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ABSTRACT

This monograph contains three papers on the subject of supervision. The first paper takes the view that supervision is one tier of the teaching profession. The author's model is based on the assumption that over a period of time one's teaching practice not only improves but also increases in dimension and scope. The stages of preparation, induction, and retention are presented as a collaborative process. The author then summarizes the features, results, and implications of her proposal and provides a description of the components of her model. The second paper views the role of the inservice supervisor, using five major assumptions about professional programs for teachers. The authors state that there is a direct relationship between what we believe about people and the kind of supervisory practice and inservice programs that will be developed. The last paper focuses on supervisory influence and suggests that attention be given to "direct" and "indirect" models and qualities. The five staged systemic organization of supervisory teaching which the authors describe is intended to facilitate the resolution of instructional problems which supervisors and clients identify. The authors report the findings of studies which question the supervisory system's effect on student teachers' performance. (RC)

DEVELOPING SUPERVISORY PRACTICE

Selected Papers by

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INTRODUCTION

The title of this publication *Developing Supervisory Practice* provides readers with a certain set of assumptions which can be used as we delve into the material. Assume that the writers believe that supervision can be improved and that some answers to improvement are found in these papers. However, the essence of these assumptions is not critical or prescriptive in relation to what we do in our everyday practice as supervisors, but rather the essence is that we are all in process and that there are some ideas which are indeed hunches and testable hypotheses. The writers are inviting us to examine our practice in supervision in relation to these ideas and our desired goals. It is you the reader who selects out of these pages the useful and meaningful material. It is only you the reader, supervisor and teacher, who will improve practice.

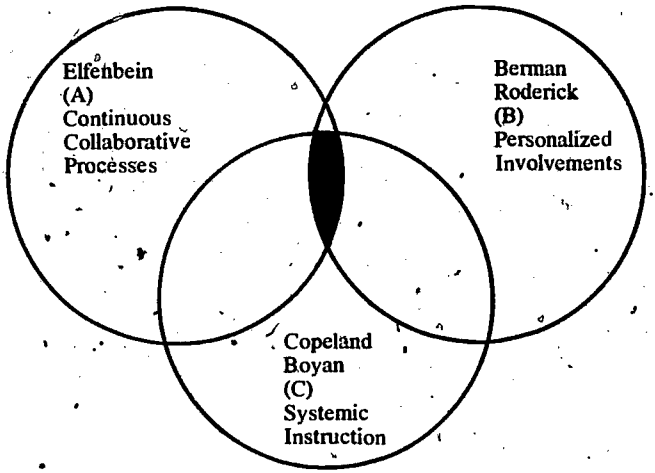
Iris Elfenbein in her paper, "A Model for Supervision in a Multi-Level Program," asks us to view for a moment the idea that supervision is one "tier" of our teaching profession. Her model assumes that over time our teaching practice not only improves but increases in dimension and scope. She moves us through the stages of preparation, induction and retention as a collaborative process. Professor Elfenbein summarizes the features, results and implications of her proposal and provides a concise description of the components of her very promising model.

Louise Berman and Jessie Roderick invite us to view the role of the in-service supervisor using five major assumptions about professional programs for teachers. We are informed very early that the writers assume that there is a direct relationship between what we believe about people and the kind of supervisory practice and inservice programs we will develop. Professors Berman and Roderick suggest that inservice planning is "dynamic" and "exciting" much the same way that living is "zestful" and "satisfying." Readers will want to dwell on what these writers are asking us to consider; and will want to come back many times to these ideas which are serious propositions for personal self-renewal in the educative process.

Willis Copeland and Norman Boyan focus on supervisory influence and suggest that we give attention to "direct" and "indirect" models and qualities. The five staged systemic organization of supervisory teaching which they describe is intended to facilitate the resolution of instructional problems which supervisors and clients identify. These authors report the findings of studies which question the supervisory system's effect on student teachers performance.

While Professors Copeland and Boyan are giving attention to preservice clients in their article, it seems obvious that their conceptualization of a supervisory system is clearly applicable to inservice supervision as well.

The three papers complement one another and collectively emerge as fruitful material for facilitating the improvement of supervision. A suggestion of their relationship is found in the diagram below.



The shaded area suggests a relationship among the three concepts which we will explore: (A) Continuous collaborative processes, (B) Personalized involvements and (C) Systemic instruction.

For sometime now a number of investigators have called attention to the interrelationships among supervisory process and substance. Among them are Brown and Hoffman who in their "Promisory Model" alluded to the multi-dimensional aspects of supervisory discourse. The logical relationships among process and content have been conceptualized by Heidelbach[1] in a model describing supervisory behavior. These empirically based studies complement other propositions focussed on the study of supervision and lend support to the potential fruitfulness of the material which is presented in this publication.

I am hunching that the authors have provided a broader insight into three interrelated concepts as diagrammed and that positioning the triad in this publication will enable the practitioner to gain a more precise understanding of supervision.

I would like to express appreciation to Donald Prosthroe and members of the Association Review Team for their assistance in the preparation of this bulletin.

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[1]Lindsey, Margaret et al. *Inquiry Into Teaching Behavior of Supervisors in Teacher Education Laboratories*. New York: Teacher College Press, 1969, pp. 84–108 and 109–166.

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A MODEL FOR SUPERVISION IN A MULTI-LEVEL PROGRAM

The supervisory program model described in this paper concentrates on two points on the professional training continuum: 1) the induction of new teachers and 2) the retention of experienced teachers. Induction includes student teaching, the placement and orientation of the beginning provisionally certificated teacher. Retention includes inservice for the permanently certified teacher and the extension of career growth opportunities. They are preceded by recruitment, selection and preparation of students for and into teacher education programs, followed by placement, supervision, inservice education and position change opportunities.[1]

The Model

Supervision is viewed as one tier of the multi-level profession of teaching (see Figure I). The first tier is that of preservice teaching, followed by student teaching. Then, in ascending order come (the higher levels of the profession as) the provisionally certified teacher, permanently certified teacher, master teacher, supervisor and onto the highest levels of the profession.

The model, a collaborative effort, operates on two levels and has two sets of students—the supervisory trainees or field associates and the student teachers.

One means of facilitating retention is through position change: in this model, the development of supervisory expertise for permanently certificated teachers. These teachers are responsible for the supervision of inductees—student and beginning teachers. New school personnel are introduced to the school situation by the supervisory trainees/field associates. Such an opportunity increases and extends the skills and knowledge of the field associates for professional growth and leadership through which they can become agents of reform, aide in evolving and revising plans of schools, school systems, and teacher training programs.[2]

The supervisory role is a facilitating one which is concerned with curricular and instructional improvement. It demands a highly complex set of behaviors and skills which produce a special type of teaching undertaken to foster the growth of the supervisees. It is a problem-solving activity which requires diagnostic, decision-making processes.[3]

The supervisor acts as a catalyzer rather than as a director. He assists his teachers to conceive, implement and evaluate instructional practices. He

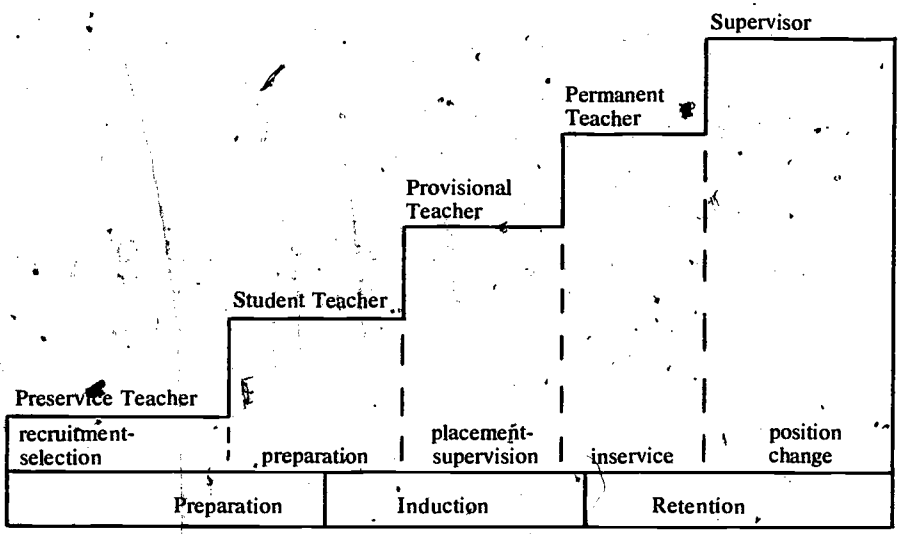
must be non-threatening and open to supervisees' needs and ideas. He must provide information and resources.

Supervisory trainees (field associates) prepare for such leadership roles as field supervisors of college students, teacher trainers, team leaders, and school district coordinators. Personnel trained to perform these roles will be of benefit to the school, school district, and the college. The paucity of teacher leaders with appropriate and situation-specific supervisory training is a constant for schools and colleges. In the school such personnel become internal change agents, moving from classroom teachers to leadership positions in which the complex activities of supervision are directed towards the improvement of professional growth for the whole school staff.

The addition of this new teacher training specialist should meet the needs of the college and the school district by extending the knowledge and professional skills of the classroom practitioner, improving the experiences and learning of the preservice teacher, and increasing the responsibility and accountability of the teaching profession.

Figure 1

TEACHING AS A MULTI-LEVEL PROFESSION
A Professional Continuum



This model is based on the premise that there is a systematic linkage between induction and retention of teaching personnel and that the change in one will affect what occurs in the other. The supervisory model requires professional educators in the school system and the college be responsible

and accountable for teacher preparation. The program rests on the following assumptions:

1. Combining the supervisory and student teaching programs will improve, not only the skills of the cooperating teachers and the student teachers, but benefits derived from the program will accrue to all personnel involved.
2. Continual and close interaction and contact among the participants will intensify their experiences and enhance their skills.
3. Improved and more relevant professional programs will result on all levels—preservice and inservice—through this interactive process.

Governance For Policy And Decision-Making

The professional education of teachers in the model requires cooperation among the institutions involved. Shared responsibility for policy and decision-making is necessary. Each institution takes the major responsibility for instruction and personnel within its specific sphere. For example, the part of the program which is college-based requires that the college faculty take major responsibility for designing and teaching courses although members of the school community can act in an advisory capacity for program planning and teaching. Conversely, the school and the pupils therein are the main responsibility of the school district. Therefore, college personnel advise and counsel, but are not decision-makers for the schools.

A Consortium Council, a policymaking body, would represent the varied individuals and groups in the program. It would serve as a major means of communication and linkage. Its members would include representatives of the dean of teacher education, college faculty, student teachers, field associates, school superintendent, principals, school board, professional teaching organization and the parent-teacher organization (see Figure 2).

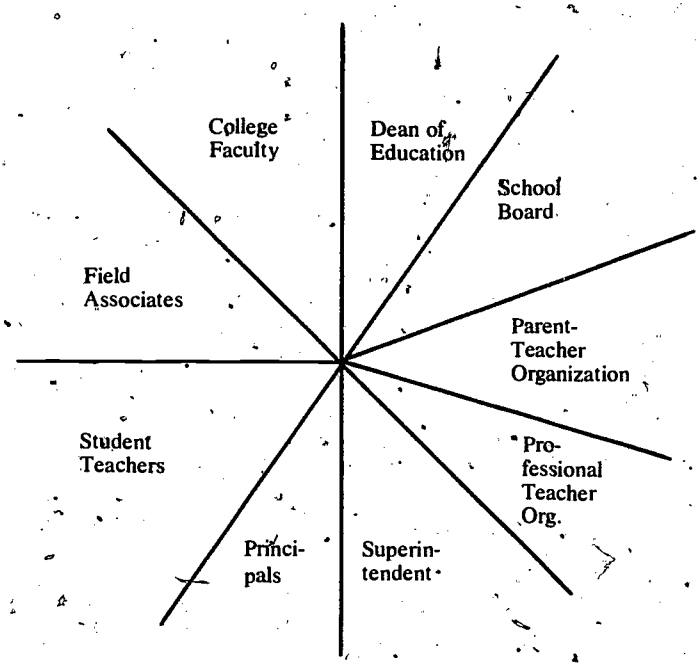
The responsibilities of each institution and group, their roles and specific areas of control must be identified and written as a contract prior to the initiation of the program. The methods of decision-making and determining membership in the Council should be identified.

A director must be identified and a job description written indicating the specific responsibilities of the position. The effective operation, the college faculty might consider horizontal differentiated staffing. All faculty have equal responsibility for teaching. However, according to expertise and interest each faculty member would be responsible for the development of a specific part of the program.

The choices identified in Figure 3 are program development including research and evaluation, instructional material and resource identification and development, and field supervision and liaison. Each provides a very different opportunity for college faculty. Horizontal differentiated staffing assumes that faculty members with different skills will work as a team to teach the field associates and student teachers, but will assume responsibilities in diverse areas as well so that the program can evolve smoothly. Such an organizational concept serves the program as it expands—whether

Figure 2

CONSORTIUM COUNCIL



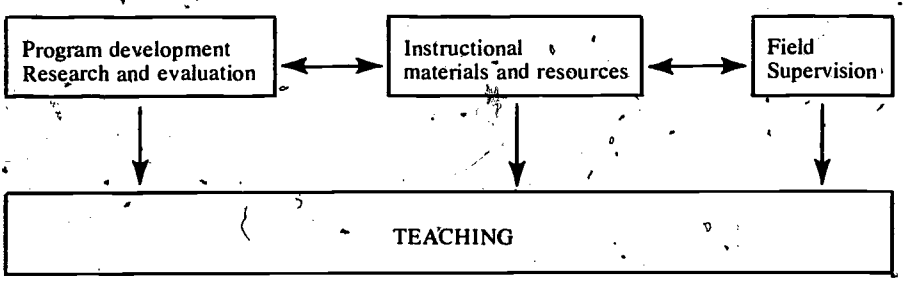
into new districts or within the same district as more students enter and more faculty participate.

Resources

The resources of the school district and the college are shared. Each institution as part of the written contract, identifies the specialized personnel

Figure 3

DIFFERENTIATED STAFFING OF COLLEGE FACULTY



and materials it will make available to the program. The school district offers its specialized personnel as curriculum coordinators, special service supervisors, etc., who act as resource people. The instructional materials center of the district, with its wealth of books, curricular material, video tapes, and hardware are also tendered. In addition, schools have their own resources such as video recorders, related hardware, and unique curricular and organizational approaches. The college provides as resources, its libraries, curriculum resource and audio-visual centers, and specialized faculty expertise. Thus, the cost of the program is minimal. The program is conceived to utilize existing staffing and resources in order to keep its fiscal requirements to an absolute minimum. It is not dependent upon grants from federal, state, or local authorities and can operate within the budgets of the institutions. A program independent of outside financial support has the potential to be self-perpetuating.

The Instructional Program

The induction/retention multi-level teaching model provides for the training of the field associates over a two year period. The student teacher subset operating within the supervisory segment requires participation for one semester.

The field associates segment has three phases each of which involves the participation of student teachers. Phase I is the first term where the major responsibility of the field associates in collaboration with college faculty members is the supervision of the student teachers. The field associates serve as supervisors in the field, while the college instructors conduct the student teaching seminars and act as liaison with several persons such as student teachers, field associates, and principals. The college faculty members focus on the instruction and supervision of the field associates who in turn are responsible for the supervision of the student teachers.

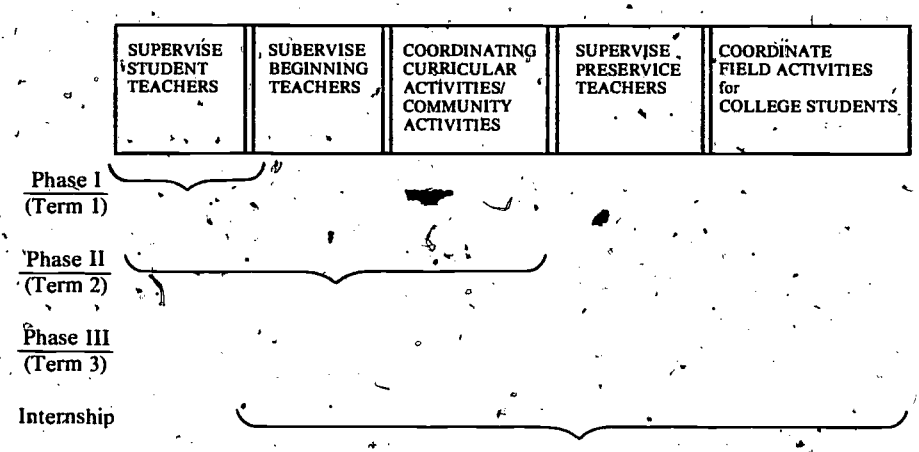
In Phase II, which is the second term, the field associates, still responsible for student teachers, take on additional tasks including orientation of beginning teachers and coordinating curriculum, instructional and community activities identified and supervised by the principal.

Phase III covers the entire second year. During this time the field associates contract for their internships with their principals and the college faculty. They begin to be responsible for inservice supervision. They supervise colleagues who are the cooperating teachers for new groups of student teachers. The field associates also continue the induction of former student teachers who have received teaching appointments to the school. Additionally, the field associates coordinate and supervise with college faculty the prestudent teachers participating in the field experiences required by the preservice teacher education program (see Figure 4).

In Phase III, the needs of both college and school begin to be fulfilled. School personnel are in the field, cognizant of the college preservice program and competent to provide appropriate field supervision for preservice students and teachers. The school has increased supervisory compe-

Figure 4

PHASES OF THE FIELD ASSOCIATE TRAINING PROGRAM



tence with the expanded skills of the field associates available for supervision of provisional and permanent teachers.

Domains of Instruction

Supervision requires specific types of skills, knowledges and behaviors. Three domains of instruction are necessary for the development of the supervisory field associate. They are teaching, human relations, and curriculum. Each domain develops concurrently with incremental benefits accruing to the field associate-supervisor and the student teacher. The content becomes clearly applicable to the student teaching experience as well as helping the student teacher to develop entry level skills, knowledges and attitudes.

As a supervisor of student teachers, and later of instruction, the field associate must be able to analyze the teaching act in sufficient depth and understanding, and with sufficient perception to facilitate his own personal growth as well as that of his supervisees. By jointly analyzing the teaching act, his and the student teacher's, the field associate and the supervisee can practice and grow. Through knowledge and practice in the use of systems of analysis of teaching, the field associate can identify his own teaching style, plan and implement teaching strategies, and aid others to do so as well. Throughout, the emphasis is on self and team analysis through which shared learning occurs.

Conferencing is a significant and essential part of the teaching act in supervision. It is a clinical teaching technique requiring special expertise and interactive skills. Successful conferencing combines abilities and knowledge associated with teaching with those of the human relations and curricula

domains. To be effective, the field associate must learn to plan and conduct pre and post observational conferences. In so doing, supervisory skills will be developed.

To produce instructional and curricular changes, supervision focuses on human relations. To achieve competence in human relations the field associate must master three elements, self-inquiry, interaction, and community relations. Inquiry into self requires that the field associates establish and internalize their own values and attitudes, modes of response and behavior. Through self knowledge the field associate is better able to interact with others. The understanding of interactive relationships and group processes and the facilitating of activities which foster these ends are significant and necessary accomplishments. Good staff relationships and effective staff development are dependent upon successful interaction with others.

The field associate must understand his community sociologically, economically, culturally and psychologically.

Such an effort will have threefold benefits. First by knowing the community, the field associate can better meet the needs of his children; secondly, with such knowledge he is in a better position to facilitate community understanding of the school's objectives; and finally, as a result of heightened understanding increased involvement by the community in school affairs can be anticipated.

To affect change and improve teaching and instruction a field associate must have competency in curriculum; the field associate must be able to set goals, analyze, develop, modify, implement and evaluate curricular and instructional activities and materials. Through mastery of the three domains, the field associate becomes an effective educational leader and agent for change.

The domains of teaching, human relations, and curriculum are generic and appropriate to any supervisory program (see Figure 5). However, the specific attitudes, skills, and knowledge which field associates, student teachers, and college faculty must acquire are often situation specific. As the program evolves in the district, and needs are identified, the particular competencies necessary for the personnel in this program will emerge and be identified by the participants.

Through the proposed multi-level model, it is expected that participants will learn from and teach each other. Each group will acquire competencies and benefit from the knowledge and experience of the other groups. Successfully carried out, the model becomes synergistically valid as the student teachers acquire entry level skills and the field associates expand and refine their abilities. Simultaneously, the college faculty benefit from the opportunity to increase their expertise, readjust and sharpen teaching techniques and gather continuous feedback.

As conceived in the model sources for instruction are plentiful. The primary responsibilities of the college faculty are planning and teaching in the student teaching and graduate programs. Other professional educators will be available to complement the faculty efforts. School district coor-

Figure 5

DOMAINS OF INSTRUCTION

TEACHING	HUMAN RELATIONS	CURRICULUM
Analyzing the teaching act —use of observation systems —structuring, questioning, probing	Interaction with others —group process —staff relationships	Setting goals Analyzing and planning
Planning/implementing instruction	Inquiry into self —know and control own values modes behaviors attitudes	Developing, implementing, evaluating Instructional resources —analyzing and producing —using
Conferencing —planning —pre-observation —post-observation	Community relations —understanding sociologically economically culturally psychologically —involving public —utilizing public Planning change	Organizing the environment

dinators, curriculum specialists, principals, and district administrators will participate. The field associate will provide instruction and supervision for the student teacher, and later for other school teaching personnel.

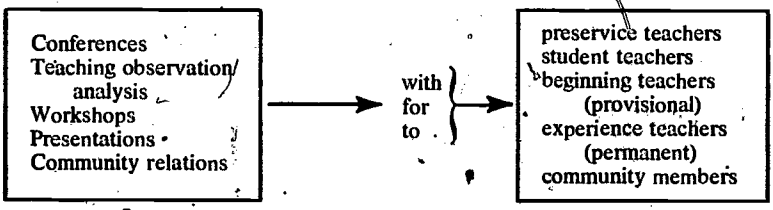
Experiences

Throughout this program opportunities for the application of the knowledge, skills, and attitudes developed in the three domains will manifest themselves in a wide variety of experiences in the three phases. Participation in the program will provide the field associate with the possibility of a broad range of interactions with virtually all elements of the school community (see Figure 6). It will be necessary for field associates to deal not just with children and administrators, but also with student teachers, community representatives, board of education members, parents, peers and college faculty.

Opportunities for conferencing, observation and analysis of teaching, planning of curriculum workshops for teaching personnel, and presentations to colleagues and the community abound as the field associate moves through the three phases of the program (see Figure 7).

Figure 6

SUPERVISORY EXPERIENCES



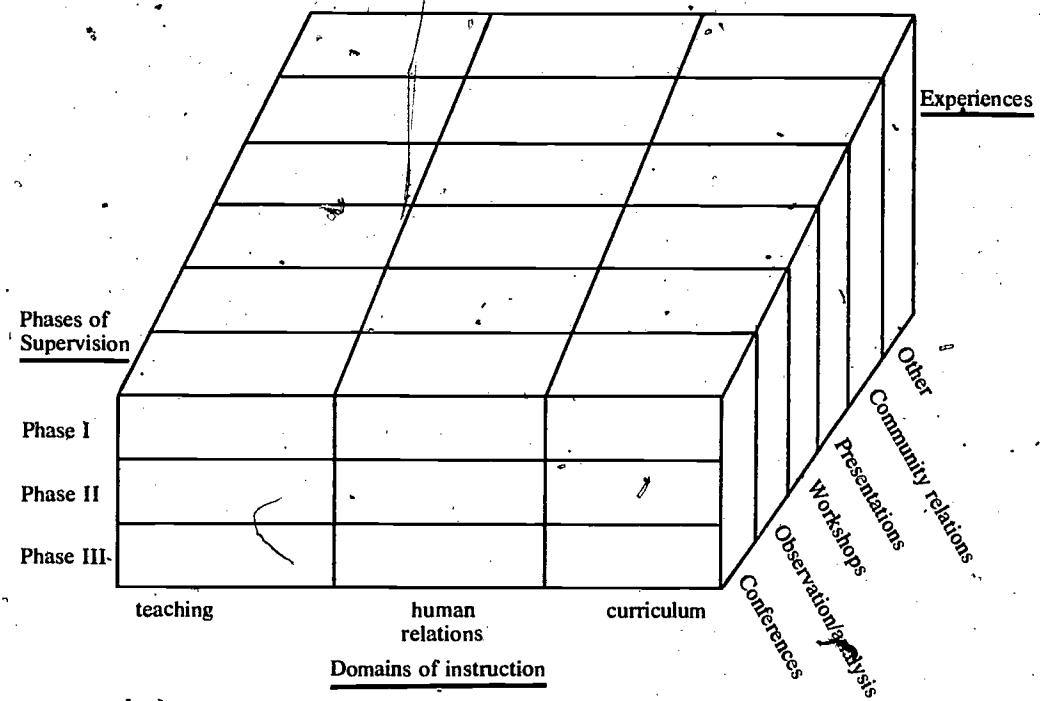
Feedback and Modification

Because the program is a collaborative team effort to develop and renew professional skills, feedback should be continuous and readily available from several sources.

Coordinating committees representing the field associates and student teachers are a ready source of information. These groups can be particularly

Figure 7

SUPERVISORY PROGRAM-INSTRUCTIONAL MODEL



helpful to college faculty by identifying student needs and planning for and modifying already developed courses. Committee members have ready access to their constituencies and can transmit student concerns to the consortium while conveying program information to the students.

Ongoing conferences will provide for additional feedback. Opportunities exist from the dyadic student teacher-field associate conference to polyadic meetings involving representatives of several groups of program participants. Through such meetings feedback indicating program strengths, needs and dysfunctions can be identified and program remediation and modification can be expected to occur (see Figure 8).

Questionnaires submitted to school and college personnel provide program evaluation. Principals, superintendents and their staffs, teachers and field associates, parents, professional organization representatives all react to the program through written questionnaires as well as through the Consortium Council.

In the model, evaluation is provided by and for all participants. Not only do field associates and college instructors evaluate student teachers, but student teachers have opportunities to evaluate field associates and college supervisors as well.

Additional evaluation results from checklists, portfolios of student work and questionnaires. Portfolios contain samples of materials developed by students, samples of self-evaluative materials, questionnaires and checklists filled out by supervisors and supervisees.

Information from these sources can provide for further improvements in inservice and preservice programs, improved collaboration among the institutions and groups involved, and increased responsibility and accountability for teacher preparation.

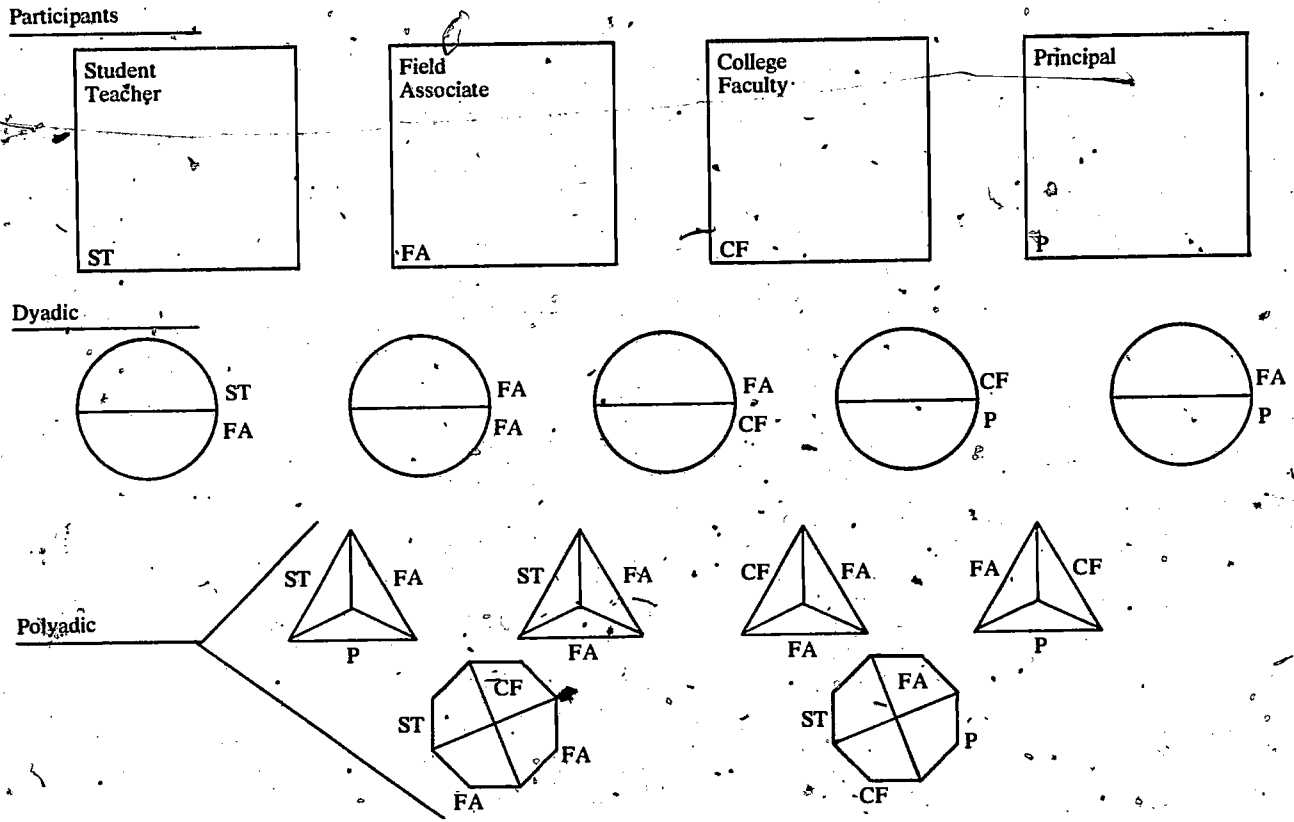
Summary

The features, results and implications of this model of a supervisory program are summarized below.

In addition to the implications cited below, the model for supervision also has powerful import in terms of teacher center development. Personnel trained in this program are ideally suited to staff teacher centers. They are competent to provide instruction, to aide in the analysis of teaching, to assist in the development of curricular materials, and to evaluate and assess teaching competence. The ability to assess performance is a particularly useful strength in a competency-based program, where assessment and verification of teacher competencies are basic to the training program. Personnel capable of performing these tasks can expand the functions of teacher centers from instruction and skill renewal sites to certification in those states which have adapted competency-based teacher certification. The teacher center would be an ideal site for such examination of teacher competence and field associates would be ideally trained professionals to engage in this work.

Figure 8

DIAGRAM OF CONFERENCE DYADIC AND POLYADIC OPPORTUNITIES FOR FEEDBACK AND EVALUATION



FEATURES	RESULTS	IMPLICATIONS
Multi-level training providing constant interaction and linkage among preservice, student, provisional and permanent teachers.	Preservice and inservice teacher training programs improved and strengthened. Systematic programming; preservice and inservice personnel development synergistically linked.	Heightened possibility of effective researching of teaching-learning relationship, because of knowledgeable and well-trained field associates and teachers.
Induction-retention orientation strengthening teacher placement, supervision, inservice education and making possible career change.	Career opportunities change and expand within the school and school district.	Improved teacher preparation through effective field associate supervision.
	Role transition from teacher to supervisor.	
	Field associates become a vital new link in teacher training.	
Collaboration among educational constituencies: college faculty, college students, teachers, school administrators and community members.	Responsibility and accountability of the profession for effective teacher training expanded.	Enhanced opportunities for educational change through: —awareness of goals and needs —awareness of interdependence and mutually beneficial effects of joint planning and cooperation
	Communication improved, resulting in increased understanding, support and cooperation among educational constituencies.	
Fiscal independence using only existing school and college resources.	Self-sustaining program through efficient and effective use of personnel and resources.	Unlimited opportunities to determine program direction due to lack of constraints associated with external funding.
Protean instructional program to meet specific needs of varied districts, schools, and colleges.	Situation-specific training for teachers and supervisors to foster instructional effectiveness.	Continued regeneration of program as pupil and community needs change.
Personalized guidance for student teachers and field associates.	Self-awareness and self-inquiry nurture professional strengths and remedy professional needs.	Increased inner directed motivation for professional self-improvement.

References

1. Points along the professional continuum have been identified in Dan C. Lortie's "Observations on Teaching as Work." *Second Handbook of Research in Teaching*. Edited by Robert M.W. Travers. Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1973, p. 430, and in "Panel One Summary, Recruitment, Selection, and Retention." *Panel Summaries: National Conference on Studies in Teaching*. Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Education, 1975, p. 1.
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DEVELOPING PERSONAL POWER: FOCUS FOR SUPERVISORS OF INSERVICE PROGRAMS

No longer haunted by the spectre of merely finding warm bodies to man classrooms, the teaching profession is currently in the desirable position of having greater numbers of qualified candidates entering its ranks. The profession now possesses the dual responsibility of giving careful attention to *who* enters its ranks and *how* to enable those who do enter to achieve maximum competence. It is with the question of *how* to establish the setting in which teachers can provide the greatest service to those in their charge that this paper is concerned.

Inservice education has long been a concern of educators, but very frequently the emphasis, of necessity, was on the induction of the neophyte into the school program or upon the development of minimal professional skills in those persons who had little formal professional preparation. Since the current surplus of prepared teachers allows most systems to hire those who possess adequate entry requirements, the function of inservice education has the potential for some radical shifts. Inservice education can provide the setting and strategies for individual renewal of teachers, uplift for the community of which the schools are part, and ultimately new kinds of visions of what all people can become.

It is our intent to consider inservice programs which are based upon the beliefs that given the necessary faith, support, and encouragement, persons will utilize their uniquely human qualities to improve themselves and the communities of which they are part. Obviously, inservice education means many different things, and the literature is replete with discussions of organization of personnel, university-school plans of cooperation, and analyses of systems approaches to inservice education. Our intent is not to deal with the organizational components of inservice programs. Rather our purpose is to outline some fundamental tenets about the person and then to consider what needs to be considered in planning for schooling. This plan is placed within the framework of inservice education, thus the opening section of the paper deals with certain basic assumptions about inservice programs and the remainder of the paper provides some suggestions for implementing the considerations about people and schooling.

Assumptions about Inservice Education

Several assumptions underlie our thinking about inservice education. These are briefly sketched since a relationship exists between the fundamen-

tal beliefs relative to persons as learners and persons as teachers and the contexts in which those who teach and those who are taught can best operate.

1. Inservice programs must take into account that the individuals undergoing them are thinking, moving, growing, feeling, deciding, compassionate persons. This means that:

   a. Persons involved in inservice programs should have the opportunity to help plan for their own change and development.
   b. Programs should leave room for individuals to personalize in their own unique styles the broader concepts which the larger program deems important.
   c. Teachers should see the relationship between the concepts and methodologies inherent in the inservice program and concepts and methodologies which they might employ in their own settings.

2. Since the school is the microcosm and context within which persons as total thinking, deciding, feeling beings live and grow, inservice programs should take into account that each school should have a stated operational philosophy. This means more than a lofty set of goals. Rather, it means that intent is stated in a form that such statements invite and give examples of how reality might look. A stated operational philosophy would mean that:

   a. A commitment to certain philosophical tenets rather than geographic convenience would provide the major basis for selecting and retaining teachers.
   b. The school would have a basis for determining its points of priority, a rationale for its continuous growth and change, and criteria for determining what it will not as well as what it will do.

3. Inservice programs should take into account that since the school is a microcosm within a larger macrocosm, the school needs to work out its relationship to the larger community and the larger world. A school which is continually swayed by what others in the outside world and community are doing has not worked out thoughtful modes of monitering itself and establishing accountability procedures. On the other hand, a school which fails to look to the wider world as sources of ideas, as catalysts, and as sources of cooperative action on projects that no one group can execute on its own becomes ingrown and fails to expand its vision. If the school considers itself as an integrated unit within a larger whole, then

   a. The school utilizes the system's county or other types of centralized offices as sources of information, as a means of coordinating and disseminating the work of the various schools within the system, and as a vehicle for bringing together persons from various schools wishing to tackle a common problem.
   b. The school utilizes professional organizations and associations as a means of establishing communication networks among ideas and persons around the state, nation, and the world.

c. The school seeks to tap persons from around the world to bring fresh and diverse insights to significant problems with which the school is dealing.

4. Inservice programs within schools should provide for individualized approaches to the same topic. Even though a group of persons may adhere to a common set of values or beliefs, the same group of persons will bring differing degrees of commitment, levels of energy, and kinds of creativity. In order to provide some degree of assurance that the less energetic and committed teachers provide at least minimal education for the young and that the more committed and creative feel the freedom to abandon themselves to new and more exciting ways of handling a similar concept or topic, inservice programs should be characterized by the following:

a. Minimum requirements for the handling of a given topic or concept should be stipulated.
b. Persons who wish to "bite off" a portion of a topic and conduct an in-depth study of it should be permitted to do so.
c. Persons who prefer the treatment of the new as opposed to "dailiness" and repetition should be permitted to find points of exploration and challenge and deviate from the norm provided a carefully conceived plan has been worked through.
d. Mechanisms should be established within the school to share and try out ideas of those persons who have gone beyond minimal requirements.

5. Schools should periodically (every few years) set aside time to rethink their total philosophy, revamp if necessary, or develop a totally new one if the insights of the staff deem a freshly stated viewpoint more amenable to the views of the teachers. New knowledge usually causes a modification or a metamorphosis of the old. Hence, it is well worth staff time to reconsider from time to time the overall direction of the school. This means that:

a. Schools might wish to consider shifting the major areas which they feel they are teaching to others depending upon insights gleaned through cooperative study and thinking.
b. Schools might plan to establish teams to develop understandings and materials which are in line with the direction the school wishes to pursue in the months or years ahead.
c. Schools might need to plan for peer-peer communication, accountability, modes of reporting, ways of involving the community, and other factors when a major overhaul of the program is being considered or planned.

In essence, we are suggesting that inservice programs should consider the individual person, the individual school, and the individual community. This is being recommended so that those persons who undergo a program have a part in shaping it. In other words, individual destiny becomes critical to the whole of inservice programs and indeed to the total operation of schooling.

Individual destiny presupposes that a person is enhanced if the conditions and setting are those that foster personal power. The remaining parts of this paper are built upon the assumption that the development of personal power should be a basic goal of the school and that conditions for developing this power can be established.

First, a view of the person is briefly described as a basis for a proposed model. Second, a curriculum model to be considered in inservice programs is proposed. This model is built on the view of the person but deals with the interaction of proposed qualities of the person and the curricular givens of time, space, human resources, and knowledge. Third, a procedure for determining whether anticipated personal qualities or behaviors do occur in the classroom is discussed. The last section of the paper deals with possible self-renewal experiences in which a school might engage if the assumptions and tone of this paper are accepted.

The Basis of The Model: Qualities of Personal Power

The characteristics or qualities of a person who possesses personal power are briefly delineated. It will be recalled that earlier the statement was made that schools should have an operational philosophy. This statement of personal power together with its application to the givens of programs constitute one example of an operational philosophy. However, the remainder of the paper serves as more than an example. It is a miniscule outline of the commitment of these writers to a view of the person and the functions of the schools in the latter part of the twentieth century.

Personal power ensues when a person has knowledge of the areas in which he has freedom and those in which his freedom is circumscribed by the culture or other factors, a sense of responsibility and responsiveness, and a vision of how to use his freedom to live a life satisfying to himself and others. What are the skills, qualities or processes related to personal power?

1. The person transacts with, rather than only reacts to, his environment. This means that the person feels he can initiate change as well as accept change. It means a person feels he can approach people as well as be approached by them. It means that a person can see multiple as well as singular responses to questions or problems. The transacting person takes into account distant and present goals. He is aware that he may be acting upon insights of which he is only dimly conscious. For this reason he seeks to increase his vision—his perceptual range. He feels free to not only assess a situation but also to act decisively. The transacting person brings every insight to bear upon the situation in which he finds himself and learns to develop his judgment in resolving problems.

2. The person integrates his developing personal power with love. Not only is the person concerned about the effect of what he does upon himself, but he is also interested in its effect upon others. He is aware that power which is shared brings greater results for himself and others than power which is only his. He is interested in developing power *with* others rather than *over* others. He is anxious that all persons feel powerful—that none feel powerless. The quality of love is part of his judgmental abilities.

3. The person sees and deals with the moral. He is able to see what the significant ethical considerations are underlying the situations of which he is part. He can look at the options, commit himself to one, and carry it out. The powerful person is a significant person because of the ability to see the values operating within a situation and deal constructively with value-laden situations.

4. The person deals continuously with the question: Does my life have meaning? He seeks positive responses to this question. He realizes that it is through communication that life takes on increased meaning for himself and others. He therefore tries to understand various symbol systems and to insure that there is mutuality in communicating through symbols. He sees knowledge as contributing meaning to life and is willing to accept responsibility for contributing to knowledge building. Realizing that persons possess different modes of perceiving, the individual is aware that great uncommonness of perceptions, memories, and systems of organizing information occur despite commonness of experience. Because of this factor, the individual seeks to broaden his personal knowledge while simultaneously establishing mutuality with other persons. Mutuality is necessary if personal knowledge is to be shared thus contributing to the development and understanding of public knowledge.

A Curriculum Model to Be Considered in Inservice Programs

If an individual accepts the proposed assumptions about inservice and about man, we would encourage him to explore some ideas relative to acting upon these assumptions. A model to develop more freely these ideas is sketched and presented as one way of exploring and testing our assumptions. We hope that this model will be viewed as a stimulus to developing models which are pertinent to individual settings and which will be utilized with flexibility within these settings.

When individuals involved in the educational process identify the characteristics or qualities they deem important for learners to possess, they also need to identify strategies by which these qualities can be developed.

We assume that in any teacher-learner interaction situation there exist givens or components which reflect society's goals for education as well as those of the individuals directly responsible for education. The givens presented in this model might be termed basic components of a situation in which individuals are brought together for the purpose of transacting with each other and the environment. Although other components might be selected, we chose to explore space, time, human resources, and knowledge. How these givens are utilized in a learning situation is a function of beliefs those involved hold about the nature of man and the implications of these beliefs for the givens or components. In reality there is constant interaction between the beliefs a person holds about the person and the givens or components of the classroom. It is assumed that teacher beliefs about the function of these givens in a specific curriculum context result in a variety of options available to learners and in turn certain learner qualities, behaviors, or processes.

Figure 1 illustrates a basic model for identifying anticipated learner qualities or behaviors which appear to be a function of beliefs about man and the givens of an interactive situation. The learner qualities vary with the components selected and their definitions and with the beliefs about the nature of man. There is no attempt to suggest that for every given or component and for every belief about the nature of man there must be a resulting learner quality, skill, or process. For instance, when there is a focus on a particular aspect of the nature of man such as the peopling process (dealt with later in this paper), it is possible that the anticipated learner qualities relate more specifically to one or two of the selected givens as opposed to relating equally to each of the givens.

Figure 1

A Model for Looking at Anticipated Learner Qualities or Behaviors Resulting From the Interaction of Selected Beliefs About Man and the Components of a Learning Situation

Components or Givens of a Teacher-Learner Interactive Situation	BELIEFS ABOUT THE NATURE OF MAN
	Anticipated Learner Qualities or Behaviors Resulting from the Interaction of Beliefs and Components

A Model of Learner Qualities Related to Personal Power

The assumptions about the nature of man that we have presented relate to a person's developing personal power. In summary, the qualities related to personal power include: 1) A person transacts as opposed to reacts to his environment; 2) a person integrates his developing personal power with love; 3) a person sees and deals with the moral; and 4) a person deals with the question of meaning in life.

The selected givens or components of a teacher-learner interaction situation dealt with in this model are space, time, human resources, and knowledge. Each of these components is briefly described.

Space. Beliefs about space are evident in the way persons utilize space in their body movements and in the placement of material objects in the setting. Specific examples might include:

Areas and materials that offer variety in terms of opportunities to manipulate, rearrange, touch, observe are available.

Flexibility in space or area utilization is provided. Learners and teachers travel within and outside the confines of the classroom.

Time. An individual's beliefs about time and its function in life and the learning process are evident in the way time is divided and put together, references to time in the curriculum and the ways in which individual time

clocks or cycles are given consideration in planning. Specific examples might include:

References to time relate to future, past, and present.

Attention is given to what appears to be the rhythms or cycles of individuals within a class.

There is time for inner reflection, time to be alone, time with no planned input.

There is some relationship between time and tasks.

Human Resources. Beliefs about human resources in the learning situation can be seen in who is involved in the process, who initiates the use of human resources, the contributions each participant makes, and evidence that human resources are valued. Specific examples might include:

A variety of significant others exist in the individual's experiences.

Individuals are encouraged to contribute, each in his own way.

Persons know that they are valued as individuals.

Individuals assume responsibility for their actions.

Knowledge. Beliefs about knowledge that become operational are evident in the kinds of knowledge dealt with, how it was derived, and how it is utilized or applied. Specific examples might include:

Knowledge is multi-dimensional or derived from a variety of sources.

Knowledge is utilized to extend and develop new knowledge.

Knowledge is applied in acting responsibly to fulfill longer term commitments an individual may be formulating.

Having identified and defined the givens or components of an interactive situation and desired personal qualities it is possible to anticipate learner qualities or behaviors which might result when the relationship of components to personal qualities is examined.

A grid depicting selected components of a learning situation and possible learner qualities or behaviors related to the development of personal power expected from the interaction of beliefs about these components might look like Figure 2.

The Process of Peopling—An Illustrative Application of the Model

The qualities, skills, or processes related to the development of personal power explicate a view of man that is rather broad and far-reaching. This view includes qualities which deal with man's relationship to himself and to others, to ideas, and to materials within the environment. Another approach to devising a model for looking at inservice or any interactive situation

Figure 2

Personal Power

Learner Qualities or Behaviors Which Might Result When Selected Beliefs About Man and Components of the Learning Situation Interact

Selected Givens or Components of a Teacher-Learner Interactive Situation (Implementation of components results from united efforts of teacher and learner)	SELECTED QUALITIES (SKILLS, PROCESSES) RELATED TO PERSONAL POWER			
	Person Transacts as Opposed to Reacts to Environment:	Person Integrates His Developing Personal Power with Love:	Person Sees and Deals with the Moral:	Person Deals with Question of Meaning in Life:
SPACE: Flexibility in space or area utilization	A learner can contribute new objects to space or can arrange them in space.	A learner helps to organize materials and space to facilitate the work of others.	A learner has criteria for helping to resolve conflicts relative to the use of space.	A learner moves toward those areas which contribute to his clarifying points of significance to him.
TIME: Individual time rhythms or cycles are accounted for in the learning situation	A learner can schedule his day because he knows when he works best at particular tasks.	In cooperative endeavors, a learner takes into account that another person's way of working may differ from his own.	Given differences in ways of working, a learner can see a variety of ways of accomplishing a cooperative task.	A learner can establish his own time table for dealing with questions of major importance to himself.
HUMAN RESOURCES: Individuals know that they and what they think and do are valued	An individual can approach a peer to assist him in an area in which he is having difficulty.	A learner can organize space and materials so that his work does not deter the work of others.	A learner sees and respects the values which various persons in the classroom hold.	A learner supports and facilitates another person's defining and establishing a sense of direction.
KNOWLEDGE: Knowledge is produced through personal exploration, experiences, feelings, and intuition	A learner spends a day with a family from another land and he can decide how to communicate his learnings—through painting, through poetry, through written or oral composition.	A learner checks his personal knowledge with others to see where common meanings exist	A learner is able to discriminate between the worth of various types of personal knowledge.	A learner realizes knowledge he has produced can contribute to establishing personal meaning.

would be to select from a broader framework certain qualities to examine in more detail and to anticipate the influence of the givens or situational components on these qualities. An illustration of selected qualities related to a view of man is here proposed in a discussion of the peopling process.

A person's interactions and interrelationships with others is the broad base for the concept we have labeled peopling. As developed in this paper, peopling consists of four major aspects: 1) crossing barriers people-wise; 2) working toward a larger sense of community; 3) encouraging diversity; and 4) acting responsibly where people are involved.

Crossing barriers people-wise implies a person's reaching out to someone or some group of individuals who are not in the mainstream of his comfortable everyday interactions. It means entering into difficult, unfamiliar, and sometimes even forbidden territory and relationships. Working toward a larger sense of community suggests that an individual extend his attempts to understand and be understood, to lend support, and to make it known that he, too, needs support. As in crossing barriers, support may have to be given in uncommon and unpopular settings. A larger sense of community is encouraged when people recognize and act upon the need for interdependence. Lest our attempts to develop interdependence and to offer support and understanding result in a loss of identity on the part of the significant others in the interaction, care must be taken that these be nurtured in a context which places a high value on human diversity. Given the conditions and commitments, man will recognize his responsibility for his fellow man and will pledge himself to doing *with* and *for* others instead of *to* them.

A grid depicting components or givens of a learning interaction situation and possible resulting learner qualities or behaviors related to peopling might look like Figure 3.

A Procedure for Determining Whether Anticipated Personal Qualities Occur in the Classroom

Once the givens or components of a learning situation have been established and the personal qualities or behaviors that might be expected to result from interactions within the context of these components identified, procedures for determining whether these anticipated qualities in fact do occur must be developed. A variety of ways to describe what transpires as individuals interact in a setting may be employed. Among these are observing and noting behaviors as they occur, interviewing, and recording behaviors for future analysis.

The chief criterion to be employed in selecting and developing tools of description is that the methodology employed be congruent with the problem or question and the basic assumptions underlying it. Since our immediate concern is determining whether what is happening is congruent with what is anticipated or should be occurring, we are proposing that observation of behavior in the natural setting be the initial step employed in attempting to answer this question. Such observation consists of noting in diary fashion what transpires as individuals interact. Because it does not seem feasible to

note all behaviors, observational foci need to be established. Depending on his purposes, an observer might focus on a learner's utilization of space as it relates to the number of people with whom he interacts.

Since the model outlined in this paper does not presuppose that strategies involving space, time, human resources, and knowledge always result in the same human qualities, nor that these are the only components or qualities that can be considered, a technique for describing these elements must be sufficiently fluid and open to account for the individual input of teachers and learners involved. Direct observation of behavior in the natural setting appears to satisfy this requirement. In addition, this procedure enables the observer to note factors in the larger environment which influence what people do in the setting.

Observational data noted in diary fashion facilities a teacher's planning and evaluating in terms of classroom goals, teacher-learner behavior as it occurs, and subsequent revisions. In addition, this kind of data can be utilized as a basis for building observational guidelines or instruments which provide a more focused means of observing—one that has been derived from empirical data obtained in the natural classroom setting.

An observational system or set of guidelines may be developed in the following way:

1. Analyze the diary-fashion records of observations for content germane to the observational focus.
2. Derive categories or like groups of behaviors. (This grouping would be based on the teacher's knowledge of the focus, of the learner, and of the concept of instrumentation.)
3. Return to the classroom setting to test whether the instrument or guidelines provides the kind of information sought. If not, the process is repeated with appropriate revisions.

Observational guidelines developed in this manner and focused on the peopling process could provide specific information about an individual's attempts to create a larger sense of community as he encourages others to contribute and in turn values their contributions. (A learner is able to identify the contributions of each and to communicate to those involved how each can contribute to developing a larger community (See Figure 3)). This information helps a teacher determine whether goals in terms of these behaviors are met, where revisions might be made, what sequences or patterns occur, and the relationships of behaviors to each other and to the setting in which they occur.

Several assumptions underlie the development and use of observational guidelines as we have outlined them.

1. The learner and the teacher both contribute to the nature and quality of learning experiences; therefore, we need more precise descriptive information about each person's role as he functions in the teaching-learning situation.
2. The emphasis is not on uniformity of behavior but rather on the variety

Figure 3

Peopling

Learner Qualities or Behaviors Which Might Result When Selected Beliefs About Man and Components of the Learning Situation Interact

Selected Givens or Components of a Teacher-Learner Interactive Situation	SELECTED QUALITIES (SKILLS, PROCESSES) RELATED TO PEOPLING			
	Crossing Barriers People-Wise:	Working Toward a Larger Sense of Community:	Encouraging Diversity:	Acting Responsibly Where People are Involved:
SPACE: Areas and materials that offer variety in terms of opportunities to manipulate, re-arrange, touch, observe	A learner selects areas and materials that he has not worked with before and that afford him opportunities to work with people new to his setting.	A learner helps to organize space and materials so as to involve many persons of varying backgrounds in utilizing them.	A learner recognizes differences in space and material organization and encourages the further diversification of these elements.	A learner considers another person when rearranging or manipulating space and materials.
TIME: References to time relate to future, past, and present	A learner plans for meeting new people and for involving in his activities those he has met.	A learner considers his past and present associations as he plans for meeting and working with new persons in the future.	A learner brings to a group or an interaction more than one orientation to time.	A learner is aware of the influence of past actions and future implications of them.

HUMAN RESOURCES: Contributions of each and every individual are encouraged and valued	A learner makes extended efforts to convey interest and concern to the individual who is not readily accepted or who does not appear to be part of the mainstream.	A learner is able to identify the contributions to each and to communicate to those involved how each can contribute to developing a larger community.	In associating with a variety of persons, a learner can identify and support those skills, qualities which are characteristic of each individual.	A learner follows through on encouragement he offers to see the value of their ideas or work.
KNOWLEDGE: Knowledge is applied in acting responsibly to fulfill a personal commitment	A learner sees the value of and utilizes knowledge in approaching and accomplishing his efforts to seek out those who can benefit from his interest in them.	A learner can utilize knowledge to lend understanding and support to those who have an interdependent relationship.	A learner realizes that knowledge can be used to help him see and appreciate diversity among persons.	A learner utilizes knowledge in evaluating his relationships with others.

of ways persons may function within an environment that has some structure.

3. Learning is an exciting and different experience for each person involved. Our aim is to capture this individuality and encourage it.
4. Observational instruments and guidelines can provide learners and teachers with specific information about their behavior as it occurs in the classroom setting.

In summary, we propose that observational instruments derived from data gathered in the natural setting will enable observers to describe behavior and to catch individual nuances and personal characteristics that must not be lost if a personalized transactive approach to education is valued.

The Development of Personal Power as the Key to Self-Renewal

Our assumption has been that the development of personal power is critical to school programs. It is difficult to develop personal power in a vacuum; hence, any school system concerned about this critical factor needs to consider all facets of schooling to insure that the climate facilitates the development of personal power for all—administrators, parents, teachers, and children. As soon as one group feels powerless, it is more difficult for persons in other parts of the system to develop adequate concepts of power.

School personnel working alone or in concert can do much to insure that conditions exist which facilitate each person's growth in the understanding and application of principles of power. As persons in inservice programs seek self-renewal of themselves and the system of which they are part, they can do a number of things. They can read about personal power and seek to come to an understanding of its various dimensions. They can seek to find new syntheses of ideas. And, they can seek to act upon their continuously developing insights.

Assuming the basic assumptions and framework we have proposed are accepted, what can you, the reader, think about and act upon if ideas considered in this paper seem worthy of development?

1. React to the general tone of this paper. Should the inservice programs center on the individual school? If so, what considerations need to be taken into account that were not discussed in the preceding pages? For example, how would you account for the political milieu in which the school finds itself?
2. Consider the assumptions about inservice programs. Can a school develop its own operational philosophy? What militates against this procedure? What factors within a school facilitate this happening? Does the school in which you work have an operational philosophy? Suppose you were to try to conduct a major overhaul, what would you do?
3. React to the view of the person inherent in the proposed framework. Is the view realistic? What needs to be spelled out in more detail? With what points do you agree? Disagree?
4. React to the general framework of the curriculum model presented in

Figure 1. What questions would you have if you were to try to utilize it in planning for your situation? Can you suggest any modifications to make it relevant to your situation?

5. Critically analyze the development of the model in Figure 2. What other illustrations seem appropriate to use in the grid?

6. Try to extend Figures 1 and 2. What other dimensions of the person should be included? What are some additional "givens" within the classroom? How does this type of curriculum model from other ways of developing curriculum that you know about?

7. Take any process or skill which interests you and try to apply the model. "Peopling" was used as an illustration of the model in Figure 3. You might take reading, communicating, perceiving, observing, thinking. Outline some key concepts from your own thinking and reading about the process. Then deal with the givens and selected aspects of the process in a form similar to the figures in this paper.

8. For the process or skill that you seek to study in detail, gather some classroom information diary-style. From your observations, see if you can develop an observational instrument to assist in the gathering of descriptive information. Use the instrument in your own classroom and that of a colleague. Discuss the outcomes.

Conclusion

Living can be zestful, complex, and full of uniquely human satisfactions. Or, living can be drab, simplistic and giving less than adequate attention to the multiple factors that contribute to man's humaneness.

In similar manner, inservice programs can be exciting, fanciful, dynamic and contributing to the quality of education. Or, inservice programs can be monotonous, sterile, singular in their dimensions and contributing to mediocrity in education.

We prefer to think that educators are not afraid of complexity and therefore we have dared to propose that the framework we have sketched can be more fully developed and implemented in the classroom. Teachers are invited to join us in its further refinement, personalization and implementation.

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TRAINING IN INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION: IMPROVING THE INFLUENCE OF THE COOPERATING TEACHER

Teacher educators have long sensed that one of the most powerful factors affecting the performance of student teachers is the cooperating teacher with whom the student teacher works. Various studies have reported that teaching behaviors of student teachers moved from no association or negative association with the behavior of cooperating teachers in the initial days of student teaching to significant associations by the termination of student teaching (Flint, 1965; Mitchell, 1969; Prokop, 1971; Roberts & Blankenship, 1970; Seperson & Joyce, 1971). Experienced teachers report that the most significant portion of their professional training was student teaching and that the most influential factor in their student teaching was their cooperating teacher.

Direct and Indirect Influence of Cooperating Teachers

Cooperating teachers influence the behavior of student teachers both directly and indirectly. Direct influence occurs when the cooperating teacher engages in supervisory actions, when he sits and talks with the student teacher about classroom occurrences with the purpose of solving problems or improving performance. Indirect influence occurs when the cooperating teacher, in the pursuit of his normal work, exhibits behaviors which serve as models of desirable actions. Bandura's (1963) work on the influence of modeling on learning offers a framework for understanding the effects of such indirect influence.

Teacher educators who desire to improve the quality of training experiences for student teachers may, therefore, reasonably strive to improve the quality of the direct and indirect influence of cooperating teachers. The quality of the indirect influence depends largely on the teaching ability of the cooperating teacher. If he is a good teacher, he will model a significant amount of good teaching behaviors for the student teacher. Teacher educators can exercise a certain amount of control over the quality of the cooperating teacher's indirect influence by selecting people whose quality of performance and effectiveness as a teacher are demonstrable and by providing inservice training programs to them for the purpose of improving their teaching skills. Systematic attempts to improving the cooperating

teacher's indirect influence on student teachers' behaviors constitute one of the hallmarks of alert teacher education institutions.

Concerted efforts by teacher education institutions to improve cooperating teachers' direct influence on student teachers have received less systematic attention and treatment. Direct influence, in which the cooperating teacher engages the student teacher in specific conversation intended to solve teaching problems and improve student teacher performance, occurs less frequently and with much less assurance of success. One of the characteristics of a successful cooperating teacher is the ability to exercise systematic, direct influence on the student teacher. Yet many of these teachers, who are excellent performers themselves, have difficulty exercising direct influence of a beneficial nature on student teachers. They find it difficult, for example, to conduct fruitful conferences for the purpose of improving the student teacher's teaching skills. They often can not provide meaningful feedback about teaching performance to the student teacher because of their own lack of skills needed for effective observation and analysis of teaching encounters.

How can a teacher preparation institution assist cooperating teachers in working directly with student teachers in an effort to solve teaching problems and improve instruction? Assistance may be provided by training cooperating teachers to employ a process of supervision which focuses on changing teaching behavior as a method of solving instructional problems. First, a word or two about problems, student teachers and behavior change.

Problems—Student Teachers and Behavior Change

When we look at instructional problems in the classroom, we generally react to them in terms of pupil behavior. There are academic behavior problems, such as a pupil's being unable to distinguish certain vowel sounds or unable to perform specific mathematical operations. There are also conduct behavior problems, such as a pupil's continuous shouting out in class or a pupil's refraining from active participation in class discussions. Instructional problems can be so defined in terms of specific pupil behavior which we can call "target" behavior. The teacher would like to change these target behaviors in desirable directions. The problem is that the teacher has no direct control over these target pupil behaviors. He can not turn a switch that will cause the pupil to comprehend simple fractions. Nerve impulses from the teacher's thought center do not activate pupil's vocal apparatus. The teacher has direct control only over his own behavior. The hope is that, by changing his own behaviors, the teacher can influence the pupil's behavior. These teaching behaviors we can call "affecting" behaviors. Thus, by changing his own affecting behavior, the teacher hopes to influence the pupil's target behavior in desirable ways, thereby solving the instructional problem.

There are, however, many factors other than teacher behaviors which affect pupil actions, such as home environment, previous educational experience, peer pressure, and physical characteristics. Unfortunately, the

teacher has little control or influence over these other factors. He has control only over his own behavior.

Solving instructional problems by changing pupil's target behavior through changing teacher's affecting behavior is a delicate operation. First, the teacher must recognize the need for changing both the target and affecting behaviors. This recognition must exist within the teacher, not be imposed from without. It is not sufficient that the student teacher be told by another person that he should make changes in his own behavior. Tuckman and Oliver (1968) found that such externally imposed supervisory suggestions had little effect on teacher performance. The teacher must genuinely feel the need for change or change will not be effective or permanent.

Yet, at the same time we know that teachers, especially student teachers, are unaware of the many teaching/learning behaviors that exist in their classrooms. People perceive the world selectively (Gibb, 1960). They cannot be aware of all that is happening. They are not even aware of many significant things that are happening about them as they teach, as evidenced by the surprise many teachers express when seeing a videotape of their own teaching for the first time. It is especially true that student teachers are not fully aware of the sources of their instructional problems. They may be vaguely aware that problems exist but are often unable to define the specific target behaviors that should be changed. Further, they may be unaware of the range of affecting behaviors that could resolve the problem.

Therefore, it follows that an increased awareness of the teaching/learning behaviors which actually exist in the classroom can help the student teacher recognize needed changes (Baker, 1970; Flanders, 1970; Stoller, 1968). If he becomes more aware of the specific behaviors that are occurring in the classroom, he can better define those target behaviors that seem to be the source of the problem. Further, he can hypothesize about possible affecting behaviors that could change the target behaviors. For example, a student teacher may be vaguely aware that he is uncomfortable with the quality of the classroom discussions he is leading. A close examination of his class might reveal that students typically respond to his questions with one word answers instead of full sentences and that he typically asks many questions that can be answered "yes" or "no." In this case, an increased awareness of the teaching/learning behaviors in his class might cause him to hypothesize that, if he asks questions which call for full sentence answers and which can be answered in a variety of "correct" ways (affecting behavior) then the students' responses might be more sustained (target behavior).

An increased awareness in the student teacher of the teaching/learning behaviors that exist in the classroom can be achieved by systematic classroom observation. In the past few years the techniques of systematic and objective observation of classroom behaviors have been developed and refined to the point that realistic and useful measures on a number of dimensions of teaching/learning behaviors can be obtained through the application of any of a number of observation instruments (Amidon & Hough, 1967; Furst & Hill, 1968; Medley & Mitzel, 1963; Simon & Boyer, 1967; Weick, 1968). The use of these so-called "mirrors of behavior" can

reveal to the student teacher many teaching/learning behaviors about which he is unaware.

It is, however, difficult for a student teacher to apply systematic observation instruments to his own classroom while he is teaching. He can not conduct his class and, at the same time, take the step back from the class which is necessary when using a systematic observation instrument. He needs the help of a trained observer who can apply a selected observation instrument while the class is in session without disrupting the classroom.

A potential problem may also arise when an observer endeavors to provide information about classroom behavior to a teacher. Such a feedback of results of systematic observation can be a threatening experience for any teacher, especially an inexperienced one. Deliberate feedback based on data obtained from systematic observations is very difficult in both its nature and volume from the typical feedback teachers are accustomed to receiving. They normally experience feedback derived indirectly from pupils or from limited observations of administrators. Such feedback is generally global, impressionistic and judgmental. Feedback based on data derived from systematic observation is specific, focused, deliberate and free from judgmental bias and, as such, may create "information insurgency" (Feit, 1969). Providing such deliberate and specific feedback is, therefore, a critical and delicate process which calls for the exercise of considerable skill, even more so when it is being provided by a cooperating teacher to an inexperienced, and many times unsure, student teacher. From the outset the relationship between the cooperating teacher as the source of data-based feedback and the student teacher as its recipient is crucial (Flanders, 1970; Stoller, 1968). The relationship requires mutual trust, nonthreat and openness. The two parties desirably see each other as colleagues, working together toward common goals in an atmosphere of mutual support. Trust, lack of threat, openness, and support are all pertinent to the student teacher's accepting from the cooperating teacher as both valid and valuable, the observational data, internalizing and processing the data, and using them to identify needed behavior changes.

In order to foster such a relationship the cooperating teacher can encourage clear understanding between himself and the student teacher by using specific communication skills including paraphrasing, perception checking, asking clarifying questions, and offering relevant information. He can further encourage a healthy interpersonal climate by employing such skills as using supporting and freeing moves, attending behaviors, and praise. The cooperating teacher can reduce potential threat by skillfully providing observational data at a regulated pace so that the student teacher is able to explore, process and understand the data and their implications. Further, he can facilitate the student teacher's ability to analyze and interpret the data with the goal of enabling him to identify possible sources of problems and hypothesize solutions.

These observations concerning instructional problems, student teachers and behavior change point to a technology for directly influencing the instructional behavior of student teachers. The technology would assist

cooperating teachers to identify and contribute to the resolution of specific instructional problems for the purpose of improving the teaching performance of student teachers. It would focus on classroom behaviors, specifically those pupil behaviors which are targets of change and those teacher behaviors which may affect that change. Further, such a technology would have two dominate components: (1) systematic observation and analysis of classroom behaviors and (2) face-to-face interaction between student teacher and cooperating teacher in an open and helping interpersonal relationship. Finally, such a technology would combine these components by means of an explicit process of problem identification and resolution which would emphasize systematic methods so as to free the cooperating teacher and student teacher from dependence on intuitive, "one shot" approaches to the improvement of instruction.

Instructional Supervision

A number of authors (Cogan, 1973; Doyle, 1969; Goldhammer, 1969) have advocated variations of such an explicit process for the supervision of teachers. Their proposals include in common a conference in which the supervisor and teacher identify a problem, an observation of the teacher's classroom by the supervisor, and another conference during which the supervisor provides to the teacher the results of the observation. At the University of California, Santa Barbara a four-year development effort has organized specific supervisory concepts, operations, and procedures into a process through which cooperating teacher and student teacher can move together as they attempt to resolve instructional problems. We call this process Instructional Supervision. The total process consists of five basic stages, each of which is further divided into sequential steps, as illustrated below.

The process begins when a concern about an instructional problem becomes evident to the student teacher and cooperating teacher.

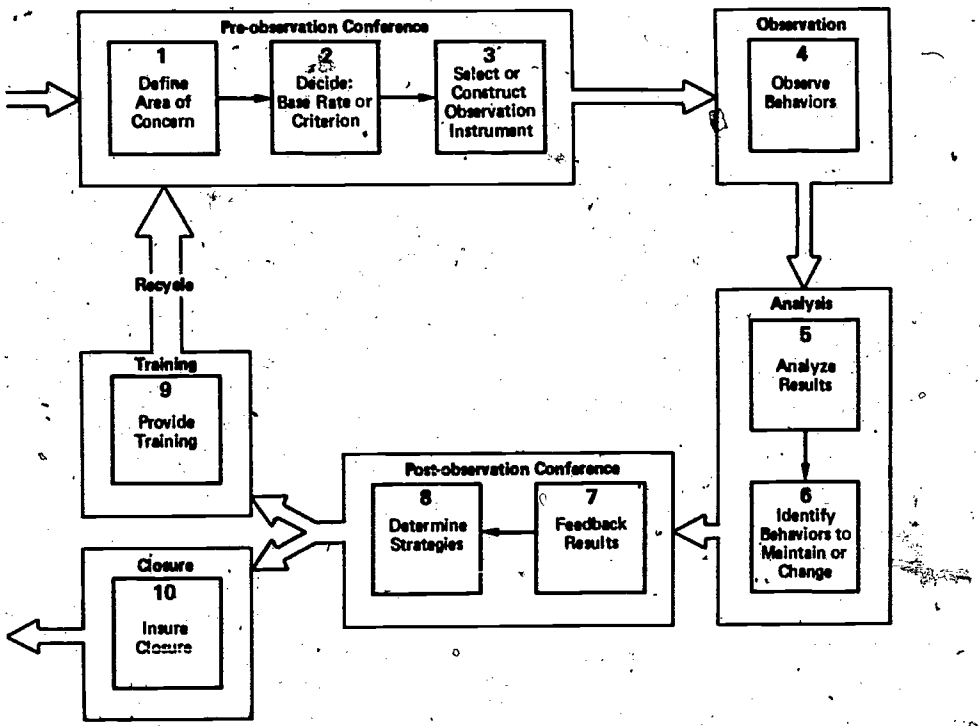
First Stage: The Pre-Observation Conference

Step #1: Define behaviorally the area of concern. The cooperating teacher helps the student teacher to identify and define the problem. Such a definition includes the identification of specific pupil (target) behaviors that the student teacher would like to change and possible teacher (affecting) behaviors that might bring about that change. All definitions are stated in behavioral terms, eliminating the use of any judgmental language.

Step #2: Decide to obtain a base rate or set a performance criteria. The cooperating teacher and student teacher together agree upon the target and affecting behaviors which the pupils and the student teacher will desirably exhibit. If this is their first attempt at solving the problem, they may decide to establish only an initial base rate of occurrence of the behaviors of interest, as a way of determining what is actually happening in the classroom. If, on the other hand, they have decided on what behavior changes

DIAGRAM #1

THE INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION PROCESS



are necessary, they would instead establish specific performance criteria as indicative of the desired changes. The criteria established can be of three types: relative frequency (i.e., 50% of the questions asked by the teacher will be higher order questions); absolute frequency (i.e., at least 10 questions asked by the teacher will be higher order questions); and pattern (every third question asked by the teacher will be a higher order question).

Step #3: Select an observation instrument. The two parties establish a method by which the behaviors of interest will be systematically observed by the cooperating teacher in the classroom. Here, the cooperating teacher's knowledge of observation systems allows the selection or adaptation of an existing instrument or even the creation of a new instrument that will focus on the specific target and affecting behaviors of interest.

Second Stage: Observation

Step #4: Observe the specified behaviors. The cooperating teacher observes the student teacher in the classroom and systematically records observations using the previously selected instrument.

Third Stage: Analysis

Step #5: Analyze the observation results. The cooperating teacher analyzes the data from his observation. During the analysis he composes a "data display" which contains both the raw data from the classroom observation put into manageable and understandable form and summary statements which summarize the data without interpretation or evaluation. Omission of interpretation and evaluation from the data display is deliberate because the display later goes to the student teacher for his own analysis. The cooperating teacher continues his analysis by determining if the previously agreed upon criteria for successful performance were met, identifies patterns that may exist in the data, and makes comparisons with previous observations if they are available.

Step #6: Identify behaviors needing maintenance or change. Based on his analysis in Step #5, the cooperating teacher identifies those pupil behaviors which are targets of change and teacher affecting behaviors which might be related to the target behaviors. The behaviors might be judged to be positive, in which case they should be maintained or even increased. On the other hand, they might be judged to be negative, in which case they should be changed. In either event the cooperating teacher will synthesize these determinations and attempt to design a strategy which, if implemented by the student teacher, should solve the instructional problem.

Fourth Stage: Post Observation Conference

Step #7: Feedback the data results. The cooperating teacher provides feedback to the student teacher in the form of the previously prepared data display. Once the student teacher understands and is able to process the data, he is helped to analyze it for himself. During this operation the cooperating teacher does not make his own analysis or his view of an appropriate strategy available to the student teacher; doing so would limit and channel the latter's own exploration of the data and restrict opportunities for the student teacher to grow in analysis skills. Instead, the cooperating teacher prompts the student teacher, offering cues when necessary and encouraging the use of many of the analysis skills used earlier by the cooperating teacher.

Step #8: Determine Strategies. The student teacher compares the results of his analysis with his previous perceptions of what he might have expected to find. On the basis of these analyses and comparisons and with the aid of the cooperating teacher he identifies needed changes and strategies for affecting those changes.

Fifth Stage: Training and Recycle or Closure

Step #9: Provide training. In many cases, the increased awareness of existing behaviors resulting from feedback of data obtained from systematic observation is enough to bring about changes in the behavior of the student teacher (Amidon & Hough, 1967; Tuckman, McCall & Hyman, 1966).

Concepts derived from or related to cognitive dissonance theories are typically used to explain such training effects (Birch, n.d.; Parsons, n.d.). If, however, the student teacher has difficulty in exhibiting any affecting behaviors which he has decided are necessary to solve the problem, the cooperating teacher designs or arranges for training activities through which the student teacher can acquire the needed competencies (Young & Deming, 1972). These activities might be as simple as a brief role-playing exercise or rehearsal or as complicated as a simulation session (Cruickshank, 1969; Vlcek, 1965) or even participation in a Mini-Course training program (Borg, Lancer, & Kelly, 1970).

Recycle. The cooperating teacher and student teacher can then recycle the process to verify the effect of the implemented change strategies upon the instructional problem. Such a recycling may involve a change in the performance criteria (Step #2) and a corresponding change in the observation instrument (Step #3). The remainder of the process would be followed as specified above.

Step #10: Insure closure. Once the problem is resolved, the cooperating teacher insures that the student teacher achieves closure by clearly understanding why and how the previously identified instructional problem was brought to successful resolution. Thus the process of Instructional Supervision is completed.

A Growth Experience for Student Teachers

Characteristic of the process is the emphasis on facilitating growth in the decision-making capabilities of the student teacher. This emphasis derives from a basic assumption about the practice of teaching. To the teacher belongs the major responsibility for instructional decisions in the classroom; therefore, he is the major agent whose decisions have a direct influence on classroom functioning (Doyle, 1972). Because teacher decision-making is crucial to instruction, improvement of student teacher skills in problem-definition and resolution should be central to the student teaching experience. If the cooperating teacher continually inserts himself between the student teacher and the class by assuming the decision-making prerogative, by deciding for the student teacher what should be done to solve instructional problems, the senior colleague will interrupt rather than aid the improvement of the novice's effectiveness.

Instructional Supervision provides for the desired training of student teachers. In Stage I, Step #1 the cooperating teacher works with the student in defining the nature of the instructional problem. He does not tell the student teacher what the problem is. In Stages III and IV of the process, the cooperating teacher analyzes the data which results from his classroom observation but he does not make that analysis directly available to the student teacher during the Post-Observation Conference. Instead, he encourages the student teacher to analyze the data and to propose possible solutions to the problem. Throughout the process, the cooperating teacher continually judges the student teacher's functional autonomy, that is, his ability to proceed independently in the problem-solving process, and regu-

lates the directness of the aid he will supply the student teacher accordingly. Thus, the goal of Instructional Supervision is not only resolution of a particular instructional problem but also growth in the student teacher's ability to recognize and solve instructional problems in the classroom.

Utilization of Instructional Supervision

To use the Process effectively with student teachers, cooperating teachers must possess a practical working knowledge of its particular stages and steps. Further, successful use of the Process requires that the cooperating teacher possess a variety of specific capabilities, including skills which insure clear communication and establish open and healthy interpersonal relations, skills in systematic and objective observation and analysis of classroom behaviors, and skills in conducting supervisory conferences, providing focused, data-based feedback in a nonthreatening manner, and facilitating growth in student teachers' problem-solving abilities.

A team of developers at the University of California, Santa Barbara undertook to answer the question of whether cooperating teachers can be trained in the knowledge and skills pertinent to the Instructional Supervision Process. Assisted by three years of grants from the U.S. Office of Education the Santa Barbara team did develop a tested training program for delivering the competencies specified above (Boyan, Copeland, Sell, Maughn, Stevenson, Sturm, Beall, & Moore, 1973). The training program was designed in a self-contained form to enable the training to be administered at teacher training institutions or local school sites by indigenous personnel, *without* involvement of developers of the program. The program's characteristics include (1) a workshop format built around role-playing and practicum activities intended to deliver proficiency in the many skills of instructional supervision, (2) learning activities conducted in small groups to insure continual performance feedback from fellow participants and to provide for the building of interpersonal relation skills *while* practicing the steps of the Process, and (3) provision of information about the substance of the process by means of written materials, audio and videotapes.

The ability of the self-contained program to deliver the desired training was tested at nine separate training sites across the nation. The present authors have reported elsewhere (Boyan & Copeland, 1974) substantial evidence that the training program affected significantly the supervisory performance of subjects who received training. Of 60 measures of training effect, more than 50 were in the desired direction and more than 40 were statistically significant.

Effects of Instructional Supervision

The question of effect on student teachers of use of the process of Instructional Supervision by cooperating teachers was addressed by Pate (1973). He reports that student teachers whose cooperating teachers received training in an earlier version of the training program were significantly more able to analyze and evaluate instructional performance than

student teachers whose cooperating teachers had received no such training. More research is needed to demonstrate conclusively the effects on student teachers of training provided to cooperating teachers, but Pate's investigation lends support to the assumption that the performance of student teachers can be significantly affected by providing specific training to their cooperating teachers.

Conclusion

If it is in the interest of teacher education institutions to improve the quality of the direct influence of cooperating teachers on their student teachers, then the institution should consider offering appropriate training to cooperating teachers. The present report has described certain characteristics which underly the cooperating teacher's direct influence of student teachers and has described a technology, called Instructional Supervision, which takes into account these characteristics and which offers a means by which cooperating teachers can improve their direct influence. The technology assists in both the resolution of immediate problems and in the continuous growth of student teachers in the ability to confront and solve instructional problems in a purposeful and professional manner. Further, evidence is available that cooperating teachers can be trained to mastery level in the technology by the teacher education institution responsible for the student teacher.

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