DOCUMENT RESUME

ABSTRACT
            Instructional supervision is intertwined with the
debate on how humans learn and on what knowledge is of greatest
import. Those who believe that knowledge is acquired as an individual
chooses to follow his or her own inclinations tend to favor
nondirective supervision. Those who believe that learning is the
result of reciprocity and experimentation advocate collaborative
supervision. Those who believe that learning is acquired through
compliance with a set of standards advocate directive supervision.
Because all methods can be successful when applied in the proper
circumstances, it is important for a supervisor to be aware of his or
her own beliefs on supervision. To help create such an awareness, the
author includes a self-assessment questionnaire for supervisors to
use in determining their beliefs. The questionnaire is followed by a
discussion on which of ten behaviors on the supervisory behavior
continuum (listening, clarifying, encouraging, presenting,
problem-solving, negotiating, demonstrating, directing,
standardizing, and reinforcing) are associated with the orientation.
A paradigm of four teacher categories (dropouts, unfocused workers,
analytical observers, and professionals) based on teacher commitment
and level of abstract thinking is developed to help supervisors
determine which supervisory orientation is appropriate for a specific
teacher's developmental stage. (Author/IRT)

Developmental Supervision:

Alternative Practices for Helping Teachers Improve Instruction.

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This text is dedicated to my own "developmental supervisors":
J. Martin Diggs, David Gast, John Renber, Geneva Woodruff, James
DeSantis, William Stowell, Charles Wellsoms, and C. Ray Williams.

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Acknowledgements

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About the Author

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Foreword

Even educators tend to overlook the developmental nature of learning when they work with colleagues and other adults. Since supervisors serve in many ways as "teachers of teachers," it is important that they view their role as that of a facilitator of learning. Thus, realizing that teachers vary in their learning styles just as students do, it is necessary for supervisors to have a repertoire of supervisory behaviors to draw on in relating effectively to teachers' needs.

The purpose of *Developmental Supervision* is to assist leadership persons in education to identify their own beliefs about the supervisory process and to determine the appropriate amount and sequence of the processes of listening, clarifying, encouraging, presenting, problem solving, negotiating, demonstrating, directing, and reinforcing as they work to improve learning. The author rightfully takes the position that desired results are best obtained when both the supervisor and those being supervised feel comfortable with the choice of supervisory behaviors. He uses specific incidents, definite procedures, and suggested follow-up measures to engineer theories related to supervisory behavior down to the terra firma of realistic practice. The necessary diagnosis and the generation of creative prescriptions combine the same science and art components necessary in any meaningful instruction. The importance of the decision-making role of both teachers and supervisors is dealt with as the structural link between desired goals and learning outcomes.

It is hoped that the premise for developmental supervision advanced in this booklet will come to full fruition in the practices of its readers, leading to better learning experiences for teachers who then, in turn, will teach as they are taught.

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LUCILLE G. JORDAN
President, 1981-82
Association for Supervision and
Curriculum Development

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Preface

Research into human development, particularly how children and adults grow cognitively, socially, physically, and aesthetically, has been prolific. Until now, such research has been applied mainly to early, primary education, adult education, and "life span" counseling. Educational supervisors can profit immensely by applying developmental principles to their work with teachers on improving instruction. The rejection of the "either/or" advocacy of behavioral, cognitive, and humanistic supervisory approaches now can be substantiated by what is known about the variation in teacher growth. In taking into account teachers' *level of commitment* and their *level of abstract thinking*, the supervisor can use a criteria for selecting the most appropriate supervisory orientation. The theme of this book is that "no one approach works for all", when considering individual teacher development, the supervisor can choose an approach that will be more effective than others.

Thus, the purpose of *Developmental Supervision* is to help the school leader think about supervision in a developmental manner and subsequently interact with his or her staff in new and more effective ways. Research and theory are used as the pivotal framework, yet they are specifically cited only as they relate to practice. I believe that the school leader, whether in early childhood, elementary, middle, secondary, or post secondary education, will find the use of alternative strategies of supervision with teachers at varying levels of development helpful in improving class and school instruction.

CARL GLICKMAN

1.
The Debate

Shirley Horsback is an English teacher in her twelfth year at New Castle High School. She is married, has no children, and lives in a high socioeconomic neighborhood twenty miles from the low economic neighborhood of her school. A major reason that Ms. Horsback teaches at New Castle is her desire "to help students from such impoverished surroundings acquire an appreciation for literature." She is an avid reader of both contemporary and classic literature and occasionally writes her own short stories.

Ms. Horsback generally is regarded as a competent teacher. She has a rather bombastic manner of speaking and with her large, robust, and rangy physical stature creates an imposing presence. Many of her students are afraid of her and the word is passed quickly around to new students that "you don't mess with Old Lady Horsback." Most students grudgingly believe that her classes are worthwhile. When the hard work and teacher pressure is over, students seem to emerge from her class as better readers and writers.

Ms. Horsback, except for one close friend, is not liked by other teachers at New Castle. They complain of her arrogant, elitist attitude. She conveys the impression that poor New Castle High is privileged to have such a literate person as herself on its staff. She lets it be known that she was once accepted as a PhD student in English at a prestigious university but turned it down to teach at New Castle. At faculty meetings, Ms. Horsback's sense of superiority is evident; she has an answer to every problem. She is insightful, she analyzes and proposes thorough solutions; and she can easily suggest what others should do to make New Castle a better school. But when it comes to action, she backs off. Ms. Horsback is usually the last teacher to arrive at school in the morning, the first to leave in the afternoon.

What kind of supervision can help Ms. Horsback improve not only her classroom instruction, but also the learning climate of the school?

Ms. Horvack is one of several very real teachers discussed in this book—including 63-year-old Mr. Sangui who is near retirement after 35 years of teaching, neophyte Ms. Tilton, and fifth year teacher Bill Donner. We'll study each of them as they undergo predictable patterns of experiences and concerns. None of these teachers is imaginary although their names have been changed, they were all under my supervision as a school principal.

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But please note—in most cases, I did *not* practice, in my own supervisory roles, the appropriate strategies for working with developing teachers that I explain in this book. Supervisors today have a combination of tools, research, and theory that were either piecemeal or nonexistent in the past. I found Ms. Horvback, Mr. Sangui, Mr. Donner, and Ms. Tilton difficult to work with in a constructive manner. But in this difficulty my interest in effective supervision grew. In effect, the nagging question that guided my further study and research has been, "Why weren't these teachers successfully helped." This book attempts to answer that question so that those of us who continue to work with faculty to improve instruction might avoid the pitfalls of the past and capitalize on the gathering knowledge for the future.

The Need for Leadership

The times call for strong leaders. Those who supervise teachers—principals, curriculum directors, head teachers, department chairpersons, or superintendents — need to avoid acquiescing to noneducational pressures. Students are demanding constitutional rights. Teachers through their strong professional associations are attempting to set the conditions under which they will work. Parents are demanding cultural relevance. Taxpayers are demanding no-growth school budgets. School boards are asking for "back to basic, no frills education." State legislatures are mandating performanced based teacher competencies for certification. State and federal courts are determining school policies in such areas as student distribution, special education, curriculum content, and student discipline.

Such pressures from various external groups are not necessarily bad and, in many cases, have contributed to progress and reform in education. However, what is glaringly wrong is that too often educators are missing from the educational decision making process. Those who are most intimately involved with the operation of the instructional program in schools need to stand up and make their thoughts known. They need to stand up for what they know about effective teaching and learning. Furthermore, they must be willing to substantiate what they mean by effective teaching and learning and help work with pressure groups in formulating new directions for improving instruction. For those of us in supervisory positions to simply wait for the next directive to be issued from parents, school boards, courts, or taxpayers, and then shrug our shoulders, is to continue the "educational mindlessness" that Charles Silberman (1971) referred to in *Crisis in the Classroom*. To fail to lead is to allow noneducators to make educational decisions. However, the supervisor must first be willing to understand and clarify what the established research says about effective learning before attempting to lead others toward a common vision. We might begin by looking at the entangled controversy about education and supervision.

The Supervisory Controversy

How a person works with another to improve his or her performance has been studied largely in business, industry, and the military. Much of what appears to be effective in increasing production of automobiles, or in capturing hill number 124, or in doubling the sales of ice cream, eventually becomes translated into implications for how school supervisors should work with teachers to increase student learning. This book will *not* draw from such outside research. Research on improving performance is generalizable to other settings only where similar goals exist. Studies about auto production at the Ford plant can be generalized and used by General Motors and (most hopefully) Chrysler. The same studies, however, are more difficult to generalize for use by institutions that produce ice cream cones or bermuda shorts. Production of human learning is a far more different matter. In fact, should we even be looking at human learning as a production commodity?

To begin with, then, the study of human learning (by student, teacher, or supervisor) needs to be apart from studies of material commodities, sales, or conquest. Therefore, the research and findings cited on the following pages are drawn from the fields of human development and cognition and within the context of an educational environment (the school) rather than from non-educational enterprises.

The scope for understanding instructional supervision is therefore reduced to the theory and findings about human learning. The goal of instructional supervision is to help teachers learn how to increase their own capacity to achieve professed learning goals for their students. Such an undertaking, even eliminating the research outside of schools, remains tremendously complex.

Instructional supervision is intertwined with the debate on human learning. How does one learn? *Humanistic psychologists* premise that learning is the result of an individual's curiosity to find rationality and order in the world. Learning is seen as an innate, unfolding process. The teacher supports the natural curiosity of the individual and learning results from self-discovery. *Cognitive psychologists* argue that learning is the result of an interchange between the individual acting on the outer environment and, in turn, the outer environment of animate and inanimate objects acting on the individual. Learning is viewed as the process of reciprocal actions of student with teacher, other students, and manipulative objects. Finally, *behavioral psychologists* view learning as the imprinting (or conditioning) of the individual by the outer environment. Learning results as one imitates and practices actions that are rewarded or punished.

Such an explanation of the three predominant views of learning shows the marked differences in what is regarded as knowledge. Humanistic educators view knowledge as information students discover for themselves. For the cogni-

tive educator, it is those procedures that "work" in producing tangible results with others. For the behavioral educator, knowledge is a predetermined set of behaviors, content, and skills established by experts as necessary for people to survive in society.

In Figure 1, in this debate, the basic onus of responsibility for acquiring knowledge shifts from the student (in the view of the humanist), to a shared responsibility between student and teacher (in the view of the cognitivist) to the teacher (in the view of the behaviorist). Likewise we find the same educational debate concerning the nature of curriculum, the purposes schools should have, the discipline and management procedures that should be employed with students, and the techniques we should use in supervising teachers.

Figure 1.   Views of Learning

Student Responsibility:	High	Moderate	Low
Teacher Responsibility:	Low	Moderate	High
Psychological View of Learning:	Humanist	Cognitivist	Behaviorist
Method of Learning.	Self-Discovery	Experimentation	Conditioning

The nub of this treatise is that those who write, research, and theorize in education are educators first and supervisors second. In other words, there are conflicting views as to how students learn and what knowledge is of greatest import. The debate among supervisors over the best approaches to working with teachers is comparable to the debate about the best approaches to working with children. Figure 2 shows how responsibility for teacher improvement moves from teacher to supervisor. Those who believe that knowledge is relative —acquired only as the individual chooses to follow his or her own inclinations —advocate supervisory approaches that allow the teacher to make his or her own determination of what improvement is needed. The emphasis is on self-assessment. Those who believe that learning is the result of reciprocity and experimentation advocate approaches to supervision that result in a shared determination of what needs to be done. Mutual contracting provides a vehicle for such reciprocity. Those who believe that learning is acquired through compliance with a standard advocate approaches whereby the supervisor determines the need and plan for teacher improvement. The emphasis is on establishing delineated standards of performance. These three orientations to supervision, for purposes of this book, are labeled *Nondirective, Collaborative,* and *Directive.* In reality each orientation rarely exists in such neat, precise categories; however, a supervisor can be judged according to his or her usual emphasis. A directive

supervisor who leans toward behavioral management might use methods that
appear to come from other orientations. However, such methods are used only
as they contribute to the supervisor's final goal of having teachers meet pre-
determined standards of performance. The same can be said for the other "types"
of supervisory orientations. Supervisors might employ elements of other orienta-
tions as contributions to their final view of learning and knowledge.

How do we explicate in practical terms a successful way of dealing with
teachers, which not only breaks from the "either/or" dilemmas of education and

Figure 2. Views of Supervision

Teacher Responsibility:	High	Moderate	Low
Supervisor Responsibility:	Low	Moderate	High
Orientation to Supervision:	Nondirective	Collaborative	Directive
Primary Method:	Self-assessment	Mutual Contract	Delineated Standards

supervision but also moves the profession into new and purposeful grounds?
Researchers within the last twenty years have found evidence to support each
orientation. Humans learn through self-exploration, collaboration, and condi-
tioning. Research has not (nor will it likely ever) unequivocally establish one
orientation towards learning as "the proven way." The recent brain research of
the left and right hemispheres (Languis and others, 1980) supports the premise
that different physical properties of the brain possess functions for various kinds
of learning. In effect, research suggests that there are learning variations *within*
each individual. We each have the capacity to learn in a multitude of ways.

Such support for all manners of learning does not validate a compromise
between humanist, behaviorist, and cognitivist. Instead, it suggests that there
are methods and orientations to learning that are more appropriate than others
when determined by purpose, situation, and needs of individuals. It is not a
matter of "since we can't establish a winner let's shake hands, be friends, and
use a little bit of each orientation." Instead, the need is for a planned eclecticism
of varying forms of learning in pure form to help students. For example, to use
behavioral approaches to acquire short-term, observable rudimentary knowledge,
to use cognitive approaches to acquire logical, abstract reasoning; and to use
humanistic approaches to express emotions in creative forms are all appropriate.
When the method fits the goal, the goal is more likely to be reached.

Additionally, such research lends itself to differing thoughts about the development of teachers and the kinds of learning that are appropriate at varying stages of teacher growth. Certain orientations to supervision are more appropriate to achieve certain goals with teachers. Supervisors of teachers need to be mindful of the developmental stages of teachers, they should select their actions for their congruence with the particular purpose for improving instruction. In doing this, supervisory eclecticism becomes powerful and effective.

Developmental Supervision is organized to explain the use of such eclecticism. Chapter Two is a study of the continuum of supervisory behaviors. Chapter Three explains each supervisory orientation. Chapter Four reviews the research on teacher development and offers a new criteria for assessing stages of teacher development. Chapter Five matches these stages with appropriate supervisory orientations through case studies. Chapter Six considers other factors of developmental supervision.

What This Book Is Not

Educational supervision is generally viewed as the task and functions that improve instruction. For example, Ben Harris (1975) lists ten major tasks of supervision: developing curriculum, organizing for instruction, providing staff, providing facilities, providing materials, arranging for inservice education, orienting staff members, relating special pupil services, developing public relations, and evaluating instruction. Esposito and others (1975) have reduced these tasks into four categories. (1) indirect service to teachers, (2) direct service to teachers, (3) administrator, and (4) evaluator. Our focus here is limited to the task of direct service to teachers as defined by Esposito and others—what the supervisor can do with teachers to improve their classroom performance through assessment and evaluation of instruction. Instructional-supervision is a subset of educational supervision, a process for improving classroom and school practices by working directly with teachers. Those persons who hold or share this responsibility in a school usually include principals, lead teachers, department heads, curriculum specialists, and central office staff.

We will address only one of the tasks of educational supervision. While direct practice with teachers obviously is extremely important, I do not wish to imply that the other tasks (developing curriculum, special pupil service, and so on) do not also merit attention. It may be possible to integrate the developmental orientations of working directly with teachers to other tasks, but that is beyond the scope of this book. For a more comprehensive treatment of the tasks of supervision, the following texts would be worth pursuing.

Alfonso, R. J.; Firth, G. R.; and Neville, R. F. *Instructional Supervision: A Behavior System*. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1975.

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Sergiovanni, T. J., and Starrat, R. J. *Supervision: Human Perspectives*. 2nd ed. New York: McGraw-Hill, Inc., 1979.

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2.
Determining Supervisory Beliefs

Ms. Eleanor Trombwell, immediately after dismissing her class, rushes down the hall and walks in on her supervisor, Ms. Edgerwood. Ms. Edgerwood looks up from her desk as Ms. Trombwell says, "I can't take it any longer. I have tried and tried to get those kids to learn but they don't know their facts, and they don't care. I don't know what else to do!" Ms. Edgerwood knew there were problems in that class. She had been thinking about what she might do to help, but now, in this abrupt moment, Ms. Trombwell is expectantly waiting for an answer.

If you were Ms. Edgerwood what would you do? One supervisor might dismiss the incident: "Well, Ms. Trombwell it's really not that bad. Why don't you collect your wits and go back to your room." Another supervisor might reply, "I'll tell you what you need Ms. Trombwell. Go back in there and tell those students that if they don't shape up there's going to be hell to pay."

Neither of those supervisors would have given Ms. Trombwell any help. Basically, she would return to the classroom with the same problems and no plans for alleviating them.

Supervision, to effect change in a teacher's instruction, must be directed at developing a specific plan for action. A condescending pat on the hand of a "go in and try harder" exhortation does not contribute to such a plan. Purposeful behaviors that supervisors use to help teachers arrive at specific actions are illustrated in Figure 3, the Supervisory Behavior Continuum. Ms. Edgerwood might have responded in a "planful" manner by:

- *Listening,* saying nothing, perhaps nodding her head to indicate attention, and waiting for the teacher to continue talking.
- *Clarifying,* replying with questions intended to give fuller understanding of the problem: "What do you mean that they don't know their facts? What facts and what students?"
- *Encouraging,* having the teacher talk at greater length about other factors that may be part of the problem: "You seem to be quite angry at the students. Sit down and tell me what else has been going on."
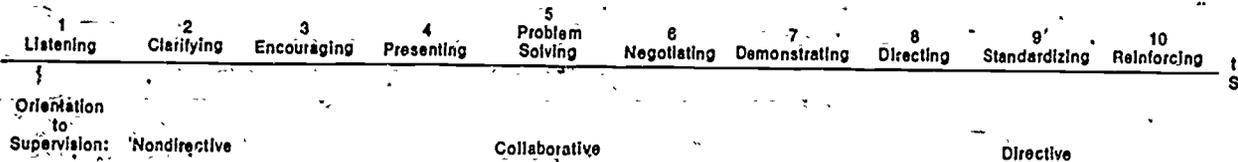
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Figure 3.   The Supervisory Behavior Continuum

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Listening	Clarifying	Encouraging	Presenting	Problem Solving	Negotiating	Demonstrating	Directing	Standardizing	Reinforcing

T {   t
                                                                                                                      S

Orientation
to
Supervision: Nondirective   Collaborative   Directive

Key: T = Maximum teacher responsibility   S = Maximum supervisor responsibility
     t = Minimum teacher responsibility   s = Minimum supervisor responsibility

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• *Presenting*, offering her own perceptions and thoughts about the difficulties: "Ms. Trombwell, let me offer some of my ideas. I think there are two students, Felix and Henrietta, who in particular have been wearing you down. I've been getting complaints from other teachers as well about these kids. Could they be your major difficulty?"

• *Problem solving*, initiating the discussion with statements aimed at exploring solutions: "What have you tried previously with those students to get them to work? What can you try in the future? Maybe we could try an incentive system, change the seating pattern of the classroom, or vary the level of assignments more."

• *Negotiating*, attempting to quickly get to the matter at hand. "What are we going to do about this situation? What should I do as your supervisor, and what should you do as the teacher to improve this situation? Let's be specific."

• *Demonstrating*, physically showing the teacher how she might act. The supervisor might actually take over the class for a lesson and have the teacher observe or spend time in the classroom of another teacher who is more effective in teaching and motivating students. Ms. Edgerwood might have said, "Listen, tomorrow *I'll* teach, and *you* take the notes."

• *Directing*, simply detailing to the teacher what she must do: "Ms. Trombwell, this is what I want you to start doing tomorrow. Review their assignments the first fifteen minutes, then test each student individually on the facts. Don't allow any student who fails the test to have independent activity time that day. Instead, have them correct their tests and drill each other. Try this and report back to me in a week."

• *Reinforcing*, delineating the conditions and consequences for teacher improvement: "Ms. Trombwell, I want you to keep records on all student scores on factual tests this week. If there is 20 percent improvement in scores by next Tuesday, I'll note that effort on your next evaluation."

In Figure 3 the supervisory behaviors are placed on a continuum of shifting responsibilities. Each behavior, from listening to reinforcing, signals a gradual shift of control from teacher to supervisor. The supervisory behaviors of listening, clarifying, and encouraging indicate the teacher's responsibility for analyzing and determining the plan of actions. Presenting, problem solving, and negotiating indicate a shared responsibility for the plan. Finally, demonstrating, directing, and reinforcing indicate the supervisor's maximum responsibility for the plan. Every authority in the field of educational supervision, as well as every practitioner, has a predominant orientation to supervision that is characterized by a specific set of behaviors (Hart, 1979). These characteristic sets of behaviors are orientations of nondirective, collaborative, and directive supervision.

At this point, stop and ask yourself about your own orientation to supervision. Following is a prediction sheet for you to guess how you would place

yourself, and a forced-choice instrument which, if answered honestly, will give you a reality index of how you act. Remember, one orientation is not necessarily better than the others. Associated with each orientation are behaviors with which some individuals feel more comfortable than others in striving to reach their goals.

The Supervisory Beliefs Inventory

This inventory is designed for supervisors to assess their own beliefs about teacher supervision and staff development.* The inventory assumes that supervisors believe and act according to all three of the orientations of supervision, yet one usually dominates. The inventory is designed to be self-administered and self-scored. The second part lists items for which supervisors must choose one of two options. A scoring key follows, which can be used to compare the predictions of Part I with the actual beliefs indicated by the forced-choice items of Part II.

Part I. Predictions (*Check one answer for each question.*)

	Percent of Time				
Questions	Nearly 100%	About 75%	About 50%	About 20%	About 0%
1. How often do you use a *directive approach* (rather than either of the other two approaches) in supervising teachers?					
2. How often do you use a *collaborative approach* (rather than either of the other two approaches) in supervising teachers?					
3. How often do you use a *nondirective approach* (rather than the other two approaches) in supervising teachers?					

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* This instrument has been field-tested six times with 90 supervisors and supervisor trainees. Responses between the options indicated "good" item discrimination. The items were also critiqued by teachers, curriculum specialists, and college professors in education for theoretical consistency. Dr. Roy T. Tamashiro of the Ohio State University developed this inventory with me.

Part II. Forced Choices

Instructions: Circle either A or B for each item. You may not completely agree with either choice, but choose the one that is closest to how you feel.

1. A. Supervisors should give teachers a large degree of autonomy and initiative within broadly defined limits.
   B. Supervisors should give teachers directions about methods that will help them improve their teaching.

2. A. It is important for teachers to set their own goals and objectives for professional growth.
   B. It is important for supervisors to help teachers reconcile their personalities and teaching styles with the philosophy and direction of the school.

3. A. Teachers are likely to feel uncomfortable and anxious if the objectives on which they will be evaluated are not clearly defined by the supervisor.
   B. Evaluations of teachers are meaningless if teachers are not able to define with their supervisors the objectives for evaluation.

4. A. An open, trusting, warm, and personal relationship with teachers is the most important ingredient in supervising teachers.
   B. A supervisor who is too intimate with teachers risks being less effective and less respected than a supervisor who keeps a certain degree of professional distance from teachers.

5. A. My role during supervisory conferences is to make the interaction positive, to share realistic information, and to help teachers plan their own solutions to problems.
   B. The methods and strategies I use with teachers in a conference are aimed at our reaching agreement over the needs for future improvement.

6. In the initial phase of working with a teacher:
   A. I develop objectives with each teacher that will help accomplish school goals.
   B. I try to identify the talents and goals of individual teachers so they can work on their own improvement.

7. When several teachers have a similar classroom problem, I prefer to:
   A. Have the teachers form an ad hoc group and help them work together to solve the problem.
   B. Help teachers on an individual basis find their strengths, abilities, and resources so that each one finds his or her own solution to the problem.

8. The most important clue that an inservice workshop is needed is when:
   A. The supervisor perceives that several teachers lack knowledge or skill in a specific area which is resulting in low morale, undue stress, and less effective teaching.
   B. Several teachers perceive the need to strengthen their abilities in the same instructional area.

9. A. The supervisory staff should decide the objectives of an inservice workshop since they have a broad perspective of the teachers' abilities and the school's needs.
   B. Teachers and the supervisory staff should reach consensus about the objectives of an inservice workshop before the workshop is held.

10. A. Teachers who feel they are growing personally will be more effective in the classroom than teachers who are not experiencing personal growth.
    B. The knowledge and ability of teaching strategies and methods that have been proven over the years should be taught and practiced by all teachers to be effective in their classrooms.
11. When I perceive that a teacher might be scolding a student unnecessarily.
    A. I explain, during a conference with the teacher, why the scolding was excessive.
    B. I ask the teacher about the incident, but do not interject my judgments.
12. A. One effective way to improve teacher performance is to formulate clear behavioral objectives and create meaningful incentives for achieving them.
    B. Behavioral objectives are rewarding and helpful to some teachers but stifling to others, also, some teachers benefit from behavioral objectives in some situations but not in others.
13. During a pre-observation conference:
    A. I suggest to the teacher what I could observe, but I let the teacher make the final decision about the objectives and methods of observation.
    B. The teacher and I mutually decide the objectives and methods of observation.
14. A. Improvement occurs very slowly if teachers are left on their own, but when a group of teachers works together on a specific problem, they learn rapidly and their morale remains high.
    B. Group activities may be enjoyable, but I find that individual, open discussion with a teacher about a problem and its possible solutions leads to more sustained results.
15. When an inservice or staff development workshop is scheduled:
    A. All teachers who participated in the decision to hold the workshop should be expected to attend it.
    B. Teachers, regardless of their role in forming a workshop, should be able to decide if the workshop is relevant to their personal or professional growth and, if not, should not be expected to attend.

Scoring Key

Step 1. Circle your answer from Part II of the inventory in the columns below.

Column I	Column II	Column III
1B....................	1A	
	2B...................	2A
3A....................	3B	
4B...		4A
	5B...................	5A
6A.......................................		6B
	7A..................	7B
8A.......................................		8B
9A....................	9B	

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10B..............................................10A
11A..............................................11B
12A....................12B
                       13B..................13A
14B....................14A
                       15A....................15B
```

Step 2. Tally the number of circled items in each column and multiply by 6.7.

2.1 Total response in Column I _____ × 6.7 = _____

2.2 Total response in Column II _____ × 6.7 = _____

2.3 Total response in Column III _____ × 6.7 = _____

Step 3. Interpretation

The product you obtained in step 2.1 is an approximate percentage of how often you take a *directive approach* to supervision, rather than either of the other two approaches. The product you obtained in step 2.2 is an approximate percentage of how often you take a *collaborative approach*, and step 2.3 is an approximate percentage of how often you take a *nondirective approach.* The approach on which you spend the greatest percentage of time is the supervisory model that dominates your beliefs. If the percentage values are equal or close to equal, you take an eclectic approach.

You can also compare these results with your predictions in Part I.

What To Do With Your Score

You now have a base to look at the orientation with which you are most comfortable. If your scores for two or three orientations were about equal (30 percent nondirective, 40 percent collaborative, and 30 percent directive), you are either confused or more positively eclectic. If you are eclectic, you probably consider varying your supervisory orientations according to each situation. Practitioners of one orientation might become more effective by learning the very precise supervisory behaviors that are needed to make that orientation work. To think that supervision is collaborative is incomplete until one knows how to employ techniques that result in collaboration. Many supervisors profess to be of a certain orientation but unknowingly use behaviors that result in different outcomes. Therefore, *the first aim of this book is to help supervisors become proficient in practicing their beliefs about supervision. The second aim is to "elasticize" supervisors' practice so they can move knowingly across the*

spectrum of behaviors to accommodate differences in teachers. After becoming proficient in one orientation, supervisors might become proficient in all orienta tions and ultimately able to use the same variations of approaches in meeting the developmental needs of teachers that teachers use in meeting the individual needs of students.

To clarify the distinctions between these three orientations, a standard set of procedures will be explained in the next chapter. Five steps of clinical super vision—(1) preconference, (2) observation, (3) analysis and interpretation, (4) postconference, and (5) postanalysis—will be used to compare how each step differs in each of the orientations. The three supervisory approaches might be explained according to steps used in making staff decisions, curriculum development, or inservice activities, but the steps of clinical supervision were chosen because they are familiar to most readers. Clinical supervision has been appearing in the literature on supervision for the past decade. For our purposes, readers need be acquainted only with a brief description of clinical supervision. As Goldhammer (1969, p. 54) wrote:

> If the reader will conceptualize "clinical" in the following manner, then we
> will be thinking of it in the same way. First of all, I mean to convey an image
> of face-to-face relationships between supervisors and teachers. History pro-
> vides the principal reason for this emphasis, namely that in many situations
> presently and during various periods in its development, supervision has been
> conducted as supervision from a distance, as, for example, supervision by
> committees of teachers. "Clinical" supervision is meant to imply supervision
> up close.

The type of behaviors used during each step of the model (preconference, observations, and so on) depends on the supervisor's orientation and his or her purpose in working with a particular teacher. *This is not a book about clinical supervision.* Rather, clinical supervision is our framework for understanding the variations of supervisory orientations. For reading on clinical supervision, the reader might find the following materials helpful.

Boyan, N. J., and Copeland, W. D. *Instructional Supervision Training Program.* Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Company, 1978.
Cogan, M. L. *Clinical Supervision.* Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1973.
Goldhammer, R. *Clinical Supervision. Special Methods for the Supervision of Teachers.* New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, Inc., 1969.
Sullivan, C. G. *Clinical Supervision. A State of the Art Review.* Alexandria, Va.. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1980.
The Supervisory Process—Helping Teachers to Improve Instruction. (Videotape) Alexandria, Va.. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1977.

3.
Orientations to Supervision

The supervisor is defined as a person with responsibility for improving a teacher's instruction. The supervisor might be a principal, subject area specialist, assistant principal, department chairperson, head teacher, or central office consultant.

The Directive Orientation to Supervision

A directive orientation to supervision would include the major behaviors of clarifying, presenting, demonstrating, directing, standardizing, and reinforcing. The final outcome would be an assignment for the teacher to carry out over a specified period of time.

Bob Finer, a science teacher, is encountering a great deal of trouble with three students in his class. These students are constantly talking out of turn, starting fights, and poking other classmates. Mr. Finer finds their behavior disturbing and sees that other normally well-behaved students are beginning to misbehave. Science class is rapidly dissipating into wasted time.

A directive supervisor would believe that Mr. Finer needs definite, immediate, and concrete help to get the class "turned around." Time is being wasted and Mr. Finer needs to be told what to do. Standards of performance need to be determined and a time line of specific teacher actions must be assigned. A directive supervisor might engage in the steps of clinical supervision with Mr. Finer in the following manner.

The supervisor has made a few random visits to Mr. Finer's classroom to deliver messages and materials. Based on those observations and from often hearing Mr. Finer's angry voice and seeing a steady procession of students sent to the school office, the supervisor has determined that Mr. Finer is experiencing discipline and management problems. With this in mind, she arranges a meeting with the teacher.

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Preconference

The supervisor is seated behind her desk as Mr. Finer walks in. She asks the science teacher to be seated in a chair directly across from her. The supervisor begins by presenting her thoughts.

Supervisor. "Bob, I detect that you are having problems with some of your students in fifth period class. I would like to help you in making that class more attentive."

Mr. Finer (shrugging his shoulders). "It's not too bad. I'll get them under control."

Supervisor. "I'm sure you will, but time is moving on and I'd like to help. I'm planning to visit the class tomorrow afternoon for the entire period."

Mr. Finer (again shrugs his shoulders). "Well, I'm showing a film tomorrow so I don't know how much you'll get to see." .

Supervisor. "All right, I'll be in the following day. Listen, I'm going to closely observe the students during the class and see how attentive they are. Perhaps I can get some clues as to why they lose attention."

Mr. Finer. "I can give you a clue. Watch James, Matthew, and Regina. Watch how they get everyone going."

Supervisor. "Fine, I'll use an instrument to record the behavior of those three students. If they are the source of the problem, we can come up with a plan for keeping them under control. See you in two days."

The supervisor has clearly been in charge of the preconference. She has classified the problem, checked it out with the teacher, and outlined how she will observe the class. She has listened to the teacher to verify or revise her own thinking, but she has not encouraged the teacher to talk on. The supervisor wants immediate, direct action and avoids any teacher hesitancies. The supervisor is not hostile or intimidating, instead, she is businesslike, serious, and task-oriented.

Observation

The supervisor uses a checklist at five minute intervals. Each time she observes one of the students listening to the teacher, engaging in classroom discussion, or doing assigned work, she puts a check in the "Attentive to Task" box. When she sees one of the students vacantly staring into space or sitting with his or her head on the desk, she puts a check in the "Inattentive/Passive" box. Each time one of the three students is out of his or her seat, wandering around, talking with others about nonschool matters, fighting, or displaying

Student Behavior

	Attentive to Task	Inattentive/Passive	Inattentive/Active
1:10			
1:15			
1:20			
1:25			
1:30			

other disruptive behavior, the supervisor puts a check in the "Inattentive/Active" box. Each student is given an initial observation and nine five-minute observations during the class period. At the end of the class, the supervisor asks Mr. Finer to meet with her to discuss the observation.

Analysis and Interpretation

Back in her office, she reviews the completed form and prepares for the postconference. The completed form looks as follows:

Student Behavior

	Attentive to Task	Inattentive/Passive	Inattentive/Active
1:10	x x x		
1:15	x x	x	
1:20		x x x	
1:25		x x	x
1:30			x x x (all class noisy)
1:35		x x x	
1:40		x x	x
1:45	x	x	x
1:50		x	x x
1:55		x x x	

The supervisor quickly concludes that the three students were attentive only 6 observations out of 30, or 20 percent of the time. On further analysis, she notices that the students began as attentive, moved to passive inattention,

and then to active inattention. After that point the best that Mr. Finer could do was to yell at them to get passive inattention. Only once did a student get back to "attentive to the task." The supervisor concludes that Mr. Finer must not only stop their disruptive behavior (inattentive/active) but more frequently must get them back to the task. If not, the supervisor concludes, Mr. Finer is fighting a losing battle with the three students. The supervisor concurs with Mr. Finer's previous judgment that the three students do appear to instigate trouble with the rest of the students. The supervisor sits back and determines what she will tell Mr. Finer.

Postconference (After reviewing the filled out instrument with the teacher.)

Supervisor: "So, Bob, you can see that you're fighting a holding action. When you get James, Matthew, and Regina to stop their misbehavior, you have to get them actively engaged in learning or else they are soon clowning around again."

Mr. Finer: "Well, yeah, but when I tell them to do something, they don't."

Supervisor: "That may be true but when I was observing, you were telling them to stop and not telling them what to do."

Mr. Finer: "But they don't want to do their work."

Supervisor: "Then I think you need a threefold attack. First, get them away from each other. Second, give them each an individual project that they like to do. Use it as a reward for finishing their assigned work. Third, remind them of what they are to do, not what *not* to do. At times, you might even move over to one of them, pick up their hand with the pencil, open up the correct page, and show them what should be done.

Mr. Finer: "Well, okay, but I'm not sure I can find a special project for them."

Supervisor: "Tomorrow I'll take over your class. You observe for the first half hour how I correct them and see if it works. For the second half of the period, visit Mrs. Kitchen's class and see what kinds of individual science projects she has."

Mr. Finer: "Okay, I'll do what you say, but I'm still not sure if it will work."

Supervisor: "We don't know unless we try and I know that you're a good teacher. You can do it. So here's your assignment. Tomorrow you are to:

(1) Observe me teach a demonstration lesson

(2) Observe Mrs. Kitchen's science class and the various projects. Then for the next two weeks you are to: (a) Give James, Matthew, and Regina a special project to do when they finish their work. (b) When correcting them, tell

them what to do, even show them. (c) Change their seating pattern so they are more than two seats away from each other.

I'll be back in your classroom two weeks from today, same period, and I want to see if you have increased their attentive time, to at least 50 percent. Any questions?"

Mr. Finer: "No, I don't think so. What if I don't get 50 percent of attentive time?"

Supervisor: "I think that you can. In fact, I'll wager on it. If you can reach 50 percent I'll see that you get those extra dissection kits that you've been wanting."

Postanalysis (The following morning, while conversing in the hall.)

Supervisor: "What do you think about what we've done up to now?"

Mr. Finer: "I'm still not sure if all this will help, but at least I have directions to follow. I was really floundering before."

Supervisor: "If it doesn't work, I have some other ideas to try later on. But I think it will."

Discussion

The directive supervisor took the "bull by the horns" and after carefully thinking about Bob Finer's situation, she collected data, presented it, and gave the teacher a two-week action assignment. She carefully detailed what the teacher will do and what the criteria for improvement will be. The supervisor engaged primarily in the behaviors of *clarifying* and *presenting* her thinking, *directing* what will happen, *demonstrating* appropriate teaching behaviors, and *standardizing* a target level of student progress. The supervisor used praise and rewards as an incentive or *reinforcement* for carrying out the plan. (In such a situation, attempting to please the supervisor might be sufficient incentive by itself.)

Directive supervision should not be confused with arbitrary, capricious, or totalitarian behavior. The directive supervisor has judged that the most effective way to improve instruction is by making standards clear and by tangibly showing teachers how to attain such standards. It is a thoughtful, businesslike approach based on a careful collection of data. The approach presumes that the supervisor knows more about the context of teaching and learning than the teacher does. Therefore, the supervisor's decisions are more effective than if the teacher is left to his or her own devices.

Figure 4. The Supervisory Behavior Continuum—Directive Orientation
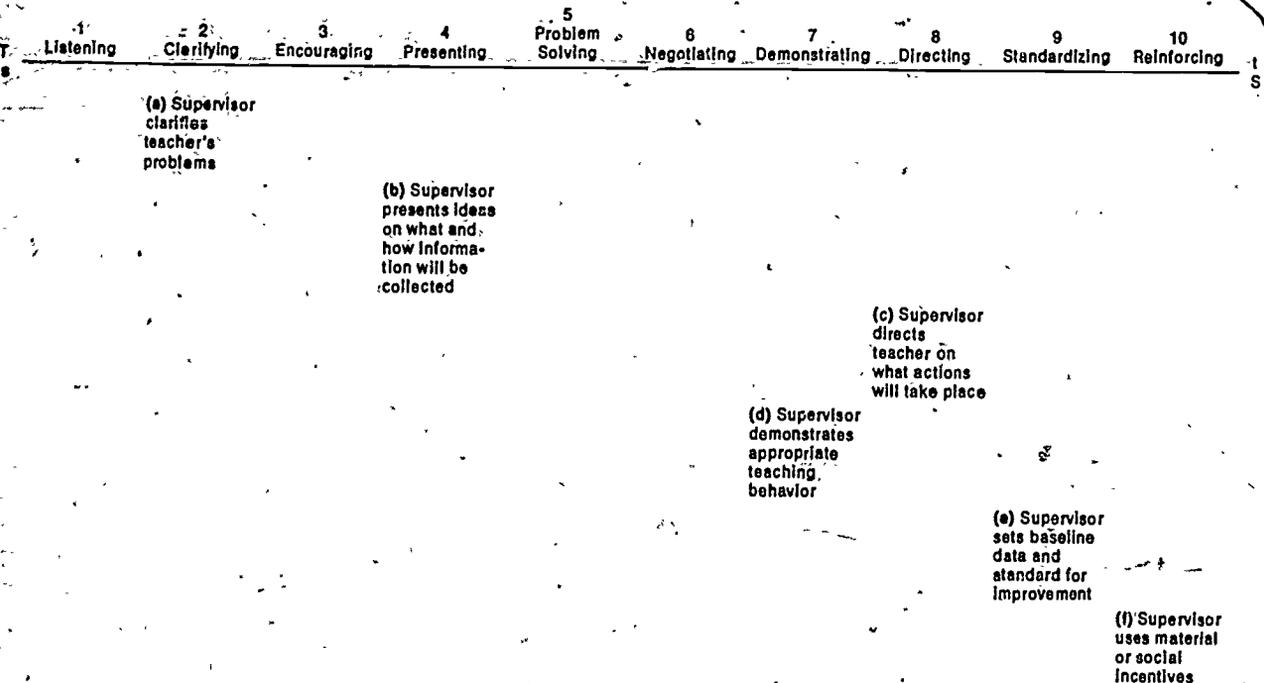
1 Listening	2 Clarifying	3 Encouraging	4 Presenting	5 Problem Solving	6 Negotiating	7 Demonstrating	8 Directing	9 Standardizing	10 Reinforcing

T s —— t S

(a) Supervisor clarifies teacher's problems

(b) Supervisor presents ideas on what and how information will be collected

(c) Supervisor directs teacher on what actions will take place

(d) Supervisor demonstrates appropriate teaching behavior

(e) Supervisor sets baseline data and standard for improvement

(f) Supervisor uses material or social incentives

Key: T = Maximum teacher responsibility   S = Maximum supervisor responsibility
     t = Minimum teacher responsibility   s = Minimum supervisor responsibility

Product: Assignment for the Teacher

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As we see in Figure 4, the directive supervisor employs behaviors to develop a detailed assignment for the teacher. Although the sequence may vary, the supervisor's dominant behaviors are:

• *Clarifying* the teacher's problem and, perhaps asking the teacher for confirmation or revision.

• *Presenting* his or her own ideas on what information should be collected and how it will be collected.

• *Directing* the teacher, after data collection and analysis, on the actions that need to be taken.

• *Demonstrating* for the teacher appropriate teaching behavior or asking the teacher to observe in another classroom.

• *Setting the standard* for improvement based on the preliminary baseline information.

• *Reinforcing*, by using materials or social incentives.

The Collaborative Orientation to Supervision

A collaborative orientation to supervision would include the major behaviors of listening, presenting, problem solving, and negotiating. The end result would be a mutually agreed upon contract by supervisor and teacher that would delineate the structure, process, and criteria for subsequent instructional improvement.

Susan Valdock, fourth-grade teacher in a self-contained classroom, is the personification of energy. She is constantly moving around the classroom, talking, listening, and observing. Her classroom is filled with materials, much of which has been created by students and teacher. The classroom has an incessant hum of activity. By February, Ms. Valdock appears tired. Twice in one week she uncharacteristically lost her temper at students who failed to sign out classroom books. At recess, she stays in her classroom rather than joining others in the teachers lounge.

The collaborative supervisor might decide to speak casually with Ms. Valdock to see if help is desired or wait for her to initiate a conversation. In this particular case, the supervisor is concerned about Ms. Valdock's physical condition. The supervisor decides that a haggard teacher in an actively-centered room portends trouble. Therefore, the supervisor decides to take the initiative and meet with the teacher.

Preconference

The meeting is set for lunch period. Ms. Valdock and Jon, the supervisor, bring their lunches and sit around a table.

Ms. Valdock: "Well, Jon, how goes it?"

Supervisor: "Fine. The curriculum study is taking a lot out of me, but it's progressing. How is life going with you?"

Ms. Valdock: "Okay. I can't wait until spring vacation, but life is all right."

Supervisor: "You look tired to me; I'm concerned that you're losing your old vim and vigor."

Ms. Valdock: "Well, maybe I am a bit tired, but I'll get over it."

Supervisor: "What can be done to get your energy level back up? What is making you tired?"

Ms. Valdock: "You know, I've just moved into a new home and with unpacking boxes, painting walls, getting my own kids adjusted, and trying to keep up with all my classroom activities, it gets to be a bit much."

Supervisor: "Well, I can't help you redecorate at home, but maybe I can help you redecorate in class. Maybe you're trying to bite off too much. Your planning has always been a full-time job and now with the extra chores of moving, maybe you just can't keep up the same pace."

Ms. Valdock: "I don't feel right about doing less for my students because of my personal life. I'll make it."

Supervisor: "Yeah, you might make it and spend the last three months of school in a convalescent home. How about if I come into your class over the next few days, just to see what's going on? Maybe we could discuss some ways to do the same for the students in less time."

Ms. Valdock: "You're always invited to come in. Don't just observe, though. If you see some students who need help with their activities, please work with them."

Supervisor: "Okay, for the next week I'll be part-time observer and part-time tutor."

Throughout this preconference there is friendly negotiation going on. First, the supervisor has to gain entry into the teacher's problem. If the teacher did not want help, the supervisor would have to decide either to back off and try to find access later or more forcefully press with words like, "I am concerned and feel that as a supervisor I need to get involved. You appear tired and I want to help." If the teacher still refused, the supervisor as a negotiator might attempt to counter with a proposal and then look for a counter proposal with such words as, "I'm going to come in and take a closer look at your classroom. What do you want me to look at and how do you want to use me in the classroom?"

The supervisor, when encountering an unwilling teacher, tries to strike up a deal to the effect that his or her own involvement is imperative but asks the teacher to state the conditions for involvement. At this point they can both consider each other's proposals and come to an agreement.

Observation

As agreed, the supervisor comes into the classroom the next four days. He visits for twenty minutes twice each day and is careful to select different periods. During that time, he keeps a notebook in his hands and moves about the classroom observing the teacher's instruction, checking on students' activities, discussing with students their assignment, and helping individual students who have questions about their present activities. He jots down notes and, upon leaving the classroom, hurriedly writes down general observations. An example of his notes follows:

Observation #3, Tuesday, February 15, 10-10:20 a.m.
Students are at nine different learning stations. Ms. Valdock is at the reading station having individual conferences with children on the latest books they have read. She spends a few minutes asking questions about the books, puts the book report in the bin, and writes the number of the report next to 'e student's name on the wall chart. In the math station, three students are listening to a cassette and filling out a worksheet on geometric figures, two other students are estimating the height of the school building. They asked me to guess and we talked about different ways to mathematically arrive at a good estimate. While talking, we couldn't help noticing the students over in the construction area who were trying to build a miniature lunar craft. The hammer-banging and arguing were quite loud. Ms. Valdock had to stop her conferences three times to tell the construction group to stop. Finally, she told them to leave the area.

General Observation:
Ms. Valdock must have an enormous amount of recordkeeping and assignments to correct each night. There is a bin for collected daily assignments of every student in the reading, math, spelling, science, and communication stations. Also, it seems distracting to students to have noisy activities going on next to quiet activities.

Analysis

After four days, the supervisor rereads his observations and jots down questions to ask Ms. Valdock at the postconference:

1. How many assignments does she personally correct each day?

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2. Can fewer assignments be given or are there alternative ways to correct them?
3. What is the reason for nine centers?
4. Could there be fewer centers?
5. Could noisy centers and quiet centers be done at separate times?
6. Does every student need to be met individually or could more grouping of students be done for particular skills?

The supervisor, in analyzing his observations, believes that regardless of what Ms. Valdock has going on at home, she has too much to oversee and coordinate. She is doing too much for students and not letting them take more responsibility for their classwork. He decides to ask the above questions, listen to Ms. Valdock's responses, ask her what she thinks could be done, propose what he thinks should be done, and then find mutual solutions to write in a contract form.

Postconference

After listening to the questions, Ms. Valdock answers that she (1) normally corrects three assignments per student each day (a total of 81); (2) is unsure if fewer assignments could be given because she needs to monitor each student's progress; (3) has nine centers so she can divide the class into nine groups of three at all times; (4) had not thought about reducing the centers; (5) had considered eliminating the construction center but wanted to keep the art and music centers which were noisy but not troublesome; and (6) did not believe in ability groups and would rather keep the work as individualized as possible. The supervisor then carefully begins problem solving by saying, "I think we should take some time to think about what changes can be made to reduce the amount of teacher work and generally streamline your class operation. I have always admired the excitement and interest that you generate in your classroom. Let's not lose that. Tonight why don't you and I write a list of two or three possible immediate changes that could be made. We'll meet before school tomorrow and share each other's lists."

That night the supervisor writes down:
1. Allow selected students to correct simple assignments.
2. Have two different times for quiet and noisy stations.
   a. Have mathematics, reading, communications, creative writing and spelling at one time and social studies, science, construction, music, and art at another time.
   b. During the quiet time, meet with groups of six or seven students who need comparable instruction in one of the quiet subjects.
   c. During the noisy time, meet with groups of six or seven students who need comparable instruction in one of the noisy subjects.

The same evening, the teacher jots down:

1. Ask Sonya Jerdel, the sixth-grade teacher if I may use some of her top students as paper checkers and recorders or see if Felix's mother would like to correct papers. She asked me at the beginning of the year if she might help.
2. Eliminate the construction center and instead have an all-class construction period on Friday afternoon.
3. Let the redecorating wait until spring vacation, unpacking boxes is enough for now. Stop being so compulsive!

The following morning the postconference continues with the focus on presenting each other's ideas and then revising, picking, and choosing activities that both supervisor and teacher agree will solve the problem of "teacher overload." Let's pick up the conversation after the supervisor and the teacher have read their suggestions to each other.

Supervisor: "I don't know about using a parent volunteer or an older student to help correct papers. I think most of your students, if given detailed instructions and a master sheet, could correct spelling assignments. Why don't you let them try it?"

Ms. Valdock: "It's worth a try for a week or two. I'll select two of my best spellers to correct spelling assignments and two of my best writers to respond to the creative writings. Could you help me start this program by going over directions with them and occasionally check their corrections before passing them back to the class? I still want to correct the arithmetic and science papers myself."

Supervisor: "Sounds fine. I'll help by getting your correctors started. Now what about the idea of silent and active periods and small groups?"

Ms. Valdock: "No, I don't think so. I want them to learn how to work independently and they progress so much quicker when I individualize their assignments. I don't want to mess with the basic classroom arrangement right now. I will eliminate the construction center as a daily activity and have it on Friday only."

Supervisor: "If you don't want to change the basic plan, why eliminate the construction center? Instead, go over the rules for the center and revoke the privilege to use it if students don't obey the rules."

Ms. Valdock: "Well, that would be one less change to think about. I'll work on cutting down the number of papers that I personally have to correct and be more stringent on the use of the construction center."

Supervisor: "We seem to have come up with a contract. Let's write it down." He writes down what they have agreed to. Ms. Valdock also asks him to

include her promise to herself that she will drop the home decorating until spring break. The supervisor agrees and they both sign and date the paper.

INSTRUCTION CONTRACT

between

Ms. Sue Valdock, Teacher
Mr. Jon Gollop, Supervisor

March 18, 1981

Objective: To reduce the amount of teacher work.

Teacher activities:

1. Select students to correct spelling assignments.
2. Stress construction center rules and penalize violators.
3. Leave home redecorating until spring.

Supervisor activities:

1. Hold small group session with spelling correctors and show them how to proceed.
2. Monitor corrections of spelling papers once a week.

Follow-up meeting scheduled for April 3, 1981.

_____

Teacher signature

_____

Supervisor signature

Postcritique

Ms. Valdock and the supervisor review the process. Ms. Valdock explains that the procedures have been helpful as she was being pulled into too many directions. She is happy that the supervisor did not persist with basic classroom reorganization because she would have felt that her personal life had compromised her professional life. The supervisor mentioned that he is satisfied but hopes that she has not closed her mind to further changes in the classroom.

Figure 5. The Supervisory Behavior Continuum—Collaborative Orientation
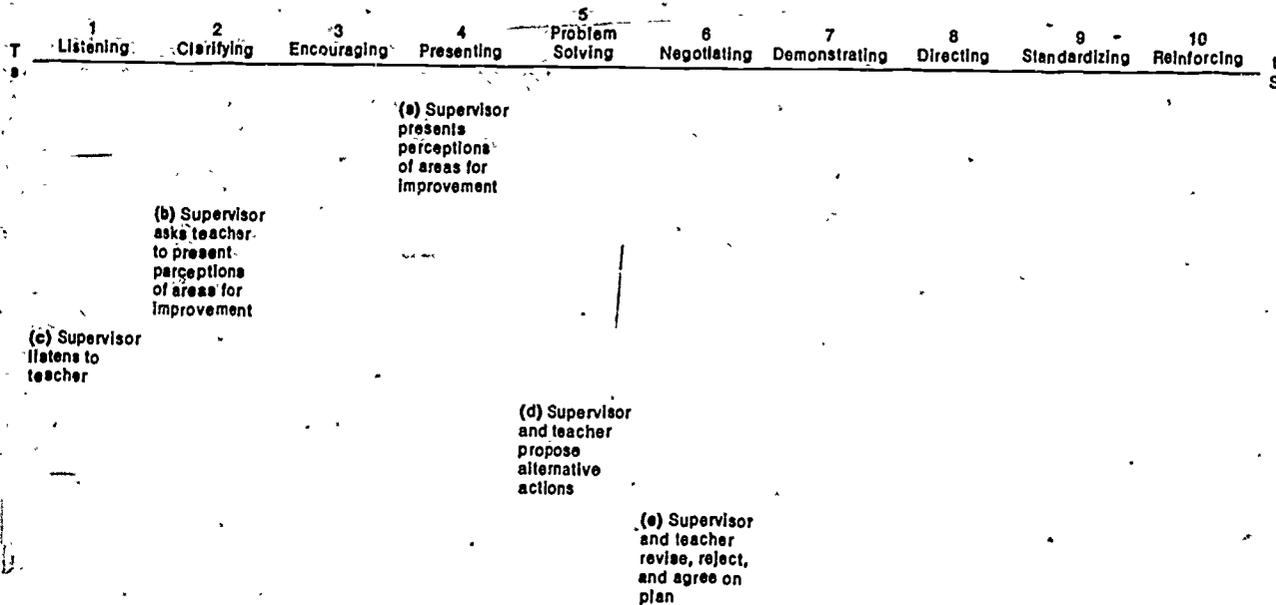
1 Listening	2 Clarifying	3 Encouraging	4 Presenting	5 Problem Solving	6 Negotiating	7 Demonstrating	8 Directing	9 Standardizing	10 Reinforcing

T ◄ ——— ► t
s ◄ ——— ► S

(a) Supervisor presents perceptions of areas for improvement

(b) Supervisor asks teacher to present perceptions of areas for improvement

(c) Supervisor listens to teacher

(d) Supervisor and teacher propose alternative actions

(e) Supervisor and teacher revise, reject, and agree on plan

Key: T = Maximum teacher responsibility   S = Maximum supervisor responsibility
t = Minimum teacher responsibility   s = Minimum supervisor responsibility

Product: Supervisor and Teacher Contract

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Discussion

The supervisor and teacher have actively negotiated the plan for action. Neither supervisor nor teacher has a final plan that excludes the other's view. They have reviewed, revised, rejected, proposed, and counter proposed until agreement was reached. The collaborative orientation presupposes that a supervisor's or teacher's individual ideas about instructional improvement are not as effective as mutual ones. Each might fight long and hard to promote his or her proposals, but in the end each must accept changes.

The pragmatic reader might question what will happen if the supervisor and teacher cannot agree. In a truly collaborative context a third mediator, agreeable to both parties (such as a master teacher or central office consultant) would have to step in with authority to "break the vote" if it came to that.

The collaborative orientation can be simplified along the supervisory behavior continuum (Figure 5). The final product is a contract, agreed to by both and carried out as a joint responsibility:

A. The supervisor encounters the teacher with his or her perceptions of the instructional area needing improvement (*presenting*).

B. The supervisor asks for teacher perceptions of instructional area (*clarifying*).

C. The supervisor listens to teacher perceptions (*listening*).

D. Supervisor and teacher propose alternative actions for improvement (*problem solving*).

E. Supervisor and teacher discuss and alter actions until a joint plan is agreed upon (*negotiating*).

The Nondirective Orientation

Herbert Klunger walks over to his desk, and sits down. He mulls over the class that has just ended. Members of the English class have given oral reports on their interpretation of Shakespeare's Othello. The reports were uninspiring and remarkably uniform in tone and content. Mr. Klunger thinks that many had either "borrowed" ideas from one udent or had bought a summary on Othello and used the main ideas. Regardless, none of the reports indicated any excitement for the character and plot development.

Mr. Klunger reflects on previous classes and thinks that students haven't always been this way. One class in particular he remembers: "How they argued and analyzed Shakespeare! If only I could recreate some of that enthusiasm." Later that day Ms. Garcia, his department supervisor, stops by.

The nondirective orientation to supervision rests on the major premise that teachers are capable of analyzing and solving their own instructional

problems. Only when the individual sees the need for change and takes major responsibility for it will instructional improvement be meaningful and lasting. Therefore, the supervisor wishes to act as a facilitator for the teacher by imposing little formal structure or direction. This does not mean that the supervisor is passive and allows the teacher complete autonomy. Instead, he or she actively uses the behaviors of listening, clarifying, encouraging, and presenting to channel the teacher towards self-discovery. The supervisor leaves the discovery to the teacher but takes initiative to see that it occurs.

A nondirective supervisor, more than the collaborative or directive supervisor, probably would not use such a standard format as the five steps of clinical supervision when working with a teacher. Instead, depending on the teacher's needs, the supervisor might simply observe the teacher without analyzing and interpreting, listen without making observations, or arrange inservice and provide requested materials and resources. For the sake of consistency though, we will follow the supervisor teacher relationship according to the clinical model, noting how the model is altered after the preconference. In a nondirective orientation, the teacher determines the steps that will follow the preconference.

Preconference (As Ms. Garcia enters Mr. Klunger's room.)

Mr. Klunger: "Welcome, Ms. Garcia. Have a seat. What a class!"

Ms. Garcia: "Thank you. Is life treating you all right?"

Mr. Klunger: "Well, I have my ups and downs. At times I think that teaching just isn't for me."

Ms. Garcia: "Teaching is not for you? I didn't know you felt that way."

Mr. Klunger: "Yeah, at times I really wonder if I'm accomplishing anything. Just today that fifth period class made Shakespeare appear as exciting as a rotting elm tree. If they can't see the wonder of his writing, I don't know how they can ever appreciate literature."

Ms. Garcia (nodding her head): "It's frustrating."

Mr. Klunger: "Yes it is!"

Ms. Garcia (pauses, waits for Mr. Klunger to say more. When it appears that Mr. Klunger is not going to speak, she looks attentively at him). "Go on; tell me more about what's so frustrating."

Mr. Klunger: "The students show no initiative. Teaching just isn't exciting anymore. Oh, the other classrooms are tolerable but that fifth class is Doomsville!"

Ms. Garcia: "What goes on during fifth period?"

Mr. Klunger: "Nothing! That's the problem."

Ms. Garcia: "Nothing?"

Klunger: "I read them passages of Shakespeare. Ask for their interpretations and try to get a discussion going. They just don't think for themselves."

The conversation continues for ten more minutes with Mr. Klunger mainly talking and Ms. Garcia listening. Finally, after another prolonged pause, Ms. Garcia feels it's time to ask Mr. Klunger for his analysis of what can be done.

Ms. Garcia: "It sounds as though both you and your students are less than happy. What do you think might be done?"

Mr. Klunger: "Obviously, my tried-and-true lesson plans for Shakespeare aren't working. I'm going to have to change my approach."

Ms. Garcia: "Do you want to try something different now?"

Mr. Klunger: "Yes, starting tomorrow I'm going to have a class discussion with them, I'm going to tell them about my dissatisfaction with them and my own teaching and see if we can begin *Macbeth* with a fresh approach. Why don't you come into class and listen to what goes on? You might give me some information that I'm missing."

Mr. Garcia: "Okay, see you tomorrow."

The preconference is the "go or no-go" point. If Mr. Klunger did not ask for Ms. Garcia to observe, the process would stop and Ms. Garcia might need to follow up with another conference to discuss what had transpired since their last talk. However, in this case she has been asked to observe informally.

Observation

She enters the class, sits in the back, does not take notes, and listens to the class discussion. She notices that Mr. Klunger spends most of the time expressing his disappointment to the students on their lack of interest in Shakespeare. At the end, he does ask them what might be done to improve the class. Other than one student stating that "the reading is real difficult, but I'll try harder," the discussion goes nowhere.

Analysis and Interpretation

Ms. Garcia, returning to her office, thinks Mr. Klunger is wrong in the way he handled the class discussion. Such an approach would never get honest student feedback. To herself, she pledges to "bite her lip" and not give advice or suggestions unless Mr. Klunger asks for them. If he asks for her observations she will merely tell him, without judgments, what she saw. Then, she might ask him what he could do to change the content and methods of the lesson to bring Shakespeare alive. If asked for her ideas, she will suggest another class

room discussion to get more student ideas or allow students to pick out their own passages of *Macbeth* and rewrite them as a modern playwright might. Regardless, at the conclusion of the meeting, she will ask Mr. Klunger what he plans to do and what assistance she might offer.

Postconference (Ms. Garcia enters the teachers room during his planning period.)

Mr. Klunger looks up: "Well, didn't I tell you how disinterested those students are? You saw how much response I got, one incoherent student reply."

Ms. Garcia: "There was one reply and the group did seem pretty down."

Mr. Klunger: "I was tough on them, but they need to get motivated."

Ms. Garcia (jumping on the opening). "How could you get them motivated?

Mr. Klunger: "Just the question that I was going to ask you."

Ms. Garcia: "You tell me first; then, if you wish, I'll give you my thoughts."

Mr. Klunger: "I think I'm going to have only one class lecture next week. Instead, I'll introduce *Macbeth*, have them read the entire book, and then have them choose one of four scenarios to act out. I'll spend time with each group and then on Friday let them give mini-dramas. What do you think?"

Ms. Garcia (being asked, she responds forthrightly): "Sounds fine but I wonder if all the students would want to act in front of the class. Some of the students might feel foolish. Maybe you should ask them for ideas, or I thought they might be assigned different individual activities such as drawing a scene, rewriting a section of the play according to modern times, verifying historical circumstances, or putting particular verses to music."

Mr. Klunger: "I like that idea. I'll have four groups focus on the same section of the play but some students will be assigned different tasks."

Ms Garcia: "This certainly will be a change. Maybe you should go slow in doing this, perhaps only two groups to begin with."

Mr. Klunger: "No, I'm not that type of person. I want to get them excited. It's all or nothing! I'm going to start Wednesday when we begin *Macbeth*."
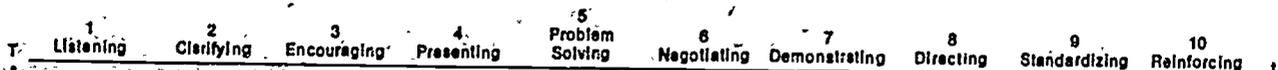
Ms. Garcia: "Can I help you in anyway?"

Mr. Klunger: "Could you see if the Polanski film of *Macbeth* is available for rental in three weeks?"

Ms. Garcia: "Will do! What about any help with the class changes?"

Mr. Klunger: "No, thanks but I'm all set."

Ms. Garcia: "Okay, I'll stop by and see how the battle goes."

Figure 6. The Supervisory Behavior Continuum—Nondirective Orientation

T	1 Listening	2 Clarifying	3 Encouraging	4 Presenting	5 Problem Solving	6 Negotiating	7 Demonstrating	8 Directing	9 Standardizing	10 Reinforcing	s S

(a) Supervisor listens attentively to teacher discuss instructional concern

(b) Supervisor encourages teacher to elaborate on concern

(c) Supervisor asks questions and rephrases teacher statements to make sure problem is clearly understood

(d) When asked by teacher, supervisor offers thoughts and possible solutions

(e) Supervisor asks teacher to determine what actions will be taken

Key: T = Maximum teacher responsibility   S = Maximum supervisor responsibility
     t = Minimum teacher responsibility   s = Minimum supervisor responsibility

Product: Teacher Self-Plan

Postanalysis (Before leaving the room.)

Mr. Klunger: "Thanks for talking with me. I needed someone to unload my woes to and help me figure out what I was going to do. I'm almost excited again."

Ms. Garcia: "I thought you were troubled about something. I enjoy listening to a scholar think out loud. See you later."

Discussion

Throughout the clinical steps, the teacher was respected as the ultimate determiner of his future course of action. The supervisor actively listened, rephrased statements, asked questions, and kept the teacher's discourse on track towards resolution. If the teacher had not wanted to change, then the "pure" nondirective supervisor would drop the discussion but continue actively at other times to stimulate the teacher to think about what he was doing. In Ms. Garcia's case, her active role turned Mr. Klunger's initial response, "I don't think teaching is for me," to "I'm going to have to change my approach," and eventually "I'm going to break them into groups and then. . ." The supervisor never loses sight of working towards a teacher self-plan; which might result from borrowed ideas or from teacher insight alone. Nevertheless, the supervisor accepts the teacher's right and responsibility to make the final decision.

The pragmatic reader might ask, "What if the teacher plan is downright bad, cruel, or harmful; does the supervisor simply acquiesce?" In such a case, the nondirective supervisor has every right to explain his or her misgivings about the teacher's plan and ask for reconsideration. However, a nondirective orientation ultimately assumes that the teacher makes the wisest and most responsible decisions for his or her own classroom; thus the final determination is still left with the teacher.

Returning to the supervisory behavior continuum (Figure 6), we have seen the nondirective supervisor engage in listening, encouraging, clarifying, presenting, and problem solving to help the teacher arrive at a self-plan. The following are simplified proceedings of such actions.

• The supervisor listens to the teacher's problem by facing and showing attention to the teacher. The supervisor shows empathy with the teacher by nodding his or her head and restating emotions, such as "It is frustrating." (*Listening*)

• The supervisor encourages the teacher to analyze the problem further: "Tell me more," "Please continue on," "Explain that further." (*Encouraging*)

• The supervisor clarifies the teacher problem by paraphrasing and questioning: "You mean the students are bored with the topic?" "Do they like anything about the lesson?" "What feedback do you get from them?" (*Clarifying*)

- If the teacher asks for suggestions, the supervisor offers alternatives, "The students could be reorganized, or the topic could be changed to include their interests." *(Presenting)*
- Finally, at the moment of truth, the supervisor asks the teacher to decide on a plan, "What are you going to do?" and offers assistance, "How can I be of help?" *(Problem solving)*

Summary

In the *directive orientation,* the supervisor emphasizes the behaviors of presenting, directing, demonstrating, standardizing, and reinforcing in developing an assignment for the teacher. In the *collaborative orientation,* the behaviors of presenting, clarifying, listening, problem-solving, and negotiating are used to develop a contract between teacher and supervisor. In the *nondirective orientation,* the behaviors of listening, encouraging, clarifying, presenting, and problem solving are used to create a teacher self-plan. In the next chapter, criteria to determine a teacher's present stage of development will be explained so that a supervisor can be guided in selecting the most appropriate orientation.

The reader who would like to study in greater detail the rationale and practice of each orientation to supervision might find the following resources helpful.

Readings in Directive Supervision:

Alfonso, Robert J.; Firth, Gerald R.; and Neville, Richard F. *Instructional Supervision: A Behavior System.* 2nd ed. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1980. A thorough review of research on formal organizations, role theory, communication, decision making, and personality theory is used to establish the skills an effective supervisor needs. Emphasis is placed on the supervisor applying such theory and research within a management system approach to "promoting those conditions which help the organization to achieve its goals."

Lucio, William H., and McNeil, John D. *Supervision: A Synthesis of Thought and Action.* 3rd ed. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1979. Lucio and McNeil develop an approach to supervision that they label "practical intelligence." Their primary concern is with the supervisor applying objectively what is already known about education through a systematic and quantifiable means of checking results.

Popham, James. *Criterion Referenced Supervision.* Los Angeles: VIMCET Associates, 1974. The supervisor focuses on the effects of teaching behavior on student outcomes. This is done through precisely developing instructional objectives, setting levels of student performance, and collecting information on student achievement.

Readings in Collaborative Supervision:

Blumberg, Arthur. *Supervisors and Teachers: A Private Cold War.* 2nd ed. Berkeley, Cal.: McCutchan Publishing Co., 1980. This book details problems

in communication and describes how to use the process of reciprocity and team supervision in order to meet the mutual needs of supervisor and teacher.

Cogan, Morris. *Clinical Supervision*. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1973. The author describes a step-by-step process of meeting with teacher(s), analyzing needs together, and agreeing on steps to follow for improving instruction.

Sergiovanni, Thomas J., and Starrat, Robert J. *Supervision: Human Perspective*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1979. The aim of this book is to enable the supervisor to assist the staff in obtaining job satisfaction of high morale and task accomplishment by an orientation entitled "human resources." This satisfaction is accomplished by actively working with teachers to establish a common agenda of tasks.

Wiles, Kimball. *Supervision for Better Schools*. 3rd ed. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, 1967. Wiles in many ways ushered in the collaborative movement in supervision with the first edition of this book in 1955. His point of view that effective supervision must be made through group decision making is emphasized throughout his human relations approach to communications, curriculum development, instruction, staff morale, and staff development.

Readings in Nondirective Supervision:

Berman, Louise M. *Supervision, Staff Development and Leadership*. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1971. The supervisor is given insight into such dimensions as perceiving, knowing, patterning, creating, valuing. The aim is to help educators make conscious their inner goals and aspirations and put them into concrete action.

Combs, Arthur; Avila, Donald L.; and Purkey, William H. *Helping Relationships: Basic Concepts for the Helping Professions*. 2nd ed. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1979. Selected articles ranging from "Cognitive Field Theory," to "The Meaning of Wholeness" to "The Creative Attitude" provide an orientation directed at releasing the hypothesized innate drive towards rationality and self-improvement.

Mosher, Ralph L., and Purpel, David E. *Supervision—The Reluctant Profession*. Boston: Houghton-Mifflin, 1972. Chapter Six, "Implications for Supervision of Counseling Theory and Technique," outlines how a supervisor might work with a teacher on the psychological issues of personal philosophy, emotional challenges, anxiety, and personal role definition through "ego counseling." The authors point out that such techniques are for professional self-growth and are not to be used by supervisors to probe, interpret, or psychoanalyze an individual.

Kelley, Earl C. *The Workshop Way of Learning*. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1951. Kelley writes of ten years of using ongoing group participation to help teachers determine their own needs and develop self-improvement strategies, and to monitor their changes.

Rogers, Carl R. "A Plan for Self-Directed Change in an Educational System." *Educational Leadership*, May 1967, pp. 717-731. Rogers, who is generally regarded as the founder of nondirective counseling, writes on the specific applications of his theory to organizational change throughout a school system. He advocates certain types, formats, and uses of encounter groups for administrators, supervisors, and teachers to provide a supportive nonjudgmental environment for all individuals to rethink purpose and attempt change.

4.
Developmental Criteria for Choosing Appropriate Supervisory Orientations

If all teachers were alike it would be easy to determine the most effective supervisory orientation. However, the research on the impact of various supervisory styles on teacher perceptions and behaviors, to say the least, is bewildering. Arthur Blumberg (1974) found that teachers split into two groups on perceiving positive supervisory behavior. One group of teachers was most positive about supervisors who listened to them as well as presented their own ideas. Such a combination of behaviors is identified with the *collaborative orientation*. However, the other group of teachers was most positive about supervisors who primarily listened, encouraged, and clarified the teacher's own ideas. Such a combination of behaviors is identified with the *nondirective orientation*. To quote Blumberg,

> Generally positive evaluations by teachers of the quality of their supervisory interpersonal relations appear to develop when a teacher perceives his supervisor's behavior as consisting of a heavy emphasis on both telling, suggesting, criticizing, and on reflecting, asking for information, opinions, etc.: or when a teacher perceives his supervisor as putting little emphasis on telling and much on reflecting and asking.

Furthermore, Harris (1975) has cited the research of Alan F. Brown (1962) in which student teachers were put under directive, highly pressured supervision. The supervisor judged, criticized, and set down standards of performance from one lesson to the next. Concerning the 78 subjects, Harris wrote,

> This kind of supervision produced a variety of effects. Forty-five percent taught less effectively . . . Twenty-six percent taught as well . . . *Twenty-nine percent showed visible improvement.*

So, in Blumberg's case, we see that some teachers respond to collaborative supervision and some to nondirective supervision. In Harris' case, a significant group responded to directive supervision. Zins (1977) asked teachers for their preference on three types of consultation models. Thirty-five percent chose the

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medical/clinical model, 46 percent the beh..vioral, and 19 percent the mental health. Those models of consultation are roughly equivalent to our three orientations of supervision. Such research on varying teacher perceptions of effective styles of supervision should come as no surprise to those who have followed the research on the relationship between teaching style and student learning. Brophy (1979), Good (1979), and others have repeatedly demonstrated that student variables such as achievement, aptitude, attitudes, and socioeconomic class are critically matched with specific types of instruction. (For example, low socioeconomic underachieving students appear to be taught basic skills most effectively through direct, sequential, large-group instruction. Such instruction is not as effective with other groups.) Rita and Kenneth Dunn (1978), Jack Frymier (1977), and others have looked more deeply into the variations of instruction for individual students. Their instructional systems employ varying materials, environments, and instruction according to student personality, motivation, intelligence, and physiological characteristics. Research on human learning from birth to adulthood has long supported the need for the variation of instruction according to individual characteristics of students. The classical works of Jean Piaget (1955) and Jerome Bruner (1960) ushered in the modern "individualization of instruction movement" over twenty years ago.

The natural extension of looking at child learning has been to study adult learning. What is known about learning, individual differences, and teachers leads to the strong premise that effective supervision must be based on matching orientations of supervision with the individual needs and characteristics of teachers. Unless all teachers in a staff are remarkably homogeneous, no single approach will be effective for all. If supervision of staff is viewed as an attempt to change teacher behavior in order to improve student learning then *supervision is primarily an educative task*. Therefore, what is known about human learning and adult and teacher development becomes critical when deciding which supervisory orientation and which supervisory behaviors to use with a particular teacher. In recent years, two critical elements of teacher effectiveness have been found: (1) teacher's commitment and (2) teacher's ability to think abstractly. Both elements are developmental in that specific levels of growth can be assessed. It is in knowing the levels of commitment and abstraction an individual teacher possesses that a criteria for deciding upon appropriate supervisory behaviors emerges.

Level of Commitment

Gail Sheehy (1976) in her popular book about adult life, *Passages*, journalistically shows that as adults age, what they care about and their attitudes to life change. Our goals, aspirations, and plans in early adulthood (at age 21)

are not the same as in middle age or old age. Suddenly once burning career
ambitions to "reach the top" might become less important than slowing down
for our family or close friends.

Maslow (1960) discussed the developmental changes in life as a hier-
archical procession of satisfied needs. Motivation to act is derived from first
physiological needs to satisfy hunger, to the need for security and shelter, to
the need for love and belongingness, to the need for recognition, and finally
to the need to be truly oneself or to be "self-actualized." Erickson (1963),
from a psychoanalytical perspective, classified this progression of stages as the
overcoming of conflicts of eight stages in life: (1) trust versus mistrust, (2)
autonomy versus shame and doubt, (3) initiative versus guilt, (4) industry
versus inferiority, (5) identity versus role confusion, (6) intimacy versus
isolation, (7) generativity versus stagnation, (8) integrity versus despair.

The research by Gould (1972), Levinson (1978), and Loevinger (1976)
has more percisely identified these adult changes in motivation and life crises.
Loevinger integrated such theories into testable stages of adult ego develop-
ment. Adult responses to periods of life break into the following progressive
stages: amoral, fearful, dependent, opportunistic, conforming to persons, con-
forming to rules, and principled autonomy. From the work of Maslow, Erikson,
and Loevinger we can detect a consistent trend of movement from egocentric
concern with one's own case, to becoming a member of a group, to finding
recognition as a leader of the group, to finally acting upon reasoned, universal
principles that transcend the group and are in the interest of humanity. This
progression of adult changes provides the basic framework for looking at
career-specific changes in teachers. Keep in mind that development is based on:

1. Identified stages
2. Stages that are hierarchical (built on each other)
3. Individual rates of movement through stages

The pioneer longitudinal study of teachers by Francis Fuller (1969)
suggested that over time teachers' concerns about their work and profession
change. Eugene Hall (1978) and his many associates have built upon Fuller's
work by studying teachers' concerns when involved in curriculum implementa-
tion in their schools. Newman (1978); Peterson (1979); Witherell (1978);
Ayers (1980); Burden (1979); Adams, Hutchinson, and Martray (1980); and
others have continued to investigate what happens to teachers. Fuller (1969)
found that beginning teachers were mostly concerned about their own self-
survival or adequacy ("Can I be a teacher? Can I survive or will I have to find
another profession?"). Eventually when teachers find that they can manage and
that students, administrators, and peers are not going to drive them out of the
profession, their concern shifts from worrying about survival to becoming con-
cerned with improving the learning environment for students. In other words,

"If I know that I can make it from one week to the next, now I can focus my energy on helping my students improve from one week to the next." Finally, with success and recognition in helping students, teachers come to view themselves as competent, and concern shifts to providing help beyond the classroom to other teachers, students, the school, and the profession as a whole.

Ruby Anderson is a striking example of a teacher who moved to the highest stage of concern. The following story appeared in the University of Georgia's Faculty Staff Newspaper (Dendy, 1979).

Miss Ruby's Legacy

Friends and former students of the late Miss Ruby Anderson were not surprised to learn that the legendary Athens High School English teacher had left the university money to provide scholarships for teachers.

In her death, as in most of her life, Miss Ruby had no greater love than education.

During her nearly 60 years in the classroom, Miss Ruby, as she was universally known, taught thousands of Athens youngsters—three generations of some families—about the glories of Shakespeare and the importance of correct English grammar.

The first inductee to the Georgia Teacher Hall of Fame, she was a leader in state and national education organizations, including a National Education Association commission on which she served with Dwight D. Eisenhower.

She was a STAR Teacher, was named Athens Woman of the Year in Education, and many former students proclaim her the best teacher they ever had.

So her $82,819 bequest to the University of Georgia College of Education to establish scholarships seems a fitting culmination to a life devoted to education.

McDaniel, who was a friend of Miss Ruby's when he was Clarke County school superintendent, wrote a letter to the Athens newspaper citing the "sacrifice and commitment of a competent and dedicated teacher" and noting Miss Ruby's "moral and ethical influence" on her students.

"This final act on Miss Ruby's part epitomizes the lifetime of service and dedication which she gave to her fellow citizens," McDaniel wrote.

When she died October 30, 1978, her obituary was front-page news in the Athens papers. In an editorial, the paper said:

"If there was ever an example of a dedicated public servant who led an exemplary life for those who follow, it was Miss Ruby Anderson. Her death removed from our midst a valued and respected person who dedicated her entire being to her chosen profession, that of teaching young people both in the classroom and by example of her leadership and dedication."

A former teacher who worked with Miss Ruby for 10 years recalls that "School was her whole life. The principals depended on her. They knew that if you wanted something done, you asked Miss Ruby."

She tried to be the first teacher to school each morning, and was usually the last to leave each afternoon. She turned down several offers of higher paying jobs at the University, and she once tried to refuse her own salary because she thought the school system needed the money worse.

Fuller (1969) and others have found teacher development to parallel adult development in that adults first need to take care of their own needs before looking to the care of their immediate group members (students) before attempting to help others outside of their own classroom or immediate experience. Maslow and Erikson ring true. The individual is first dependent on others before joining and being an active group member, before accepting and being recognized in a leadership role in the group, before making decisions and taking actions that transcend the interests of one's own group in the best interest of all persons. Now how do we come off these lofty theoretical premises and put such ideas into practice?

We can first look at a common word bandied around the school—*commitment*. Educators indicate that some teachers make a tremendous "commitment" to teaching, and some make little or no "commitment." Commitment is larger than concern because it includes time and effort. Miss Ruby was obviously not just involved in, but committed to, her work. A teacher who has "no commitment" is really a person who is viewed as caring only about herself or himself, simply going through the motions to keep one's job, not caring about improving or willing to give *time* and *energy* to look at possible ways of improving. On the other hand, when her admirers said that Miss Ruby was a totally committed teacher, they were also saying that she wanted to do more for her students and for other teachers, and that she willingly worked far beyond the contracted hours of the job.

Teachers can be viewed along a commitment continuum moving from low to high.

Figure 7.   Commitment Continuum

Low	High
• Little concern for students	• High concern for students and other teachers
• Little time or energy expended	
• Primary concern with keeping one's job	• Extra time or energy expended
	• Primary concern with doing more for others

One might readily identify teachers in a school or organization along this continuum. Some teachers fall in the low end, some at the high end, and many fall somewhere in between. For example, a teacher of moderate commitment might work in "spurts" or single out one particular academic area to work hard on and neglect others, or work diligently with a particular group of students and spend less time with others. Most teachers, as most of us, fall into that middle range.

If level of commitment were the only variable to emerge as a key factor to successful instructional improvement, then we could begin matching supervisory orientation accordingly. However, another important variable must be considered when working with teachers. That variable is their ability to think abstractly.

Level of Abstraction

The research of Harvey (1966) and Hunt and Joyce (1967) have documented that teachers at high levels of cognitive development, where abstract/symbolic thinking predominates, are able to function with greater flexibility and complexity in the classroom. For example, Parkay (1979) found that teachers in an inner-city high school who had the highest levels of conceptual understanding of education had the lowest levels of stress and had more positive relationships with peers. Glassberg's (1979) review of research on teachers' cognitive development concluded that:

> In summary, these studies suggest that high stage teachers tend to be adaptive in teaching style, flexible, and tolerant, and able to employ a wide range of teaching models. . . . Effective teaching in almost any view is a most complex form of human behavior. . . . Teachers at higher, more complex stages of human development appear as more effective in classrooms than their peers at lower stages.

Oja (1979) in a separate review of research on the development of abstract thinking in teachers recorded similar findings:

> The research evidence does suggest that teachers at higher conceptual levels may be able to assume multiple perspectives, utilize a wide variety of coping behaviors, employ a broad repertoire of teaching models, and consequently be more effective with students.

A teacher's ability to stand back from his or her classroom, to clarify his or her own instructional problems (management, discipline, record keeping, organization, student attitudes), determine alternative solutions to these problems, and then to plan a course of action is an abstract process. It stands to reason that teachers who have skills for problem solving and who can judge conse-

quences of alternative actions will be more effective in meeting the instructional needs of students. A teacher who does not have such abstract ability is limited in finding an appropriate course of action. Low level thinking about problems usually results in repeating one or two habitual responses to ongoing problems or in defining an incomplete plan of action.

Piaget (1955), Bruner (1966), and Kohlberg (1969) can help us understand how reasoning develops. They have found a consistent developmental sequence in children. Thinking is focused on a singular characteristic of a property before two or more characteristics of the same property can be considered. Parents can identify this process when talking with their young children. To a two-year-old the family dog is "Rufus" and "Rufus" alone. Only as the child grows and hears others discuss larger categories of dogs can he begin to understand that "Rufus" is not just "Rufus" but is also a dog. He learns that "Rufus" possesses characteristics that are common with all other animals called dogs. Therefore, when the child's thinking moves from a single categorization ("Rufus") to a larger categorization (dogs), only then can he begin to listen, sort out, and combine other properties of "Rufus" such as cocker spaniel, brown dog, animal, brown animal, brown cocker spaniel, cocker spaniel dog, and so on. Abstract or symbolic thinking is the ability to move away from the visual, tactile identification of a property and the ability to "mediate" with the mind, to recategorize, and to generalize.

Such a simple example of cognitive development with the classification of dogs might not appear applicable to adults and teachers. All adult educators are able to categorize dogs in different ways, but what happens when we change the idea of "dog" to such concepts as "justice," "morality," "government," "student record keeping," "slow learners," and so forth? With such larger concepts, developmental learning processes apply. If one can categorize the issue of discipline in only one way, then the person is "blinded" to other ways of working with students. It is only when one can recategorize or synthesize the characteristics of a problem that alternative actions can be identified and analyzed.

A troubling aspect of fostering development is documented by the research of Kohlberg and Turiel (1971). The spur or stimulus for helping people move into higher stages of abstract reasoning comes from the interaction with others who are in more advanced stages. More advanced stage people can promote the conditions, set up the materials and environments, and provide the questions and ideas that provoke students to think about issues in different ways. Kohlberg has documented six stages of moral reasoning and has found that only 10 percent of teachers are higher than stage four. The interesting question posed by Wilkins (1980) is, if Kohlberg is correct, how are students to learn to reason in higher stages than those their teachers possess? Similarly, the

alarming statistics of Harvey (1970) of conceptual attainment among preservice and inservice teachers shows that the percentage of persons in the highest levels of abstract thinking drops from 7 percent to 4 percent as experience in professional education increases, In other words, the high abstract thinkers either drop out of teaching or regress to lower levels, and, furthermore, those at lower levels do not increase their levels of abstract thinking. As supervisors, we need to be concerned about abstract thinking in teachers. Those teachers who have the ability to think abstractly need to be challenged to use it and stay in the profession. Those who do not have that ability need to be stimulated to acquire it. The supervisor might think of teachers along a continuum of abstract thinking.[*]

Figure 8.   Levels of Abstract Thinking

Low	Moderate	High
• Confused about the problem	• Can define the problem	• Can think of the problem from many perspectives
• Doesn't know what can be done	• Can think of one or two possible responses to the problem	• Can generate many alternative plans
• "Show me"		• Can choose a plan and think through each step
• Has one or two habitual responses to problems	• Has trouble thinking through a comprehensive plan	

Teachers with low abstract thinking ability are not sure if they have a classroom problem or, if they do, they are very confused about the problem. They don't know what can be done and they need to be shown what can be done. They normally have a limited repertoire of one or two solutions such as "be tougher" or "give more homework" regardless of whether the problem involves misbehavior, underachievement, or inappropriate textbooks.

Teachers with moderate abstract thinking ability can usually define the problem according to how they see it. They can think of one or two possible actions but have problems in coordinating an overall plan. For example, if many students are failing chemistry, teachers of moderate abstract thinking ability

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[*] For more sophisticated assessment of abstract thinking, the reader might refer to Harvey's Conceptual Systems Test (Harvey 1967), The Concept Level Questionnaire (Hunt and Halverson, 1964), Kohlberg's Moral Development Test (1958), or Mednick's Remote Associates Test (Mednick, 1962).

might think of creating some remedial packets written at a lower reading level. They might then implement the packets with students but fail to plan ahead for such matters as monitoring progress, alloting enough class time, providing other work for the more advanced students, explaining the rules for using the packets, and clarifying the need for more individualized work. The moderately abstract teacher might face these additional issues as they occur without having planned preventive measures.

Teachers with high abstract thinking ability can view the problem from many perspectives (one's own, students', parents', aides', administrators') and generate many alternative solutions. They can think through the advantages and disadvantages of each plan and decide upon one. They are willing to change that plan if the predicted consequences do not materialize. When planning, they can judge additional problems that might arise and systematically provide prevention.

Intersecting Variables to Establish Criteria

Using the two developmental variables of *level of teacher commitment* and *level of abstraction,* the supervisor can assess an individual teacher. The assessment can be accomplished with a simple paradigm with two intersecting lines— one *line of commitment* going from low to high and one *line of abstraction* going from low to high. Thus, as seen in Figure 9 on the next page, there are four quadrants or boxes that define "types" of teachers. Of course, not all teachers fit cleanly into these boxes, but the quadrants give a supervisor a reasoned basis for viewing differences in teachers.

Quadrant I: This teacher has a low level of commitment and a low level of abstraction. He is referred to as a Teacher Dropout. He simply goes through the minimal motions in order to keep his job. He has little motivation for improving competencies. Furthermore, he cannot think about what changes could be made and is quite satisfied to keep the same routine day after day. He does not see any reasons for improvement. The causes of any difficulties are blamed on others. In this teacher's view, it is the students or administration or community that need help, never the teacher. He comes to work exactly on time and leaves school as soon as officially permissible.

Quadrant II: This teacher has a high level of commitment but a low level of abstraction. She is enthusiastic, energetic, and full of good intentions. She desires to become a better teacher and make her class more exciting and relevant to students. She works very hard and usually leaves school staggering under materials to be worked on at home. Unfortunately, though, good intentions are thwarted by her lack of ability to think problems through and act fully and realistically. This teacher is classified as an Unfocused Worker. She usually becomes involved in multiple projects and activities but becomes easily con-
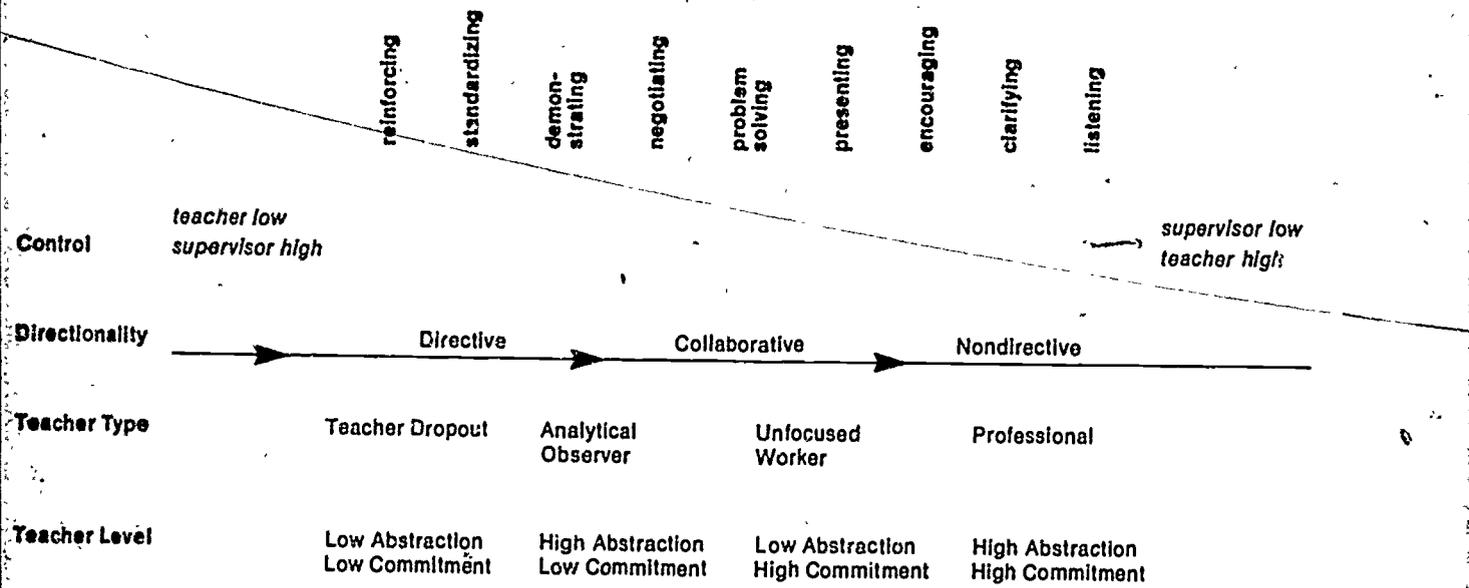
Figure 9. Paradigm of Teacher Categories
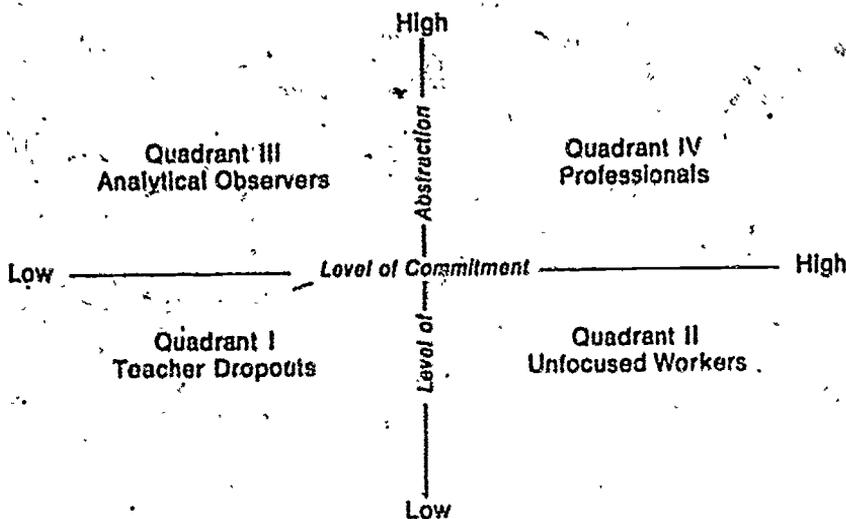
fused, discouraged, and swamped by self-imposed and unrealistic tasks As a result, rarely does this teacher complete any instructional improvement effort before undertaking a new one.

Quadrant III: This teacher has a low level of commitment but a high level of abstraction. This teacher is the intelligent, highly verbal person who is always full of great ideas about what can be done in his own classroom, in other classrooms, and in the school as a whole. He can discuss the issues clearly and think through the steps necessary for successful implementation. This teacher is labeled the Analytical Observer because his ideas often do not result in any action. He knows what needs to be done but is unwilling to commit the time, energy, and care necessary to carry out the plan.

Quadrant IV. This teacher has both a high level of commitment and a high level of abstraction. She is the true Professional, committed to continually improving herself, her students, and fellow faculty. She can think about the task at hand, consider alternatives, make a rational choice, and develop and carry out an appropriate plan of action. Not only can she do this for her classroom but with the faculty as a whole. She is regarded by others as an informal leader, one to whom others go willingly for help. Not only does this teacher provide ideas, activities, and resources, but such a person becomes actively involved in seeing any proposed plan through to its completion. She is a thinker and a doer.

Figure 10. Developmental Directionality of the Supervisory Behavior Continuum

| | reinforcing | standardizing | demonstrating | negotiating | problem solving | presenting | encouraging | clarifying | listening |

Control

teacher low
supervisor high

supervisor low
teacher high

Directionality Directive → Collaborative → Nondirective

Teacher Type

| Teacher Dropout | Analytical Observer | Unfocused Worker | Professional |

Teacher Level

| Low Abstraction Low Commitment | High Abstraction Low Commitment | Low Abstraction High Commitment | High Abstraction High Commitment |

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Discussion

By focusing on the two variables of level of commitment and level of abstraction that are related to teacher effectiveness, the supervisor can begin to think about individual teachers as developmentally different. Teachers can be worked with in ways to help them develop a higher level of abstraction and a higher level of commitment. The supervisor must first begin to work with a teacher at his or her current stage on each of these levels; as gain is realized the supervisor can provide less supervisory direction and more teacher responsibili y. Remembering the developmental characteristics implicit in the supervisory behavior continuum, the supervisor's goal is always to decrease those behaviors that give the supervisor control over the improvement of instruction and to increase those behaviors that ultimately enable the teacher to be the controller of his or her own improvement. This does not occur overnight. With some teachers, quite frankly, it may never happen. With others it may take one to three years. Some teachers may already be fully capable of self-direction. In all efforts with teachers, the supervisor should keep in mind this developmental directionality, as represented in Figure 10.

With such a scheme, the supervisor can determine a starting point for using supervisory orientations with individual teachers. The Teacher Dropout is matched with the directive orientation, the Analytical Observer is matched with the collaborative orientation with emphasis on negotiating, the Unfocused Worker is matched with the collaborative orientation with emphasis on presenting supervisor ideas, and the Professional is best matched with a nondirective orientation to supervision.

5.
Matching Stages of Teacher Development With Appropriate Supervisory Orientations

Having established four quadrants for assessing teachers, the supervisor can judge the range of practices that he or she needs to use. If the staff is fairly uniform in the level of abstraction and the level of commitment then the number of orientations to be employed for effective supervision are, at least for the moment, reduced. If the staff is composed of mostly Teacher Dropouts, then the supervisor might emphasize a directive orientation by giving teacher assignments. If the staff is composed of well intentioned Unfocused Workers or thoughtful Analytical Observers, then a collaborative orientation of setting a framework for choice would be suitable. If the composition of the staff is mostly Professionals, then a nondirective orientation that releases the knowledge, wisdom, and effort of the teachers would be ideal. Supervisors would have an easier job if teachers were all on the same levels. However, we profess to live in a society that prizes individuality above conformity and heterogeneity above homogeneity and, as a result, students and teachers tend to be quite dissimilar.

Rare is the school that has all Professionals or all Teacher Dropouts. Rare is the school that has all "fast learners" or "slow learners." Public school teachers work with students at all levels of achievement and ability. If we expect teachers to individualize for diverse populations of students, then we as supervisors must likewise be able to individualize for teachers. The ideal to strive for is to enable each teacher to become a Professional. The supervisor can work toward that ideal by assessing the current levels of teacher development, taking each teacher at his or her level, and helping the teacher move toward the next stage of development.

A typical school might have approximately 5 to 10 percent Teacher Dropouts, 60 to 70 percent Unfocused Workers and Analytical Observers, and 10 to 20 percent Professionals. A staff of 30 teachers would yield, then, three to four Dropouts, 18 to 23 in the middle range, and four to eight Professionals. *Therefore, the most commonly used approach with most teachers should be*

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the collaborative orientation. This might be the reason why so much writing in the field of supervision is based on mutual and shared decision making. The odds are on the collaborator's side that his or her approach will be more successful with most teachers. However, it is misleading for the advocates of collaboration to use the high percentage as a justification for its exclusive use. *Because a set of behaviors is successful with 80 percent of a staff does not mean that one should continue to use that practice with the other 20 per-cent of a staff that is finding the approach frustrating, inappropriate, and failure laden.* Teacher Dropouts in a staff in which the supervisor uses the collaborative orientation may resist being asked to contribute to shared decision making. They often see a supervisor who uses such an approach as "wishy-washy" and taking up their valuable time.

On the other hand, the Professionals in the same school in which the collaborative orientation is solely used may also find their time being "frittered away." Why should they continually have to come to mutual agreement with a supervisor or others who may not possess the competencies and knowledge of the teacher? The opportunity to challenge such teachers to think creatively and independently might be drained away in finding consensus. Why limit their potential to be a resource to others? The point is that although the collabora-tive orientation is the most popularly advocated one, it does not help all teachers grow. Collaboration helps more teachers but it stifles both those who need explicit, structured directions and those who need the freedom to experi-ment on their own. Using the directive orientation or nondirective orientation exclusively creates even greater difficulties. Either orientation might be on target for 10 percent and leave the other 90 percent of teachers unaffected or resentful. No one approach works for all teachers. The goal is to help all teachers become Professionals. To reach that goal, behaviors of the supervisor must vary according to the teacher.

How It's Done

Without repeating the procedures and steps explained in Chapter Three for each supervisory orientation, let us consider four brief cases of teachers in the different quadrants of level of commitment and level of abstraction Re-member Ms. Horvback, Mr. Sangui, Ms. Tilton, and Mr. Donner who were mentioned in Chapter One? It is time to return to them and use the information about alternative supervisory orientations with developmental criteria to im prove their instruction.

Mr. Donner

Bill Donner is in his fifth year of teaching at Carden Elementary School. For reasons unknown, the local college of education allowed him to graduate and become certified and the previous school administration allowed him to become a tenured teacher. The new supervisor has observed that Mr. Donner is perceived by students, other teachers, and parents as a poor teacher. The supervisor agrees with this judgment. Mr. Donner teaches social studies and science to fourth through sixth graders, five periods of the day. Each class is operated in an identical manner. He writes on the blackboard the pages to be read in the text and the assignment to be done. Students enter and sit down. He instructs them with, "Your reading and assignment are on the board. Get to work and keep quiet." His paddle by the side of the desk is used to enforce quiet. Occasionally he lectures; rarely does he engage students in discussion or other activities. He sits behind his desk and grudgingly answers questions when students come to him. When talking with Mr. Donner, it is apparent that he dislikes teaching and students. Yet, because of vacation time and short hours, he plans to stay in the profession.

Discussion: The Mr. Donners of the world are few. Yet teachers do exist who could not care less about their job. They see no ethical problem with continuing ("After all, I give students work to do"). Anything that is wrong in the class, whether it be hostile students, failed tests, or tardy assignments, is blamed on the students because they are "lazy and slow" or they come from such "terrible homes."

Diagnosis and Prescription: Mr. Donner can be categorized as a Teacher Dropout, low in commitment and low in abstract ability. To be blunt, the only way that Mr. Donner is going to change his behavior is by a supervisor being forceful The directive orientation should be followed with a clear assignment of needed change within a time sequence (refer back to Chapter Three, directive orientation). If the changes occur, then Mr. Donner is to be praised and rewarded; if the changes do not occur, then Mr. Donner should be aware of the consequences such as no pay raise or even the beginning of proceedings for dismissal. This is not an arbitrary scheme to get rid of a teacher, it simply acknowledges that there is a need for a straightforward and easily manageable plan with the intent of improving Mr. Donner's instruction. The supervisor begins small (such as directing Mr. Donner to establish four group activities for one class at least once a week or to spend at least 50 percent of class time away from his desk moving among the students in one class). The supervisor's major responsibility is to see that students are properly instructed, and if a teacher is not responding to students, then the supervisor must meet the issue head on.

Ms. Tilton

Shirley Tilton is in her first year at Roosevelt Middle School. After the first few weeks, it becomes apparent that she cares deeply about her students. She often stays in at breaks and after school to work with youngsters having instructional difficulties. She makes home visits and invites students over to her home on weekends. She is often at school until 5:00 p.m. working on new activities and always leaves school carrying a pile of work. At faculty meetings, she volunteers to serve on various committees and willingly carries out extra assignments, whether monitoring the lunchroom or watching another teacher's classroom. She wants to do well and eagerly tries to please.

On the other hand, her class does not operate smoothly or efficiently. There are many materials scattered around, students become confused about their assignments, and Ms. Tilton often misplaces lesson plans and individual student assignments. The class usually begins in a state of confusion with students waiting and becoming noisy, restless, and disruptive. Ms. Tilton is constantly trying to keep the class under control while encouraging students to make up their own rules and monitor their own schedules. Ms. Tilton knows that her class is not operating efficiently and, to compensate, she works harder and longer with individual students and adds more creative activities. The supervisor notices that although the students like her, the majority of their instructional time is spent aimlessly.

Discussion: Ms. Tilton does not need to be motivated, she truly desires to be a better teacher and to make life productive and interesting for students. She thinks that she can overcome any problem by working harder, this simple thinking is compounding her problem. Her students are confused about the number of choices already available to them. Her striving to provide more activities contributes to greater confusion. Yet she does not see that it is her eagerness to create more that is adding to the problem.

Diagnosis and Prescription: Ms. Tilton falls within the quadrant of Unfocused Workers. She is high on level of commitment but low on level of abstraction. She is unable to stand back from her classroom, define the problem, and think through needed short- and long-term adjustments. She needs direction for attacking the problem in ways that she is currently unable to conceive.

The supervisor who is responding to Ms. Tilton's needs must provide direction *with choice*. He or she needs to observe the classroom and then give Ms. Tilton two or three specific changes that might be made. In using a collaborative orientation, the supervisor clarifies the problem, proposes a few alternative actions, asks the teacher to pick from those limited choices, and then writes down a collaborative contract. With success, the supervisor when meeting with Ms. Tilton again might provide more choices and press the teacher to formulate her own actions. For the present, however, the Unfocused Worker needs the supervisor to offer specific, concrete suggestions from which she can choose.

Ms. Horvback

(Ms. Horvback's case, described in Chapter One, is repeated here to refresh the reader's memory.)

Shirley Horvback is an English teacher in her twelfth year at New Castle High School. She is married, has no children, and lives in a high socioeconomic neighborhood far from New Castle High. One reason she teaches there is her desire "to help students from impoverished surroundings acquire an appreciation for literature." She is an avid reader of contemporary and classical literature and occasionally writes her own short stories.

Ms. Horvback generally is regarded as a competent teacher. She has a rather bombastic manner of speaking and with her large, robust and rangy physical stature creates an imposing presence. Many of her students are afraid of her and the word is passed quickly to new students that "you don't mess with Old Lady Horvback." Most students grudgingly believe that her classes are worthwhile. When the hard work and teacher pressure is over, students seem to emerge from her class as better readers and writers.

Ms. Horvback, except for one close friend, is not liked by other teachers in New Castle. They complain of her arrogant, elitist attitude. Ms. Horvback conveys the impression that poor New Castle High is privileged to have such a literate person as herself on its staff. She lets it be known that she once was accepted as a Ph.D. student in English at a prestigious university and turned it down to teach high school here. At faculty meetings, Ms. Horvback's sense of superiority is evident in her answers to every school problem. She is insightful, analyzes and proposes thorough solutions but when it comes to action, she backs off. She can easily suggest what can be done or what others should do to make New Castle a better school, but she is usually the last to arrive at school and the first to depart.

Ms. Horvback can be viewed as a teacher who gets the basic job done. She enjoys teaching and her students learn. Her behavior with other teachers might be troublesome but it is difficult to fault her classroom work. The concern with Ms. Horvback is not what she presently does but with what more she could possibly do.

Diagnosis and Prescription: Ms. Horvback is one of our Analytical Observers. She operates her classroom in a set but adequate manner. She is high on level of abstraction and full of refreshing ideas about how things should be done in other classrooms and around the school, but she is relatively low on level of commitment. She does not put her physical body and energy into making her ideas a reality. There are other Analytical Observers even lower on commitment than Ms. Horvback who have classrooms that verge on incompetence. They know what should be done but simply don't care to change. In Ms. Horvback's case, she does care about keeping her classroom operating on a maintenance level that will avoid criticism or job insecurity. There is so much more that this teacher could do for students and others if only she could become more committed to improving her instruction. This then becomes the major task of the supervisor.

The supervisor needs to work with a collaborative orientation that recognizes the intelligence of the teacher yet forces her into action. Therefore, the

collaborative orientation involved in working with the Analytical Observer is different than that required in working with the Unfocused Worker. In working with the Analytical Observer, the supervisor encourages the teacher to do what he or she does well, that is, to clarify problems and present alternative solutions. Then the supervisor presses for a commitment by saying, in effect: "These ideas are great. Now which one of them can we work on for the next two or three weeks?" If the teacher tries to backtrack with excuses such as "I don't have enough time," or "I'll get to it later," the supervisor needs to further press the teacher. He or she might say, "Well, if you don't have time to do all of that, then what part of the plan could you do?" or "I'll help you with the plan 'so it won't take up that much of your time." The supervisor does not allow the teacher to wiggle out of the plan and, instead, negotiates a commitment from the teacher. The idea is to get the observer doing. The teacher is forced not only to think but to act. The plan itself comes almost totally from the teacher, yet the supervisor actively works to see that the plan is realistic and manageable.

Mr. Sangui

Mr. Sangui is in his next to last year at Sunrise Elementary School. Soon he will be retiring. He has consciously stayed in the classroom, having passed up several opportunities to move into administrative positions. All of his life he has wanted to help youngsters learn. During his career he has had as students parents and even grandparents of some of his current students. Almost to a person, former and current students, faculty, parents, and administrators regard Mr. Sangui as an exceptional person. In his last years he still involves himself with school affairs, incorporates new materials in the classroom, holds an office in the local teachers association, and attends workshops, courses, and professional conferences on his own. He has seen the town population around Sunrise School change dramatically from that of exclusively middle class to a diverse mix of socioeconomic, racial, and ethnic groups. He has responded to these changes by learning about differences in students, studying minority dialects and customs, and incorporating individual and group materials into the classroom that capitalize on multicultural experiences. Other teachers shake their heads in wonder at the man and often seek him out for advice.

Diagnosis and Prescription: Mr. Sangui is a Professional. He is very high on level of commitment to students, the school, and the profession. He is also high on level of abstract thinking. He can assess instructional problems, has the knowledge of alternatives, can choose and plan steps of implementation. The orientation to supervising Mr. Sangui should be nondirective. The supervisor actively listens to the teacher's problems, encourages teacher analysis, clarifies the problem by paraphrasing and questioning, offers suggestions when asked, and finally asks the teacher to develop a self-plan.

Discussion: Since a Professional has a concern greater than his or her own classroom, the supervisor needs to encourage and rely on the teacher's ability. A Professional is an independent person who speaks freely for what is in the best interest of all students, even though such ideas usually entail more personal work. At times, Mr. Sangui might "take on" the whole faculty when he believes that they are making changes in the school to make life easier for themselves but which are not in the interest of students. Because of the Professional's broad perspective on education, independence, and abstract ability, he or she often will disagree with others whether they are parents, teachers, principals, the superintendent, or school board members.

A Professional can be easier to identify than to work with. The supervisor must acknowledge that here exists a person who is at least the equal of or superior to oneself when it comes to instructional matters. To tell a Professional what to do is to fail to respect this person's ability. The supervisor needs to encourage the Mr. Sanguis of the world to contribute their own plans, to assist other teachers, and to be an informa' leader in the school. Conflicts in ideas with a Professional are almost inevitable. Such conflicts should not be viewed as a threat to the supervisor's position. Schools need more people like Mr. Sangui, and the way to involve such people is to invite them to share their views concerning school problems. At times, a supervisor might even give up one's own plans when the Professional appears to have greater expertise about the matter at hand. The Professional will often make better decisions than the group or the supervisor. If among the staff there are members who have greater insight and knowledge into certain instructional matters than others, then encouraging these persons to take a major role in the decision can only help in reaching the goal of instructional improvement.

Development, Not Age

In describing teachers who fall into the quadrants of Teacher Dropout, Unfocused Worker, Analytical Observer, and Professional, it is crucial to note that development is not a function of age or years of service. There are older teachers who are in quadrant one (Teacher Dropout); there are younger teachers who are in quadrant four (Professional); and there are teachers of all ages and levels of experience who are scattered throughout the quadrants. Neither age nor experience of the teacher is a crucial variable in determining the appropriate supervisory orientation to employ. Not all first year teachers need a directive approach, neither are all 15-year teachers prepared for a nondirective approach. The selection of the appropriate supervisory orientation must follow the assessment of the variables of level of abstraction and level of commitment for each individual.

6.
# Teacher Development: Further Considerations for the Supervisor

When bringing closure to a book, an author thinks of the many ideas, practices, and constructs that have been left out. In this book, I have tried to keep the focus narrow. The purposes were threefold: (1) to outline three practical orientations to supervising teachers; (2) to identify key variables when assessing stages of teach development; and (3) to show the match between supervisory orientations and teacher stages. Now that those purposes hopefully have been accomplished, it is time to bring up some additional information, further applications and cautions, and the philosophical basis for operating supervision according to developmental criteria.

The Complexity of Supervision

Working with people is a tremendously complicated matter. Every teacher has different experiences, personality traits, and physical characteristics. Furthermore, each teacher interacts with other teachers, with many students, and with several superiors. The supervisor, as broadly defined as one who has responsibility for the improvement of a teacher's instruction, not only influences teachers, but is influenced by teachers in return. To compound the matter further, the supervisor is often the mediator of student concerns, school policy, central office directives, and community/parent expectations. Figure 11 illustrates this relationship.

To put all these combinations of influential variables together would result in a computer print-out of relationships that would be beyond human comprehension. Therefore, to view the supervisor and teacher relationship for improvement of instruction according to three orientations of supervision (directive, collaborative, and nondirective), two variables among teachers, level of abstraction and level of commitment); and four quadrants of teacher types (Dropout, Unfocused Worker, Analytical Observer, and Professional) does not account for the situational complexity that every supervisor faces. A

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Figure 11. Factors Influencing Supervisors
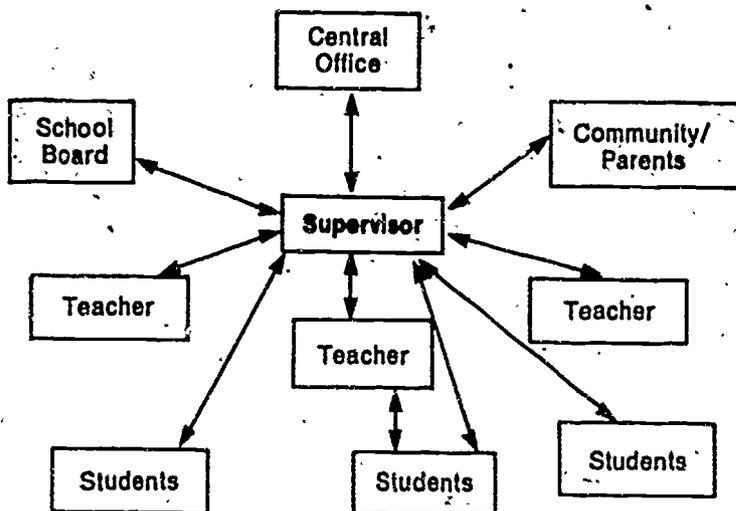
supervisor might have some teachers who defy description within the quadrants. A given teacher may be an Unfocused Worker when it comes to teaching science and a Professional when it comes to teaching English. A supervisor might work in a school where the central office dictates that all supervision must be collaborative. A local school might exist in a community where life is totally free wheeling and independent or totally structured and regimented. In other words, supervisors must read and apply the concepts and practices of this book that are appropriate in their own situations. There will never be a prescriptive guide that tells supervisors exactly what to do in every situation with every person to be successful.

If professional judgment or situational complexity is so important and the practices advocated in this book are simplistic, then the reader might ask, "Why write the book in the first place?" It is because supervision is so complex that there is a need for trying to understand what is going on in schools and with teachers so that we can determine supervisory starting points for improving instruction. To say that complexity is bewildering and incomprehensible is to negate our rational abilities to make sense of this world and act accordingly. As supervisors we can admit our inability to know everything—but also admit that we do know something and then use our knowledge to improve instruction for students. We can never understand *all* but we can understand *some*, and it is using the *some* that enables us to think, to plan, and to work purposefully with teachers.

The Question of "Flex"

Supervisors are being asked to move beyond one way of working with teachers and to use several orientations according to individual teachers. This is the same position that Zins (1977.) makes when concluding his study on three models of consultation. "In view of the finding that teachers have different preferences for models of consultation, consultants need to be aware of these preferences and flexible in response to them."

I recently co-authored a book (Wolfgang and Glickman, 1980) that suggested eight models of discipline that teachers could draw on to solve behavioral problems. The most consistent criticism of that book has been that teachers cannot be proficient in all eight models or styles of teaching, that most humans are limited in their capacity to employ a range of behaviors.

If the premise is accepted that a person can only be proficient in one or two approaches of operating with people, then there are grave problems not only with employing supervision orientations according to developmental differences in teachers, but also with selecting teacher approaches to meet developmental differences in students. The question of whether a supervisor who has a set disposition towards supervising teachers can become proficient in more than one style of operation is critical and needs to be researched. I have used the word "flex" to mean the degree that a person can vary his or her behaviors. Obviously, a supervisor can learn to vary his or her style. Perhaps it's unrealistic to expect a nondirective supervisor to become proficient quickly in the opposite behaviors of directiveness but it's not as unrealistic to believe that he or she can acquire the skills of collaboration which incorporate some of his or her already present behaviors. Eventually, with the practice of collaboration, the supervisor can begin to learn directiveness. The same can be predicted for the directive supervisor who would more easily learn and practice collaboration prior to nondirectiveness.

To my knowledge, there has not been a great deal of research on how much "flex" a person can acquire. I urge supervisors who are now willing to try out the practices described in this book to inform me of the results of their efforts. I also urge researchers to study the human capacity to acquire varying styles of thinking, behaving, and living.

The Philosophical Premise for Developmental Supervision

An advocacy of an educational practice, whether regarding instruction, management of students, curriculum, or supervision of staff, has beneath it a philosophical assumption of what is "good" education. It is important for the reader to understand and accept the philosophical implications of *Developmental Supervision* before embracing and using the practice *Developmental*

Supervision is derived from an educational philosophy of progressivism. Learning is the result of actively putting ideas and knowledge to work in the real world. Knowledge for its own sake is not the highest priority nor is self-knowledge for one's own personal sake. Instead, knowledge that enables individuals to act with others in ways to improve the conditions of all is of greatest importance. As Frymier (1977) wrote ". . . the individual is the end, subject matter is the means, and society is the result." Social interaction is therefore valued as the primary means to testing and exploring ideas.

Developmental education is premised on invariant stage theory. All individuals move through a sequence of stages in the physical, motor, cognitive, social, and aesthetic domains. The rate may vary and we may progress more rapidly through some domains than others. We do not reach the highest stages unless the environment of people and materials, is supportive and stimulating. The ultimate aim is to guide individuals to reach those stages which enable them to be self reliant and independent, and to act upon interests of people that transcend their own. The purpose of a school is to recognize the differences in people, to instruct according to individual differences, to group students socially so that higher and diverse thinking is always present and, finally, to assure that teachers as well as students continue to change and grow. Individuality coupled with concern for helping others is the goal, conformity or self-aggrandizement are the antithesis of development. The supervisor must work with teachers in the same developmental manner that teachers are expected to work with their students. Sameness and uniformity of approach are out. Individuality with social responsibility is in

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