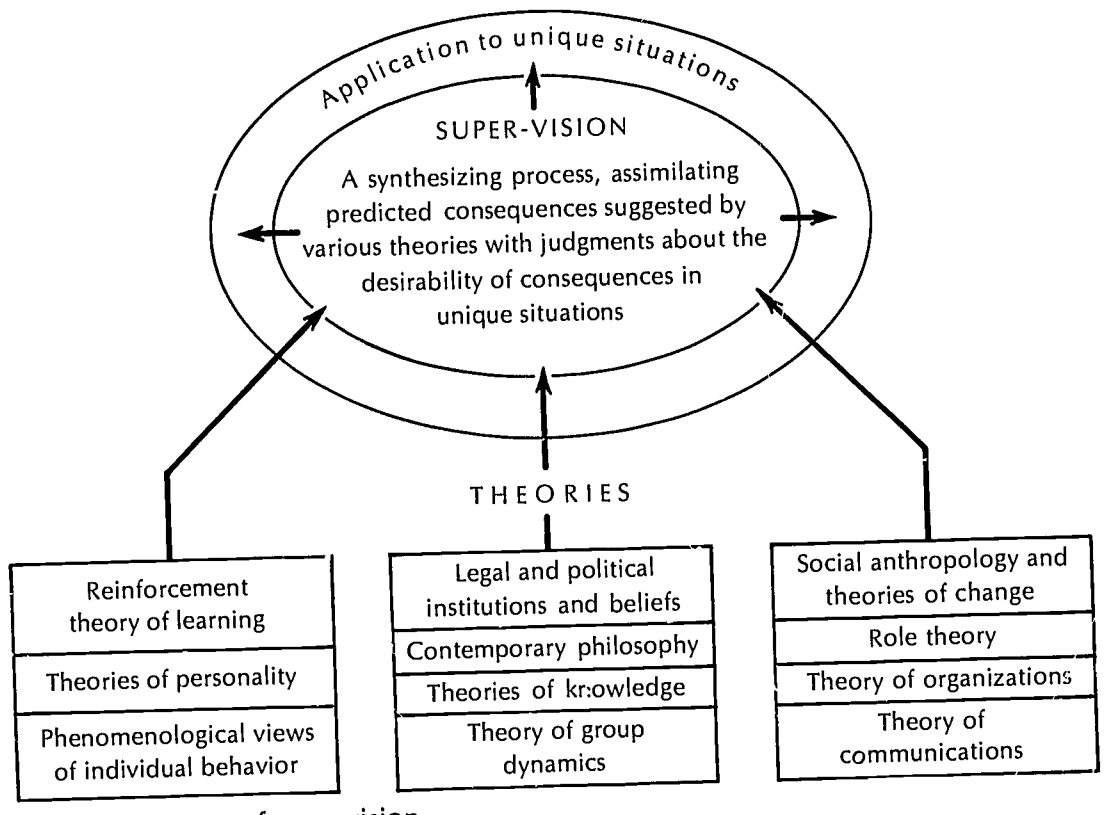

A visual concept of supervision.

PART 1

THE NATURE OF SUPERVISION

ERIC

CHAPTER 3

SELECTION AND PREPARATION OF SUPERVISORS

Organizations with high prestige have long been concerned with selecting and developing key personnel. They have learned from experience that they cannot rely on the individual to acquire by independent effort the range of competence that he would need if he later found himself in a major leadership position. No individual left to his own devices is likely to acquire the wealth of experience essential to effective performance in a top leadership post. In contrast, schools have only recently been concerned with systematically recruiting and developing a select supervisory group. Many schools are still appointing supervisors on the basis of their long service as teachers, their popularity in the faculty, their success in athletics, or other visible activity. It is noteworthy that a supervisor of an English department in a large high school could jest that she was nominated for the position because she lost no textbooks the previous year.

Stimulus for more effective programs of selection and preparation is also generated because of the keen competition among all professions for top-quality manpower. The disturbing acknowledgement by institutions which prepare educational leaders that educa-

tion is losing in the competition for talent has led to (1) proposals for more selective admissions to graduate programs leading to degrees and supervisory credentials, (2) recruitment efforts revealing the attractions of educational leadership, and (3) higher levels of professional preparation for all certified supervisory personnel. There exists the issue of whether education is best served by encouraging large numbers to undertake the study of supervision or by restricting graduate courses in supervision to a small number of highly qualified students.

Conscious of the need for upgrading the quality of leadership, school systems and institutions offering preparation in educational supervision have begun studying means of developing more effective programs of selection and preparation. In order to understand these developments, we shall (1) survey present policies and procedures in the selection of personnel for supervisory positions; (2) evaluate certification requirements; (3) describe trends in the education of supervisors; and (4) review research on leadership, showing its implications for the selection of supervisors.

POLICIES AND PROCEDURES IN THE SELECTION OF SUPERVISORS

Selection Procedures in School Districts

Appointment and advancement in terms of results obtained is a generally accepted method of filling jobs in higher echelons. "Didn't Miss Smith do a superior job with student teachers? . . . All right—advance her to coordinator for English. Didn't pupils and faculty alike praise Ray Harris for the way he guided the student council? . . . All right—recommend him for vice-principal in charge of instruction." These after-the-fact methods are useful in that those who are good leaders in one situation tend to be good leaders in another. They are wasteful in that it is far from certain that an individual who has been good in one position will succeed in another. While both a cooperating teacher and a coordinator exercise supervision, the supervision required in the two cases is not the same kind or of the same order.

Present procedures for selecting instructional leaders are not encouraging. Extensive studies of the methods used by school boards in selecting superintendents, for example, reveal that seldom are there specific procedures or standards of selection. Interviews held with candidates are usually informal visits during which the board member sizes up the applicant by asking whatever questions occur to him. Members of school boards appear to place more em-

phasis on the candidate's appearance, ability to get along with others, and previous experience in a similar position than on his vision as an educational leader. Perspective and statesmanlike leadership, including possession of an educational philosophy, are sometimes not considered of consequence by school board members.

The National Education Association Research Division has surveyed statements of policy for selecting supervisory and administrative personnel. Chief among the findings from this survey are these:[1]

1. Most districts require a master's degree for anyone entering a supervisory position, and usually a minimum number of recent postgraduate courses in supervision are required.

2. Only a few systems set any limitation on age, but experience requirements vary a great deal from city to city. Nearly all school systems require several years of "successful" or "outstanding" teaching experience.

3. Persons already in the school system are given preference for promotion in the majority of school systems. Smaller school districts often, however, find it necessary to consider outsiders in order to find qualified personnel.

4. When there is a supervisory position open, most schools advertise as widely as possible. Methods include posting of announcements in all schools, mentioning the job and its requirements in the superintendent's bulletin, sending a letter to all teachers, and notifying placement bureaus and colleges.

5. Those interested in supervisory positions fill out application forms giving their education, experience, and references. These are usually checked for factual information before the applicant is allowed to go further in the procedures. Sometimes a screening committee at this point eliminates those not considered to be good material.

6. In many school districts examinations are required for those who pass the initial screening process. Often the applicant has to take a written test first. If he passes this, he goes on to an oral examination. The oral examination may be an informal interview or a structured interview with the discussion based on specific points on which the applicant is given a numerical rating on the basis of his replies.

7. Essay and interview sections of the examination are usually rated by committees composed chiefly of administrators appointed by the superintendent. Teachers and representatives of professional organizations serve on these committees occasionally.

8. Some districts have elaborate promotional procedures by which all qualifications of the applicant are given numerical ratings. These ratings

[1] "Policies and Procedures in the Selection of Personnel for Administrative Positions," *Educational Research Service*, American Association of School Administrators and National Education Association Research Division, Washington, Circular no. 6, 1958.

form the basis of a list of eligible candidates. Sometimes school districts which have detailed promotional procedures still reserve the right of the superintendent or the board of education to choose *anyone* they feel is best qualified.

9. A number of school districts have instituted training programs for future school leaders. These programs have various names—in-service, leadership training, internship, and apprenticeship.

Certification Requirements for Supervisors

Responsibility for the selection of supervisors rests not only with local school systems, but indirectly with those who set certification requirements for supervisors and with those in college departments of education who establish minimum standards for admission to programs of preparation. A recurrent point of emphasis in statements of requirements makes recency of education and experience important considerations. Verification of successful public school service of candidates for supervision often includes items such as the following: leadership in education as demonstrated by superior teaching; participation in activities such as curriculum development, individual counseling, community work, teachers' organizations, and supervision of student teachers; and selection by teachers and administrators for special responsibilities.

State certification requirements for supervisors represent the minimum standards established by law and reflect the views of official state committees, including representatives from state education department personnel, teacher-education institutions, professional organizations, as well as many persons in various official positions. In most states school supervisors must have had special preparation through college courses in (1) school organization and administration; (2) supervision: its aims, scope, and desirable outcomes, principles, and practices; (3) curriculum development and construction; (4) evaluation of instruction; and (5) courses appropriate to the type and level of responsibilities of the particular supervisory position.

Certification requirements vary from state to state. A 1964 survey revealed that in 36 of the 50 states there were 71 certificates for supervisors and curriculum workers, and that, of the 71 certificates, 12 were for supervision of special subject-matter areas and 2 entitled the holder to supervise both general and special subject areas.[2] A recent study by a National Committee on Professionalization of Supervisors revealed that present certification practices do

[2] H. Irene Hallberg, "Certification Requirements for General Supervisors and/or Curriculum Workers Today-Tomorrow," *Educational Leadership*, vol. 23, no. 8, pp. 623–624, May, 1966.

not fully meet the criteria used by the committee in judging whether or not certification practices adequately assure qualified and competent supervisors.[3] In the establishment of certification requirements, provision should be made to enforce professional ethics and standards. A certificate should be revoked when an individual does not meet requirements. However, agreed-upon ethics and standards do not yet exist. The practice of supervision today is itself unethical. It is unethical because there is no attempt to find out whether those who are certified are able to improve the learning of pupils through their supervisory efforts or results of training. Too frequently, certificates are given on the basis of successful completion of courses. We lack evidence that the meeting of course requirements makes a difference in the supervisor's ability to effect indirectly or directly the improvement of instruction. MacDonald has eloquently argued that we will enrich our present conceptualization of instruction itself by questioning six assumptions that are commonly accepted as content for courses which purport to prepare supervisors. The assumptions are termed by him "prevalent myths of instruction: the myths of learning theory, human development, structure of the disciplines, modes of inquiry, interaction analysis, and rational decision making."[4]

Among recommendations for improving certification, Hallberg[5] suggests that the number of training institutions be limited in order to bring a balance between supply and demand and to ensure a strong program. In one state, for example, in which there are eight institutions offering course work in supervision, the supply is far in excess of the state's needs. Eash[6] reports that one state in particular has issued over 7,000 licenses although it offers only a few over 260 positions.

Life certificates are not recommended. A provisional certificate for the beginning supervisor should be renewable upon submission of evidence that the holder is effective in supervision.

PREPARATION OF SUPERVISORS

In general, recommendations for the advanced preparation of supervisors are comprehensive and suggest modifying traditional concepts of scheduling and methods of instruction. The suggested

[3] Barbara A. Hartsig, "Professionalization of Supervisors and Curriculum Workers," *Educational Leadership*, vol. 24, no. 3, p. 268, December, 1966.
[4] James B. MacDonald, "Myths about Instruction," *Educational Leadership*, vol. 22, no. 7, p. 571, May, 1965.
[5] Hallberg, *op. cit.*
[6] Maurice J. Eash, "Preparatory Programs for Supervisors," *Educational Leadership*, vol. 23, no. 5, p. 360, February, 1966.

programs usually emphasize the ways teachers can be helped in the specific field to be supervised, including information on materials of instruction, their sources, availability, criteria for selection, and techniques of utilization. Preparation in the techniques of supervision gives attention to the selection, placement, and orientation of teachers, in-service programs, and evaluation of teaching success. Candidates study a variety of ways in which people work together successfully and analyze both individual and group behavior to learn how people may be helped in their professional adjustments and interpersonal relations. Practice in the use of group processes, which includes ways of organizing groups, planning, securing participation, and problem solving, is recommended.

Experiences directed toward improvement of the skills of communication are frequently provided. These include practice in oral and written reporting, speaking to community groups, writing press releases, and preparing supervisory bulletins. With respect to curriculum development, the prospective supervisor becomes familiar with programs in both large and small school systems and identifies the behaviors of the supervisor in encouraging curriculum activity. He studies the roles of professional and lay persons in the establishment of instructional goals. He learns how to use the findings of research and to engage in inquiry himself. He becomes familiar with a number of special answers to the problem of providing for individual differences and evaluating the total learning process.

The candidate for a supervisory position is expected to have a clear understanding of the responsibility and relationship of teachers, administrators, supervisors, and members of governing boards in the organization of school systems and in the profession. This understanding is assumed to come about as he has the opportunity to practice the behavior believed to be most appropriate in meeting the problems of community-school interactions.

The Internship

A popular design for the program of preparation is the internship. Internship aims at relating theory and practice. The supervisory intern is given actual responsibility for supervising others in school settings while under the direct supervision of both (1) selected practitioners in the school and (2) university instructors.

Although variations exist in the procedures for conduct of the internship, the following illustrate common operations:

1 *Recruitment.* Candidates are sought from the school systems. School leaders are asked to nominate persons who have already

demonstrated leadership and who have evidenced intellectual and emotional abilities.

In some systems, such as those operating in the state of Georgia,[7] nominations are made by teachers and administrators with the idea that the nominees will "come back to our own system," not necessarily to work elsewhere.

2 *Preparation for supervision while teaching.* The candidate is assisted by leaders in the local school district who make available a variety of experiences. He may accept leadership responsibilities in school and community committees, serve as a resource person to teachers, participate in meeting with supervisors, and help a supervisor in his daily work.

3 *Attendance at a summer institute for school leaders.* The candidate attends a summer program. Each person's position involves him as a member of a leadership team.

a The team spends about two hours each day considering how the principles of supervision, basic teaching-learning processes, and human development and behavior apply on the job.

b For another block of time, the candidate has opportunities to work with school leaders in the study of problems of common interest. For example, an interest group dealing with initiating a system-wide testing program studies the values and limitations of tests, the selection and administration of tests, and the interpretation and use of test data. They then "spell out" the responsibilities of each school leader in this task. The program offers much opportunity for seeing how problems might be viewed by those in other leadership positions; for holding conferences, reading and preparing reports; and for considering how principles learned will apply in the particular situation in which each member expects to be working as a supervisor in the fall.

c Preparation for the fall assignment in a school system is also undertaken during the summer. Candidates visit the school system to secure first-hand knowledge of programs, plans, and problems and to meet many of the principals and teachers as well as parents and children. Visits to community agencies and groups are included at this time.

d Supervisors at the workshop become familiar with the services provided by the state department of education, meeting consultants who are available to work with them and learning ways the supervisor can assist the department with state-wide activities and service.

4 *Participation in the first year of internship.* The candidate is employed as a full-time supervisor while enrolled at the university for

[7] Johnnye V. Cox, "Selection and Recruitment of Supervisors," *Educational Leadership*, vol. 24, no. 1, pp. 47–51, October, 1966.

the internship. During the internship, there are monthly meetings with the university adviser for help with personal problems, for evaluation of supervisory activities, and for planning new learning experiences. Records of supervisory activities are regularly kept, and a copy is given to the adviser weekly. All supervisors participating in the internship meet for several three-day conferences where they share materials and study problems of common concern. Leaders for the conference are the supervisors themselves, although help is given them by resource persons from the university and personnel from the state department of education. Assessment of the intern's understandings and skills in major supervisory functions is determined at this conference, and this evaluation is used for planning work to be undertaken at the university in the summer. The second summer program at the university features development of an action research study in connection with a problem of common concern to the supervisor and other school personnel.

5 *Participation in the second year of internship.* On-the-job study during the second year of internship is concentrated on the action research project formulated during the spring and summer. At the end of the second year and third summer session, the candidate receives a six-year diploma and is designated as a "specialist in supervision."

The number of internships and the number of institutions offering them are increasing. Internships offered in the several training institutions are organized on varying time bases, have no common denominator as to types or extent of experiences provided for the intern, and are characterized by few common standards of supervisory procedure.[8] Using a judgmental procedure with twenty professional experts, Baber was able to list four criteria for evaluating these programs:[9]

1 The internship should consist largely of significant work necessary to the well-being of an on-going educational program—not of so-called "made" work.
2 The internship should provide substantial opportunity for creative thought and action on the part of the intern.
3 The internship should make provision for joint planning, action, and evaluation by the intern, his college adviser, and the supervisory administrator in the cooperating school community.
4 The internship should make provision for flexibility in the type of assignment to meet better the needs and interests of the individual intern as determined by himself and his advisers.

[8] Eric R. Baber, "A Critical Appraisal of Internship Theories and Practices Relating to the Professional Preparation of Educational Administrators," unpublished Ed.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Mich., 1953.
[9] *Ibid.*

Review of references concerning the internship[10] leads to the conclusion, however, that the internship is far from perfect. Chief among the improvements to be made are: (1) more specific definition of desired learning and specification of what will constitute evidence that the learnings have been reached by the candidate, (2) more effective supervision of the candidate and his work, (3) a stable method of financing the internship, and (4) research to check out the effects of internship and ways to improve it.

Internship programs offer the advantage of improving the relationships between colleges and school communities. Through these arrangements, school systems become acquainted with the philosophy of the institutions preparing supervisors, and in turn, the institutions gain a better understanding of local problems and practices. Theory and practice go hand in hand, raising the level of the profession. It is important, however, that experiences in the program do not become disconnected, repetitive, and divorced from theory. The candidate should be helped to discriminate between desirable and undesirable practices observed in the field situation, and care should be taken that he is not subjected to repetition of routine tasks in which he has previously demonstrated competence.

Other Criteria and Programs for the Preparation of Supervisors

It is emphasized that the internship is only one method by which programs for the preparation of supervisors can be more effective. Attempts to make classroom work, seminars, surveys, and field trips more highly significant are under way. The Commission on Colleges and Universities of the North Central Association, for example, adopted these recommendations for programs preparing supervisors:[11]

1. Attention should be given to specific needs of individual students, yet a coherent and organized program—not a collection of miscellaneous courses—should be offered. Needs of individuals should be based on the competence and qualities sought.

2. The institution should clearly define the basic knowledge and com-

[10] Daniel R. Davies, *The Internship in Educational Administration,* Center for Applied Research in Education, Washington, 1962.

Stephen Hencley (ed.), *Administrative Preparation,* University Council for Educational Administration and Committee for Advancement of School Administration, Columbus, Ohio, 1963.

[11] *North Central Association Quarterly,* vol. 33, no. 3, pp. 210–227, January, 1959.

petences requisite for the given specialty, and the students' work should be centered around this basic content.

3. In the interest of maintaining a level of work that is truly of graduate caliber, the number of courses open to both graduate and undergraduate students should be limited.

4. A special research project should be required as part of the program. The particular type of project may follow any one of a variety of directions. The project should allow the student to demonstrate his technical skill in the field of specialization and his recognition of the implications of his specialty for the educational enterprise in general.

5. The institution should set a definite time limit within which the program can be completed. When too long a period of time lapses, the impact of the concentrated work required for developing a high level of specialized skill may be lost.

With respect to entering a specialist program, the Commission makes the following recommendations:

1. Possession of a master's degree or the equivalent in academic training.

2. Previous experience appropriate to area of specialization. A curriculum coordinator should probably have had a certain amount of teaching experience at the school level where he intends to pursue his specialty.

Programs for the Continuing Development of Supervisors

Many preparing institutions train for uncertainty and for further inquiry. Typical of the open-ended attitude of some graduate schools is the story of a dean who remarked at commencement, "One-half of what you have learned here is false; unfortunately, we don't know which half."

The answers to the problem of continuity of learning rest upon the habits of learning how to learn, which the supervisor can be led to acquire. Part of this preparation entails saturating the supervisor with the teachings of social, psychological, and ethical philosophy of education as well as equipping him to be a student of the subject matter with which he is to deal. The principles of these fields, however, must be incorporated in his thought processes—in the very way he observes instructional situations and plans courses of action. It is more important for the supervisor to fix his controlling habits in line with the theories of his foundation disciplines than to imitate current practices which he sees succeed in an empirical way. Without theory, his methods will be picked up through blind trial and error. Any immediate supervisory skill acquired only from nonrational observation of experienced and successful supervisors will be at the cost of the power to go on learning. The supervisor who

leaves the professional school with immediate proficiency in a number of techniques associated with supervision but who lacks the inquiring qualities of a student of education is not likely to grow as a director of learning. Similar conclusions have been reached regarding the preparation of teachers. "How often do candid instructors in training schools for teachers acknowledge disappointment in the later careers of even their most promising candidates! They seem to strike twelve at the start. There is an unexpected and seemingly unaccountable failure to maintain steady growth. Is this in some part due to the undue premature stress laid in early practice work upon securing immediate capability? . . ."[12]

Instead of criticizing the trainee too specifically, instructors in the university, for instance, should direct their efforts to getting the novice supervisor to judge his own work critically, to find out in what ways he has succeeded or failed, and to discover the probable reasons for both success and failure.

Use of Simulation as an Instructional Method in the Preparation of Supervisors

Simulative materials are being used to relate theoretical concepts to practical problems and to encourage self-learning among those preparing for educational leadership.[13] These materials presently include a variety of both printed and audio-visual aids by which selected representations of supervisory situations are presented to those in training. Participants in simulated situations actually work within the context of an elaborate case study as they assume certain supervisory positions in the study. The procedure calls for each member to act—not merely to tell what action would be desirable. Analysis of consequences of action, study of background materials, role playing, making of decisions, and discussion afforded by the simulative process are generally found to be helpful. A key advantage of this method is that the instructor can get realism in his teaching, yet control this realism so that it results in better understanding of the concepts and theory for attacking and solving educational problems. The specific problems are examined against pertinent background information designed to help one acquire the "ability to see the whole picture—each problem in its broader con-

[12] John Dewey, in Charles A. McMurry (ed.), *The Relation of Theory to Practice in the Education of Teachers*, Third Yearbook, National Society for the Scientific Study of Education, Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1904, pp. 15–16.
[13] Jack A. Culbertson and William H. Coffield (eds.), *Simulation in Administrative Training*, The University Council for Educational Administration, Columbus, Ohio, 1960.

text."[14] In addition, because simulation provides many opportunities for learner performance, the novice supervisor has the chance to assess his competencies in relation to a range of supervisory demands.

In-service Education for Supervisors

Because vastly greater numbers of working supervisors need the help of professional resources than do the smaller number of those who will be new to the job each year, cooperating programs for in-service supervisors have been established. Professional organizations, school authorities, and colleges are working together in offering in-service training programs especially designed to meet needs over and above the traditional degree requirements. These in-service practices include research undertakings, workshops, clinics, school study councils, informal seminars, and professional conferences—all of which are often carried on with the cooperation of school systems, state departments of education, and universities. Organizationally, however, we have seldom arrived at a program which carries the authority, standards, and conditions of work in a university and offers an equal partnership to school districts in meeting their special demands.

There is evidence that our present practice, which fosters the tradition of self-responsibility for professional development among teachers and supervisors, is proving inadequate as a means of assuring up-to-date competence.[15] As professionals, both teachers and supervisors have assumed responsibility for their own development by attending seminars, summer programs, and even classes at their own expense and on their own time. As long as changes in schools were infrequent, this tradition enabled the more motivated to avoid professional obsolescence. However, today the changes in curriculum leave the teacher and supervisor with no option other than changing. In this age of vigorous production of knowledge, a supervisor as well as a teacher can quickly lose touch with contemporary thought and action. As suggested by the Little report, it will become necessary to provide greater amounts of in-service training to both teachers and supervisors and to underwrite the costs of additional education as an incentive to professional development. This support

[14] *Professional Administrators for America's Schools*, American Association of School Administrators, Washington, 1960, p. 44.
[15] Arthur D. Little, Inc., *The Emerging Requirements for Effective Leadership for California Education*, California State Department of Education, Sacramento, Calif., November, 1964, p. 46.

can include such items as tuition refunds, paid leaves for study purposes, and required participation in institutes and projects. Let us reiterate, however, the point that mere attendance at training sessions does not assure that the participant has gained the competence desired. We need evidence, for instance, that as a result of training, supervisors (1) can state instructional objectives in behavioral terms, (2) given an objective, can state the prerequisites that a learner would have to acquire or possess before he could reach the objective, (3) given a teaching episode, can describe what they saw in terms of a specified analytical scheme—and, above all, not confuse their descriptions with their inferences and judgments.

Development through Analysis of Performance

Although a long-range objective of a school district's supervisory development program may call for the development of people, an immediate objective is to help every supervisor improve his performance in his present position. In doing this, the supervisor is, of course, encouraged to prepare for increasing responsibilities. Less emphasis is placed upon a supervisor's personal and personality qualifications as a potential for promotion and more on the results he is able to achieve in his present work. Acceptance of the principle that "all development is self-development" has led to the supervisor's sharing in the responsibility for analyzing his performance and setting up a development plan. One illustration is found in the situation where a superintendent of schools and a director of instruction agree at the start of the year on the objectives the director is to accomplish. They also agree on what will constitute evidence of whether the objectives are reached or not. Twelve months later the two review the accomplishments against the objectives and decide what is to be done the following year, the subordinate taking the lead in determining the developmental action necessary in light of the appraisal. This kind of developmental program promotes better understanding of the performance expected, and enables the supervisor, in this case the superintendent, to see how certain weaknesses on the part of others (the director) might be traceable to his own weaknesses in supervision.

Development through the Training Laboratory and Sensitivity Programs

Some supervisory development programs try to help supervisors achieve emotional maturity as a leadership variable. The criterion

for such maturity is usually "how fully one says what he thinks, holding a conviction, but balancing it with a respect for others." Underlying this goal is the assumption mentioned earlier that one matures only through a knowledge of self. A leader is held to be one who is sure of himself, not threatened by the expressions of others' or his own feelings, and secure with his own position. However, ventures into the realm of personal help to supervisors, which have become numerous[16] in education and industry alike, carry with them the need for distinguishing between psychological therapy and education for supervision.

The Research Center for Group Dynamics of the University of Michigan, with the Department of Adult Education, National Education Association, has been responsible for operating a national training laboratory which seeks to help leaders behave in such a way that they solve problems effectively and have individually satisfying experiences. In England, the Tavistock Institute of Human Relations has engaged in research into ways supervisors can develop the ideas, attitudes, and skills of others. Findings from these research centers in group dynamics are tried and transmitted through the various developmental programs for supervisors. Methods taught in the programs are of importance in furthering the leadership skills of supervisors and the continuing growth of the supervisor himself.

Among the problems frequently considered in training programs are those of handling conflict and disagreement. Training procedures lead not only to understanding of the nature of conflict but also to recognition of the feeling which accompanies attempts to resolve it. The faith exists that warm human relations grow out of conflict actually experienced by the participants. The following assumptions and practices are often found in supervisory development programs:

Assumptions

1 Knowledge is important when it carries import for its possessor.
2 Learning is the remaking of experience which makes a difference in the behavior of the learner.

[16] Cyril Sofer and Geoffrey Hutton, *New Ways in Management Training*, Tavistock Publications Limited, London, 1958.

Nathaniel Cantor, *The Learning Process for Managers*, Harper & Row, Publishers, Incorporated, New York, 1958.

National Society for the Study of Education, *In-service for Teachers, Supervisors, and Administrators*, Fifty-sixth Yearbook, The University of Chicago Press, Chicago, 1957.

Marty Lakin, "Feelings and Group Action," *Report of the Second Annual National Training Laboratory in Community Leadership Training*, National Education Association, Washington, 1961.

3 Learning occurs only as one can emotionally afford to learn.
4 We seek to dominate others because of our own felt inadequacies.

Practices in Sensitivity Training

1 There are numerous opportunities to diagnose the group's difficulties and feelings, and the member's perception of others.
2 The atmosphere permits expression of unpopular and disagreeable feelings relevant to the problem in order for change to occur.
3 The change sought in an individual's performance is more than an intelligent adaptation; it is a whole new pattern of personality which carries over into other situations.
4 Those seeking to improve their supervisory potential try to acquire an increased sensitivity to social and psychological situations and to the consequences of organizational changes, rather than precise answers and formalities.

The kind of sensitivity training which deals with people's feelings, tension release, and sensitive situations in which participants learn to express themselves and to understand the communications they are making is not necessarily void of reason. There is a connection between intellectual and emotional behavior. MacMurray[17] speaks of a rationality of feeling. A thought is rational when it fits accurately the object or the situation to which it refers; so, too, an emotion is rational when it fits the occasion. In his address before the American Psychological Association in 1966, Farson revealed that in his role as consultant he is coming to rely more and more on his visceral reactions to people and organizations—trusting these reactions as valid, as important data. "I ask myself, 'Why do I feel this way? What about this organization makes me have this reaction?' More often than not, I have been getting an important signal from my gut about what is really going on. When I trust it as I would a friend, I can usually help; when I fight it as I would an enemy, I get into trouble."[18]

Those most concerned with intelligent behavior in organizations have long been interested in finding techniques that may be used to prevent emotions from blocking rationality. Mannheim, for example, saw the group approaches of psychoanalysis as a means not only to individual self-understanding but for dealing with the maladjustments of groups and institutions.[19] Others who favor the

[17] John MacMurray, "Developing Emotions," *Saturday Review*, Sept. 13, 1958.
[18] Richard E. Farson, "Paradoxes in Consulting with Community Organizations," paper presented before the American Psychological Association, New York, Sept. 4, 1966.
[19] Karl Mannheim, *Man and Society in an Age of Reconstruction*, Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., New York, 1941, p. 84.

method of practical intelligence deliberately involve emotion in the process of judgment. Practical judgment is said to be "the process in which people are educated to see the significance of emotions and drives, so that they come to use them effectively in securing personal and social satisfaction as part of an intelligent method of creating bonds of community.[20] Generally, recognition of our feelings with regard to a problem is the beginning of intelligent behavior.

Obviously, those offering training programs for supervisors are not always successful. Sometimes supervisors grasp the course in the sense of understanding its intellectual content but are not able to achieve greater effectiveness in behavior. The personality differences of some supervisors inhibit them from making appreciable use of training. Also, the requirements of supervisory situations vary so widely that it is difficult to provide all that supervisors may want or need. A critique of the kinds of training programs offered by the National Training Laboratory's Gould Academy in Bethel, Maine; the Western Training Laboratory's Lake Arrowhead Center in California; and their rapidly increasing imitators appear in Tarcher's *Leadership and the Power of Ideas.*[21] Among other things Tarcher points out the limitations of sensitivity training including (1) the difficulty of applying the "new learnings" in the real world outside the retreat of the laboratory and (2) the failure of the trainees to provide the leaders with a framework of values applicable to their daily lives.

QUALITIES SOUGHT IN SUPERVISORS

Admittedly, behavior and qualities identified with successful supervision are not necessarily the same as those behaviors and qualities which facilitate ascent to supervisory positions. Nevertheless, clues to supervisory potential can be found through analysis of the leadership characteristics which enable a supervisor to maintain his leadership position.

We have already noted that one objective criterion of leadership in supervision resides in the extent to which the supervisor exercises influence over others. This ability may be treated separately from the power to change the behavior of others because of an official position with its accompanying sanctions, such as ratings and the power of recommendation. A second index of leadership

[20] Margaret Fisher, *Leadership and Intelligence*, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, 1954, p. 105.
[21] Martin Tarcher, *Leadership and the Power of Ideas*, Harper & Row, Publishers, Incorporated, New York, 1966.

behavior is the degree to which the organization or group for which one is responsible functions as a unit. The achievement of unity is closely associated with the goal-setting and communication behavior of the supervisor. Only a limited number of other characteristics of leadership behavior have been identified; among them are technical proficiency, initiating and directing action, consideration for followers, stressing of production, and social awareness.[22]

Let us reiterate that the research on leadership makes a distinction between the performance of a leader *as a leader* and the effectiveness of the performance of the group that he leads. The person who will emerge as a leader in a group or who will be seen as a leader independent of the effects of his leadership is likely to display the following characteristics:

1 Individual personality characteristics—extrovert, assertive, socially mature
2 Education but not age or other biographical characteristics
3 Intelligence, general ability, and task ability
4 Training in leader techniques[23]

However, there is no conclusive evidence that the presence of such a leader makes any difference in terms of the task performance of those with whom he is working. In fact, group members' estimates of performance capabilities of leaders as well as their peers do not relate very well to actual (objectively measured) performance.

As indicated previously, leadership is differently evaluated by those above and below. In a school organization those who hold positions superior to that of the supervisor expect him to insist upon rather strict discipline and to follow closely standard operating procedures. Many school boards want a supervisor who has the ability to:

1. Sell, push, pressure, persuade teachers to improvement and loyalty to the system
2. Collect facts, weigh them, and make effective decisions
3. Know the board's policies, objectives, and practices of the district
4. Communicate policies and practices clearly to teachers
5. Evaluate performance according to the board's policies and procedures

On the other hand, the supervisor's subordinates "expect and value his mingling with them, his use of consultation procedures, his showing consideration for them and their needs, and his being socially sensitive."[24]

[22] Cecil B. Gibb, "Leadership," in Gardner Lindzey (ed.), *Handbook of Social Psychology*, Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, Inc., Reading, Mass., 1954, p. 916.
[23] Joseph E. McGrath and Irwin Altman, *Small Group Research*, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., New York, 1966.
[24] *Ibid.*, p. 916.

The expectations of the task and the institutionalization of the group are all factors in the situation to which the leader must adapt. In a steeply hierarchical school organization the most effective leader is one who recognizes the structure and conforms closely to its expectations.[25]

It is generally true that teachers prefer a supervisor who "goes to bat" for them and sides with them in conflicts with higher authorities. However, if a supervisor sides with the teachers but is not capable of influencing the authorities in the teachers' behalf, it is unlikely that the teachers will want him for their supervisor. In one study in an industrial situation, for instance, Pelz found that supportive behavior from the supervisor resulted in employee satisfaction only in the presence of influence upon higher echelons. It was the combination of these two conditions (supportive behavior and influence with authorities) which went with higher satisfaction.[26]

The teacher may not want less consideration behavior but, recognizing the organizational context, he knows he must satisfy himself with less personal attention from his supervisor in order that the supervisor may, in turn, interact more freely with higher authorities and thus exercise greater influence upon them.

Different people want different kinds of leaders. Sanford[27] found that authoritarians prefer status-laden leadership—strong authority and direction on the part of the supervisor. Toward weak leaders they express open hostility. Contrarily, equalitarians are able to accept strong leadership if the situation demands it, but they have no need for powerful authorities. Authoritarians care little for personal warmth in their leader but they do demand that he contribute to their movement toward group and individual goals. "Equalitarians are inclined to evaluate leaders in terms of their 'human relations' behavior and their group process rather than goal orientation. . . . Authoritarians are dissatisfied and uncomfortable under a non-directive leader. A group of equalitarians could expected to go into a decline under a rigid and directive leader.[28]

Blumberg and Amidon[29] have shown that the teacher's feelings about his usefulness and the productivity of a supervisory conference are affected by the manner in which he perceives the super-

[25] *Ibid.*, p. 896.
[26] D. C. Pelz, "Leadership within a Hierarchical Organization," *Journal of Social Issues*, vol. 7, pp. 49–55, 1951.
[27] F. H. Sanford, "Research on Military Leadership," *Psychology in the World Emergency*, The University of Pittsburgh Press, Pittsburgh, Pa., 1952, pp. 17–74.
[28] *Ibid.*, p. 45.
[29] Arthur Blumberg and Edmund Amidon, *Teacher Perceptions of Supervisor-Teacher Interaction*, vol. XIV, no. 1, September, 1965.

visor's behavior. One implication from this study is that the supervisor might engage the teacher in a discussion of how the teacher perceives the supervisor-teacher relationship before he selects his supervisory strategy.

There is no doubt that the confusion over supervisory functions is a major factor in the confusion over the qualities sought in the supervisor. If the only function of supervision is to engage in routine decision making, the selection and preparation of supervisors will not be as extensive as it will be if supervisors are expected to serve as supervisory statesmen with important responsibility for making critical decisions affecting the school's development.

Trait Analysis and Personality Assessment

Early analyses of leadership and supervision included lists of the traits and other characteristics which in the opinion of the analyst were important in the performance of the job. Such lists not only suffered from the use of vague terms but appeared almost contradictory: "flexibility," "Catonian strength of conviction," "common sense," "imagination." Further, those who listed traits designated as necessary for a supervisor to possess usually did not suggest which traits were most important and which least, nor did they note how the same trait functions differently in personalities which are organized differently. Height, weight, energy, self-confidence, talkativeness, geniality, originality, and numerous other personality traits do not consistently characterize leaders. Underlying the "trait theory" of leadership is the assumption that leadership resides in an individual, that it is a possession which he is capable of producing in different groups and in different situations. A more supportable contention is that a person does not become a leader because of his pattern of personality traits, but because these traits bear some relevance to the characteristics, activities, and goals of the group of which he is a leader. When Moore found that many of the twenty-four school districts he studied rejected candidates for administrative appointments when the candidates scored high in aggression, authoritarianism, and approved of disciplinary techniques in classroom procedures, he gave us more information about the districts than he did about leadership.[30]

Earlier in this chapter the importance of intelligence was stressed in connection with education's competitive race for talent.

[30] Robert B. Moore, "Selecting Administrators through Testing," *Administrator's Notebook*, vol. 10, pp. 1–4, April, 1962.

Even this factor, however, is not the "general leadership trait" which some seek. Investigations of the relationship between leadership and general intelligence lead to the conclusion that while every increment of intelligence means wiser leadership, people prefer to be led—even ill-led—by those they can understand. Leaders are, in general, more intelligent than followers, but they must not exceed the followers by too great a margin. Presumably, wide discrepancies render improbable the unified purpose of the individuals concerned. Hollingworth,[31] for example, stated that a leadership pattern will not form or will break up when a discrepancy of more than 30 points exists between the IQs of the leader and the led.

Were it not for the hierarchical structure of the school system, a supervisor would not be expected to retain leadership in group activities. Inasmuch as his individual characteristics would be more stable than the goals and interpersonal relations in the group situation, the leadership would be passed among members as they were able to contribute to group achievement.

Although the personality of the leader makes a difference in group performance, it is the evaluation of that personality by others in the situation which is important. No person can be conceived of as an informal leader until he shares a problem, communicates with others about the problem, and gets support for his ideas. Trait analysis obscures the fact that a supervisor's behavior varies with the particular situation. A coordinator may be self-confident with a teacher but lack confidence with the superintendent. In any case we can predict member performance in group situations more consistently from knowledge of intelligence and job-related characteristics than from personal-social properties.

The Assessment Center of the Measurement of Potential for Business Management has obtained some findings of relevance to techniques to be used in predicting future successful supervisors.[32] In trying to predict which individuals would show subsequent progress in management, the investigators in this nine-year study found that situational methodology (group exercises and in-basket) and paper-and-pencil ability tests were predictive of progress whereas none of the personality questionnaires used in the study correlated consistently with the criterion.

The Institute for Personality Assessment and Research, University of California, Berkeley, has chosen different emphases in

[31] Leta S. Hollingworth, *Children above 180 IQ*, World Book Company, Yonkers, N.Y., 1942, p. 287.
[32] Douglas W. Bray and Donald L. Grant, *Psychological Monographs*, vol. 80, no. 17, pp. 1–24.

trying to assess individuals in making decisions. These emphases grew from the distinctive methods used by the Office of Strategic Services during World War II to select men for assignments in irregular warfare. The Institute has studied persons by bringing them together with a staff of psychologists for a period of several days at an assessment center. Here, the subjects are studied in a range of situations involving, for example, real life problems, abstract problem solving, projective personality tests, objective attitude and interest inventories, and social interviews.[33] Some of the evidence that is accumulating suggests that effective persons have much in common in their cognitive flexibility, high verbal skills, and interest in as well as accuracy in communication with others.

Personality assessment, as reported by MacKinnon, includes the preparation of a psychological description and analysis of the physical, interpersonal, and group situations in which the candidate will function in the future if selected. Such an analysis requires understanding of the nature of the professional function itself, what it asks of its practitioners, and the rewards it offers. "For until we know these, we do not know what aspects of a person's capacities and needs we should assess."[34]

Motives for Becoming a Supervisor

Among the factors sometimes looked for in the selection of a supervisor is that of motivation. Granted that there must be a willingness to accept the position and the responsibilities involved, it is equally important to develop the organizational structure which will enable those of different motivations to render high-level service regardless of their individual differences.

The hypothesis that people seek supervisory positions and eminence because of economic reward has been proposed. Eighty per cent of the teachers in the two southern California counties of Los Angeles and Orange wanted to go into administration at one time, primarily because of higher pay. On the other hand, the wide variability in material rewards among supervisory positions indicates that there are other incentives running through the striving for eminence and leadership. The position of supervisor often admits one into attractive associations that make possible ego-satisfying friendships and memberships. Knowing whose approval is sought by a candidate often enables one to predict his behavior.

[33] Donald W. MacKinnon, "Identifying the Effective Teacher, *California Journal for Instructional Improvement*, vol. 1, no. 1, pp. 8–13, October, 1958.
[34] *Ibid.*, p. 10.

Lauterbach[35] declares that financial incentives are part of a complex motivation reflecting needs for self-assertion, personal security, and social status. Money is important, but this incentive is likely to be unconsciously neglected when at odds with deeper needs. In Bertrand Russell's words, "What people fear when they engage in the struggle is not that they will fail to get their breakfast next morning, but that they will fail to outshine their neighbors."[36] "It is relative income which measures success."[37] Coordinators have been known to seek salary increases aggressively, admitting their action to be prompted chiefly by a desire to maintain a status differential with other supervisory classifications.

Occasionally a supervisor will go from a well-paying position in one district to another job elsewhere which pays less but promises to give him more voice in the decision-making process or more independence of action. Satisfaction can be built into a position through responsibility and a sense of the importance of the work and the value of the enterprise.

It may be that some who seek to be supervisors want to devote themselves to service for others and to gain satisfaction from a feeling of power over them. This is one way of achieving a sense of worthwhileness. The will for power and service may be associated with pathological manipulations: "exaggerated ideas of success, combined with a drive to overwork; constant inner tension, stemming from inner passivity, regardless of the importance of the stakes; a propelling impetus toward more and more success; dissatisfaction and boredom if deprived of new excitement and resulting opportunities to show off."[38] Without realizing it, the seeker of position may be trying to prove to himself and to others that he is a worthy person. Sensing rather than recognizing his inadequacies, he seeks reassurance by winning a position. Obviously, this success is only temporary, for one cannot be reassured about something he feels he does not really have. Continuous seeking of other reasurrances is likely to be the pattern.

The search for self-esteem through a leadership position need not be aggressive or objectionable. Recognition of one's own desire to dominate and control can lead to freer and closer relations with others and to a diminished need to exploit others because of an unresolved tension. Further, egoistic motives for self-advancement, just as altruistic motives, can be harnessed by supervision to the

[35] Albert Lauterbach, *Man, Motives and Money*, Cornell University Press, Ithaca, N.Y., 1954, p. 19.
[36] Bertrand Russell, *The Conquest of Happiness*, George Allen & Unwin, Ltd., London, 1937, p. 30.
[37] Lauterbach, *op. cit.*, p. 40.
[38] *Ibid.*, p. 52.

benefit of all. The supervisor is able to find personal reward while helping to provide good aims, appropriate means, and satisfying outcomes for those who engage with him in the supervisory enterprise. The important question in the selection of a supervisor is not whether he seeks leadership, service, or opportunity for research, but whether he has the ability to do the job. His effectiveness is more likely to depend on his relations with others than on his motives for taking the position. Eventually, he must prove himself and his competencies to others.

Drawbacks of Becoming a Supervisor

Where teaching is a low-status position, many will not accept supervisory positions which exist on a temporary basis because of the severe loss of status accompanying a return to a teaching assignment. Also, whether a teacher is willing to vacate his status as a teacher may depend on the extent to which he anticipates an estrangement from his fellow teachers and an acceptance by new associates. He may be afraid that he will be regarded as a "climber," one suitable for vilification. The effects of promotions have long been noted:

> To dissipate this awkward feeling, I have been fain to go among them once or twice since; to visit my old desk fellows—my co-brethren of the quill—that I had left below in the state militant. Not all the kindness with which they received me could quite restore to me that pleasant familiarity which I had heretofore enjoyed among them. We cracked some of our old jokes, but methought they went off but faintly.[39]

Many teachers do not particularly care to "get ahead." They have found rewards through their interest in a field of knowledge and their ability to work with children. Needing no escape from the classroom, these teachers find freedom in teaching. Many who prefer to work directly with youngsters are resentful of the salary differentials between classroom teachers and supervisors. Unquestionably, the higher salary level of supervisors weakens the attractions of teaching as a career. Professional organizations and schools of education are seriously hunting ways to give greater status to teaching in order that it will not be necessary to take advanced work in supervision and administration solely for a top salary or a professional degree. Granting a doctorate in pedagogy to those who possess unusual understanding and competence in their classroom teaching and making available opportunities for teachers to receive high salaries might keep more master teachers in continuous con-

[39] Charles Lamb, "The Superannuated Man," *The Essays of Elia and The Last Essays of Elia*, The Macmillan Company, New York, 1925, p. 286.

tact with pupils. It would also be desirable in helping to prevent teachers from experiencing the bitterness and withdrawal that often follow failure to be selected as a supervisor.

In response to a construct prepared by Presthus[40] which included "upward mobiles"—those who aspire to higher positions—and "nonmobiles"—those who have no such mobility aspirations, Powers[41] related personal characteristics to individuals identified as (1) mobile, (2) nonmobile, and (3) inmobile—those who aspired but were rejected for advancement. The results suggest that the similarities of characteristics between mobiles and nonmobiles do not permit identifying an upward mobile as a unique type. Those who sought advancement and didn't get it tended to regard moving upward in the organization as a means for obtaining greater prestige, authority, and responsibility; while mobiles viewed advancement as an opportunity for improving one's income and for making greater contributions to the field of education. Those selected for advancement identified more with either the values of the organization or the needs of the people in the organization than did those who were passed over. Nonmobiles indicated that advancement was viewed by them as disruptive of established personal ties with students, teachers, and family or as too demanding or uninteresting in terms of responsibilities.

It appears that the number of conspicuous positions and the chances for attaining them will not correspond to the number of those who are hopeful of securing them. Sociologists have documented the pressure which our society places upon ambition. Carnegie's "Be a king in your dreams" and "Say to yourself, 'my place is at the top,' " and the idea that "There is no such word as fail" produce frustrations for those who do not make the supervisory or administrative lists. The loss of central goals, resignation from responsibility, cynicism, and indifference are not uncommon following such experiences. Also, one can observe the anxious and overcompliance characteristics of marionettes found among some who aspire to meet the expectations of those who have the power to promote.

Predictions regarding Future Selection Procedures

Techniques for finding and evaluating the supervisory potential are both little known and costly. Few systems would undertake a selec-

[40] Robert Presthus, *The Organizational Society*, Alfred A. Knopf, Inc., New York, 1962.

[41] Thomas E. Powers, "Administrative Behavior and Upward-mobility," *Administrator's Notebook*, vol. XV, no. 1, September, 1966.

tion program at all if it were not more expensive not to have one. The supervisor who can make the right decision at the right time and stand behind it is difficult to find. Especially rare is the one who can become the educational statesman concerned with goals as opposed to technicians who conceive their role as implementing whatever policies are defined. Procedures in the search for those with decision-making ability and emotional tolerance are likely to follow these directions:

1. *Personality assessment.* Objective instruments will be constructed for the assessment of personality which will minimize subjective aspects of the oral interview. Efforts to predict one's compatibility with others will continue.

2. *Advisory assistance.* Emphasis will be given to a professional advisory committee with wide representation from groups concerned. The committee will be expected to be guided by clear definitions of the position and the requirements necessary for the job. The training of those who sit in judgment will be undertaken.

3. *Definition of the position and its role.* Stereotyped ideas of qualities or talents required will diminish. Firsthand observations of the supervisors actually performing the duties of the position will provide a sharper understanding of the competencies presently in use and those which should be in use. Knowledge of the psychological atmosphere in which the candidate will be working will be considered necessary in making placement.

4. *Classification of prospective candidates.* Classifying a person's potential entirely on the basis of his previous experience will lose favor. Initial "rotating" opportunities in which teachers and supervisors spend some time in many situations will be used to expose talent. There will be more frequent promotion of those who are not fully prepared for the immediate job but can grow into and beyond it, rather than appointment of those whose growth is already at its peak.

5. *Statistical measures.* Numerous statistical measures of the results of the candidate's efforts will be sought. Acceptance of the standards of performance for the classroom as well as identification with purpose will become more important indicators of ability. Assessment of the prospective supervisor's precise knowledge of where and why things occur as they do will be systematically tested.

6. *Present and future requirements.* Assignment of supervisors will depend upon the life history of the district. A new and expanding district will be sure to count among its supervisory staff those who daringly give direction and are able to build a common point of view among the teachers. Older established districts will want innovators to balance conservative and loyal supervisors who defend the system's traditional values. Selection will be in accordance with the long-range aspirations of the school, making possible the attainment in the future of that which is excluded in the present.