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A THEORETICAL CONSTRUCT FOR
SELECTION OF CONTENT IN SUPERVISION
OF INSTRUCTION TRAINING

DISSERTATION
Presented in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for
the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in the Graduate
School of The Ohio State University

By
Charles William Beegle, B.S., M.A.

* * * * * * *

The Ohio State University
1969

Approved by

[Signature]
Adviser
College of Education
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C.W.B.
VITA

May 19, 1928. . . Born - Charleston, West Virginia

1951. . . . . . B.S., The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio

1956. . . . . . M.A., The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio

1956-1957 . . . Teacher, Ashtabula Public Schools, Ashtabula, Ohio

1957-1959 . . . Teacher, Marion Public Schools, Marion, Ohio

1959-1961 . . . Principal, Jefferson Local Schools, Gahanna, Ohio

1961-1964 . . . Junior High Supervisor, Franklin County Schools, Columbus, Ohio

1964-1967 . . . Co-ordinator of Instruction, Franklin County Schools, Columbus, Ohio

1967-1968 . . . Co-ordinator of Environmental Studies Project, Brookville, Ohio

1968-69 . . . . Graduate Instructor, The Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio

1969-70 . . . . Assistant Professor, The University of Virginia, Charlottesville, Virginia

PUBLICATIONS

Editor, Franklin County Schools Six-Week Bulletin, 1964-67
and Franklin County Curriculum Guides, 1964-67
FIELDS OF STUDY

Major Field:  Curriculum.  Professor Paul R. Klohr

Minor Fields:  Teacher Education.  Professor Herbert Coon
                Educational Administration.  Professor Frederick Staub
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CHAPTER I

BACKGROUND AND STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

Studies continue to show that supervision, as it is currently in effect in typical school situations, is perceived as being of little use in improving instruction at the classroom level. This finding holds whether the perceptions being analyzed are those of teachers, administrators at the building level, or, indeed, supervisors, themselves. Usually these findings are generalized in the form of a single, broad generalization such as: there is widespread role diffusion in the supervision of instruction. But, such generalizations at this level of abstraction are of relatively little help in charting new directions for (1) designing more effective training programs for supervisors; (2) improving the competencies of supervisors already in the schools; or (3) developing a more adequate theoretical base for the field of supervision. Yet, all three of these have been identified as crucial tasks which must be faced as education moves into the 1970's with increasing pressures to become more relevant and more fully
accountable.

It is an understatement, indeed, to assert that supervision of instruction is in a state of confusion. This state of confusion is reflected in practice, in the relatively few empirical studies that make up the literature of the field, and in the loose, unformed theory base used to rationalize both theory and practice. A further explication of the specific problem to be undertaken in this investigation, which aims to bring some order out of the confusion identified here, is better understood against a brief, historical backdrop.

Historical Background

Supervision of instruction has been an integral part of a developing educational system in this nation. And, as such, it reflects the social scene. Historically, it has shifted with changes in the social and educational arena. New practices emerged in response to new needs. During the Colonial period and continuing to the Civil War, clergy, trustees, and citizen committees were involved in the inspection of schools for the sake of control. Great emphasis was placed on observing rules and maintaining existing standards.
Inspection of schools and classrooms continued through the Nineteenth Century; however, the parties doing the supervision and the nature of the supervisory program shifted to a degree. Professional officials, such as state, county, and local superintendents and principals, were responsible for inspection, again for the sake of control. Emphasis upon regulations with some leadership for improvement of instruction emerged.

In the late Nineteenth Century and early Twentieth Century, those responsible for supervision (principals and special supervisors or helping teachers) gave the teachers prescriptions of what was "good instruction" and what was expected to be practiced. Improvement of instruction was to come about through direct classroom observation and demonstration. Attention was focused upon the weakness of the teacher and the emphasis was still on control and regulation.

Growth in the size of schools created need for "head teachers," supervisors, and administrators. With still more growth, this early administrative service turned toward fiscal management and began developing as a function in its own right, not just as an off-shoot of teaching. A permanent division of labor was thus created. But, more importantly, so was an authority structure, as indicated by the next shift in emphasis from simple business management to
a type of quality control. This was the beginning of program regulation at all levels, particularly at the state level—the establishment of the first minimum standards, and a general manipulation of the physical environment and financial resources in a deliberate effort to professionalize the schools. Personnel administration, control of the "people" as well as the "things" of teaching, inescapably came next because of the teacher's strategic position between pupils and all other resources. Its forms were many and varied, ranging from the definition of employment policies to the refinement of teaching methods. The important thing, however, was the focus on the teacher and equating of quality with her performance (e.g. believing that the school is no better than the teacher). The fallacy was in the non-separation of teaching and learning, the equating of teachers with their environment. At this point the first discernible phase of supervision, "institutional control," reached its culmination, with its four emphases—(1) simple administration, (2) fiscal management, (3) quality control, and (4) personnel administration—representing crude sequential steps in the building of an institutional structure for public education.¹

During this epoch, supervision was clearly seen as an arm of administration even though new subjects required the services of "specialists." Experts were efficiency-oriented. The work of Callahan, perhaps better than any other, documents just how extensively this "efficiency" concept permeated education—especially in such emerging specialities
as supervision. He points out,\textsuperscript{2} for example, that a major part of the effort to measure efficiency in schools consisted of attempts to rate teachers. These efforts were directly related to procedures Taylor and others had worked out in the business and industrial world. These influences were so strong that Callahan is able to assert that education as a whole has been caught up in a "cult of efficiency." This cult places high priority on efficient, economical operations which, in turn, determine the priorities supervisors were expected to honor in their emerging roles in the system.

Even Harold Alberty and V. T. Thayer, widely recognized for their humanistic orientation with respect to curriculum, succumbed to the temper of the times, and in 1931 wrote a text\textsuperscript{3} on supervision which had strong "efficiency" overtones and tended to correlate this approach with "scientific" supervision. This scientism was reflected in both the testing and measurement movement and in curriculum development efforts during this period.

Human values and "democratic" human relations were the new emphases during the late 1930's and 1940's.
Supervisors tried to become expert in human relations techniques and group dynamics process. Content was de-emphasized in favor of "good human relations and warm group climates." Instructional improvement was sought through group procedures—the committee, workshop, study group, and small conference. Some techniques which characterized the directive past of supervision were taboo among the new breed of sophisticated supervisors. These experts in group processes frowned on such outmoded activities as classroom visitation, demonstration lessons, and construction of courses of study.4

The emphasis on group process was, perhaps, a natural evolution from the threatening teacher-evaluation procedures used in preceding years. An effort was made to democratize the de-personalization that came about as a result of the pseudo-scientific assessments that had been stressed earlier. The "process movement" also had its problems. Process became an end in itself, with the accompanying misunderstanding that all problems can be overcome by conversational solutions.5 In effect, the solution was, more often than not, left at the level of verbalization. This approach clearly did little to bridge the theory-practice gap.

Not unlike previous transitions, the process movement also failed; it was unable to maintain the task of updating academic disciplines, and, indeed, it lacked an
adequate theory base. Wilson and his associates made this observation:

Group processes now had a purpose but it was one which, as success was realized, produced a new kind of problem, that of inter-disciplinary competition and perpetual curriculum imbalance. The answer to this development was a renewed search for the common denominators of content (i.e. the structures of knowledge and the rebuilding of total curriculum designs around larger concepts and processes. The means of achieving this broadened perspective was comprehensive planning by the supervisor.6

Supervisory practice and supporting theory—to the degree that there has been any substantial theory base—can perhaps best be described as being "program centered." The effort of such individuals as Stephen M. Corey and his associates at the Horace Mann—Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation, Teachers College, is an example of this effort. It may be thought of as basically an "action-research" approach. Corey, himself, did much to further a wider concern with action-research.7

This approach became very widespread as a conceptualization both for curriculum development and for the necessary supervision to help implement this development. At least, it was widely discussed and found its way into many publications. An example at the national level was the ambitious
effort of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development to undertake what it called a "Cooperative Action Program for Curriculum Improvement." In 1957, this looked like a bold, new thrust which might, indeed, reshape supervision of instruction.

A 1969 survey, conducted by the Ohio School Supervisor's Association, clearly shows that, in Ohio, the bold thrust envisioned by individuals such as Corey and associations such as ASCD in the 1950's did not materialize. An analysis of the findings of this survey reveals that supervisors do not see their functions clearly. Their functions appear to be defined by a residue of everything that remained in the historical evolution of the field—efficiency, scientism, group process, program development—to cite only a few. In effect, their responses demonstrated the continued confusion in the field. Other state surveys reflect the same findings. In short, it is a warranted assertion that confusion regarding supervision exists at the national level.

Ben M. Harris, a contemporary critic of supervision, as it is, summarizes very effectively the state of the field and the need for new lines of inquiry:

One of the serious obstacles to professionalization of supervision is the confusion among
educators and lay citizens about their roles and responsibilities. Such confusion prevents effective pre-service preparation, makes selection and placement practices haphazard, places supervisors under a cross-fire of conflicting perception and expectations from other educators, and frustrates efforts at in-service development of supervisory competencies.  

A fellow critic and member of the significant ASCD Commission on the Professionalization of Supervisors, Maurice Eash, echoes Harris' views and goes further in suggesting something of the nature of the inquiry which is required to move the field ahead, a mode of inquiry which characterizes the study to be undertaken by this investigator:

Many other queries reflect the questioning of present practices and suggest the limited research data on which new programs can be based. In the absence of dependable research data, most work has proceeded on the basis of some logical analysis of the role that the professional should play in the society, and the way of incorporating new knowledge into the preparatory programs.  

Statement of the Problem

The problem under investigation in this study is the development of a conceptual structure to give direction to the selection of curricular content for a training program for supervisors of instruction.
Given the present state of the field of supervision, having neither adequate empirical research nor a sound integrated theory base upon which to project preparatory programs, a central task of this inquiry will be the development and validation of the conceptual structure, itself. The secondary task will be a projection of this structure, to illustrate certain aspects of its function as a guide in the selection of curricular content. In fulfilling this secondary task, it should be clear that the effort will be illustrative only rather than an attempt to plan a comprehensive curriculum. Such an effort is beyond the scope of this study. And, in any case, curriculum development, in the judgment of this investigator, requires the direct involvement of those who will participate in its implementation and requires, also, a careful analysis of data drawn from a specific institutional setting.

In pursuing this inquiry, answers will be sought to a number of questions related to the problem. A significant outcome of the undertaking, beyond the central thrust of the study, will be the light thrown on such questions as the following:

1. What is unique about supervisory behavior that distinguishes it from other realms
of educational leadership?

2. What are the major data sources to be used in guiding curriculum planning for the preparation of supervisors?

3. How can a conceptual structure be translated into curriculum development processes?

4. What possible "linkages" exist, or should exist, among certain of the curriculum components in a projected program?

5. What is the nature of the priorities to be given to various components of a program based on a specific conceptual structure?

6. What lines of inquiry are most promising as next steps in the further use and validation of the proposed conceptual structure?

It should be evident that the problem posed in this study and the related questions lend themselves not only to the seeking of substantive, and defensible, answers but also to what might be viewed as something of a case study, demonstrating how such a problem can be tackled and reporting the mode of inquiry used throughout.

Mode of Inquiry

The mode of inquiry to be used in this study is, perhaps, best known as the philosophical-logical approach to problem solving or to the generation of more adequate
theory. It is basically a theory-building set of operations. Clearly, to be adequate theory, the propositions advanced must be tested empirically, and one must be able to use them to predict and control. Since such testing lies beyond the scope of this study, the expression "developing a conceptual structure" has been used to describe more accurately the level of philosophical-logical operations sought as outcomes.

John Goodlad, more than anyone else, has explicated the meaning of "conceptual structure." For this reason, his rationale is explored rather fully at this point.

Goodlad defines a conceptual structure in the following terms:

By a conceptual structure, I mean a carefully engineered framework designed to identify and reveal relationships among complex, related, interacting phenomena; in effect, to reveal the whole where wholeness might not otherwise be thought to exist. Such a system consists of categories abstracted from the phenomena that the system is designed to describe and classify, categories which can be readily discussed and manipulated at consistent, clearly identifiable levels of generality and which can be developed from different perspectives.11

Having given this definition of conceptual structure, Goodlad then proceeds to explicate its relationship to
general theory:

A conceptual structure is more general than a theory, nurturing a variety of theories pertaining to parts of the system. Further, while giving rise to hypotheses (which are part and parcel of theories), it is neutral with respect to hypotheses. That is, a conceptual structure suggests realms for fruitful hypothesizing but does not itself mandate a specific hypothesis. Such a system is, then, more than a theory in scope but less than a theory in precision and prediction.12

And, finally, Goodlad identifies some of the functions which such a conceptual structure, or system, performs when it evolves out of a study of such a field as curriculum or, in the case of this investigation, the supervision of instruc-

(1) the identification of problems and questions basing relevance to planning any instructional program; (2) the classifi-
cation of the types of inquiry likely to be productive in dealing with these problems and questions (i.e., empirical-inductive or theoretical-deductive or some combination of the two); (3) the revelation of possible connections among these problems and questions; (4) the identification of promising data-sources for dealing with these problems and questions; and (5) the initiation of processes designed to re-
veal the relevance of these sources and of data extracted from them to the prob-
lems and questions classified by the system.13
From this rationale he uses to describe a methodology for research and theory-building in the field of curriculum and supervision, Goodlad develops his major point that such effort serves to bridge the gap between general theory and specific practice. Several observers of the current scene in education make the claim that priority must be given to these kinds of "bridging" operations if significant progress is to be made in the field of curriculum development and its implementation through the supervision of instruction.

There can be, of course, an almost endless disputation over the dividing lines between the different levels of theory and theory-building operations. In considering the methods proposed for this inquiry, one might well ask "where is the dividing line between a conceptual structure and a theory?"

The paradigm used by Daniel E. Griffiths\textsuperscript{14} to describe his own theory development efforts throws light on this matter and serves as a suitable paradigm for this investigation:
Figure (1): Griffiths' Paradigm for Theory Development

It might be altered for this study, inserting "conceptual structure" where Griffiths has placed "theory," inasmuch as this investigation precludes the field testing and empirical testing out of the other components of the paradigm.

Griffiths is careful to point out, and it is also the case in this study, that theory-making does not proceed in a regular, linear manner through the steps of the proposed paradigm. In effect, the scheme is useful only for visualizing the various phases, or levels, of the work of the investigator. It does not depict the philosophical-logical process of theory-building, itself.

Inasmuch as the methodology of this study involves procedures which have not been so extensively described as the more conventional empirical methods, certain
further dimensions of the general procedure require explana-
nation at this point. Additional light is thrown on the
approach by the explanation made by Talcott Parsons, the
sociologist, as he describes what some of his colleagues
refer to as a "hypothetico-deductive" method. Parsons
writes:

The subject of this volume is the exposition
and illustration of a conceptual scheme for the
analysis of social systems in terms of an
action frame of reference. It is intended
as a theoretical work. Its direct concern
will be neither with empirical generali-
ization as such nor with methodology, though
of course it will contain a considerable
amount of both. Naturally the value of the
conceptual scheme both have put forward is
ultimately to be tested in terms of its use-
fulness in empirical research. But this is
not an attempt to set forth a systematic
account of our empirical knowledge. The
focus is on a theoretical scheme. The
systematic treatment of its empirical uses
will have to be undertaken separately.16

Without the intention of being presumptuous, it is
asserted here that the method to be used parallels that
explicated by Parsons. His "conceptual scheme" is the
"conceptual structure" proposed by Goodlad and the use
this concept will have in the inquiry reported in this
writing. The fact that probably the most widely used
concept in educational research into leadership behavior
and the institutional setting—namely, the ideographic-nomothetic model adopted by Getzels from Parsons' conceptual scheme, is evidence of the potential value of this kind of theory-building.

The need for theory generation in sociology and cognate fields such as education and its sub-fields has been effectively documented more recently by Glaser and Strauss, in the field of sociology. In proposing strategies for what they term "qualitative research," they urge that investigators attempt to develop grounded theory.

In developing this thesis, they assert:

Since verification has primacy on the current sociological scene, the desire to generate theory often becomes secondary, if not totally lost, in specific researches. 17

In effect, these sociologists seem to be asserting that the interpretation of data must take place within a "conceptual structure" or a theoretical scheme. And, more importantly, in support of the approach to be used in this study, they urge that we recognize the need for many more individuals to engage in theory-generating activities that will spin off new conceptual structures.
Limitations of the Study

Research reports commonly have a section describing the limitations which are assumed to characterize the investigation. The limitations of this study can best be delineated by noting the methodological problems the investigator faced and the stance he took with respect to these in his inquiry. A discussion of three of the most crucial problems follows:

1. The problem of establishing boundaries around the domain to be investigated.

This continues to be a most complex and troublesome problem in the field of educational inquiry. Every observer of the current state of the field notes this problem. Typical, for example, is the treatment Beauchamp gives it. He simply charts out levels of theory and theory-building ranging from the highest level of three broad fields: the humanities, the natural sciences, and the social sciences to sub-categories at the lowest level which grow out of middle-range, or applied fields, at the middle level. 18

Beauchamp's rationale for this boundary-setting scheme is based on a formalized view of the nature of "pure" theory which grows out of his interpretation of
Herbert Feigl's view of scientific theory. Feigl reduces theory finally to a set of empirical laws which can be derived from purely logico-mathematical procedures.

As indicated earlier in this chapter, however, not all competent social and behavioral scientists take a philosophical base so constrained as that proposed by Feigl and, in turn, interpreted by Beauchamp in his applications to curriculum development and supervision as sub-fields within the field of education. For example, the thinking of Talcott Parsons, John Goodlad, Daniel Griffiths, and Glaser and Strauss has been cited—all of whom clearly take a different, less constrained, view of the nature of boundary setting in defining the domain for inquiry within a social science field.

A prototype for the handling of this problem in the investigation reported here is to be found in the work of the cultural anthropologist, Marvin Harris.

Harris asserts that cultural anthropologists define their field, their domain, their "part of the forest," as consisting of the major problems, questions and issues that a dozen or so of the most competent anthropologists are working on at any one time. In effect, he is saying
that no precise boundaries can be set down for the fields and their sub-fields, or domains, in the social sciences. Moreover, his position makes clear that how one defines the boundaries shifts in terms of (1) time and (2) who is involved in the inquiry. But, in his view, these characteristics of boundary setting do not invalidate inquiry so long as the investigators make clear the nature of the process they use to set the boundaries.

2. The problem of identifying what "belongs together" within the domain under investigation.

This problem arises out of the need to give attention in any conceptual structure to what Goodlad calls the "connections among the components" (see 13 above).

A prototype for handling this problem, or overcoming this possible limitation, is found in the research of C. Wright Mills. Mills was known for his imaginative breakthroughs in the area of sociological research methodology.

His own doctoral dissertation which focused on the relationship of sociology and pragmatism was philosophical in nature. And, in identifying how he established relationships and elements that clearly "belonged together" within a problem area of his investigation, he wrote as
follows in his effort to explicate what he included in and what he excluded from his analysis of the structure involved in Dewey's approach to logic:

They (the conceptions) have not all arisen within the context and needs of logic, but it is there that they have received a statement which links them and it is there that they have developed many of their continuing characteristics. Examination reveals "clusters" of concepts which we shall proceed to demonstrate are central. By a "cluster" we mean a set of terms which are surrogates of one another, each term being presented within a different contextual focus.21

Goodlad's description of what is involved in building an adequate conceptual structure is an extension of the position taken by C. Wright Mills in his research and theory development in the sociology of knowledge. Mills' method of finding clusters of concepts will be used in this investigation.

3. The problem of knowing whether or not the conceptual structure, or system, which emerges is valid.

This is the most complex problem to be faced in the doing of philosophical-logical inquiry. It is the question of warranted assertibility.

An individual's position with respect to this problem is based on his philosophical interpretation of the nature
of knowledge and ways of knowing. One can, for example, take the position of Feigl and hold out for what is essentially a symbolic logic or mathematical base for truth. Or, at another point on what might be seen as a continuum of possible philosophical positions, he might place himself more nearly in a category with Michael Polanyi.

It is beyond the scope of this writing at this point to detail fully the major aspects of Polanyi's position. Much has been written about his use of the "tacit dimension" and his reliance on "personal knowledge" as valid bases for a scientific knowledge base. Perhaps his remarks at the 1967 meetings of the American Psychological Association most aptly sum up those aspects of his thinking that have direct application for the problem under consideration here:

I believe that any attempt to eliminate non strict modes of inference— or even reduce them to insignificance— must be misleading. Such attempts have hampered philosophy and damaged our scientific methods . . . To sum up, I call 'logic' the rules for reaching valid conclusions from premises assumed to be true. Currently, logic seems to be defined instead as the rules for reaching strict conclusions from strict premises. I think we should reject this premise. 22
In the field of curriculum and supervision theorizing, a number of young theorists such as Mann, Huebner, Macdonald, and Pilder have addressed themselves to the problem of warranted assertibility using a philosophical base related more nearly to that of Polanyi than the conventional view represented by Feigl and Brodbeck, sources frequently cited as the base for inquiry in educational research. The inquiry undertaken here is based on the approach taken by those who move in the direction of Polanyi's thought.

**Design of the Study**

From the foregoing exposition of the nature of the inquiry to be carried forward in this study, it should be evident that no elaborate design that typically characterizes more empirically-oriented research is required. Rather, the major lines of this investigation will follow a logical procedure calculated to identify necessary data and to permit the investigator to relate these data in ways that will throw light on the problem under study. In the pursuit of this end, answers will be formulated to the questions posed at the outset as a part of the total undertaking.
However, the steps to be followed in what is here called a logical procedure are clear: (1) A review and analysis of supervision as a field of study; (2) An identification and description of the major dimensions of the domain: supervision of instruction; (3) An identification of the major data sources for (a) the making of decisions and (b) the selection of curricular content--both substantive and process--in terms of the domain identified in 2 above; (4) The explication of prototypical reconceptualizations of curricular content in terms of 3(b), above; (5) The generation of a conceptual structure to provide direction for training programs for supervisors; (6) The identification of prototypical training program components that derive from 5, above; and (7) Observations and generalizations of warranted assertibility about the investigation.

Organization of the Report

The outcomes of the procedures delineated above are reported in four additional chapters beyond this introductory one. Chapter II reports on the nature of supervision as a field of study; Chapter III is titled "Sources
From Other Fields to be Used in Reconceptualization of Content;" Chapter IV presents the conceptual structure, itself, and projects illustrative curricular components; Chapter V develops a prototypical program for the training of instructional supervisors.
CHAPTER II

SUPERVISION AS A FIELD OF STUDY:
A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter presents a review of some of the significant literature in the field, draws conclusions and suggests implications crucial to the development of a theoretical construct for instructional supervision.

In effect, the chapter delineates the nature of supervision as a field of study. The matrix outlining both the skill components and the basic "charges" of supervision serves both (1) as a taxonomy of the basic elements that characterize the field and (2) to identify the sources to be used in subsequent phases of the investigation as basic sources of data for curriculum planning. From these sources is derived the conceptual structure.

A Conventional Wisdom Emerges

The supervisory function has taken various forms since human beings made the first attempt to work together toward a common goal. Even contemporary writers in the
field of instructional supervision differ in their definition of supervisory behavior and processes.

Before 1967, Kimball Wiles focused primarily on interpersonal practices. Supervision was seen in terms of skills in human interaction, group processes, leadership, personal administration, and evaluation. Leadership refers to interpersonal skills utilized to achieve the purposes of the organization.¹

Jane Franseth defines supervision as "a leadership service that helps schools do their work better."²

Today supervision is generally seen as leadership that encourages a continuous involvement of all school personnel in a cooperative attempt to achieve the most effective school program. Good supervision is a helping kind of activity . . . . Good supervisors recognize the need for leading the school staff in continuous, cooperative study of research findings about human behavior, the learning process, the characteristics and needs of children, and the needs of society.³

Supervision, as Franseth interprets it, is involvement in an interpersonal way with teachers, cooperatively working with subject matter and its methodology as a primary focus.

Burton and Brueckner assert that "Supervision is an expert technical service primarily aimed at studying and
improving cooperatively all factors which affect child
growth and development."\(^4\)

As implied by the title, *Supervision: A Social Process*, Burton and Brueckner deal primarily with in-
structional supervision as interaction between and among
persons. They stress that education must strive to
become more successful in producing through social process
more effective human relationships, thus contributing to
the improvement of social institutions.

Emphasis is placed on the democratic process and
administrative organization as a social process developing
relationships among people within a group which will enable
that group to function at its best.

Ben Harris develops a framework for reviewing the role
of instructional supervision by systematically analyzing
and classifying the tasks, processes and skills that
comprise supervisory behavior. He applies an analysis of
supervisory behavior in terms of the task to be accomplished.

An array of task areas might be considered as
reasonably instruction-related: Certainly the
development of curriculum, the development of
media and materials, the provision of in-
service education opportunities, and the
evaluation of instruction are clearly of this type. Similarly, teaching, staffing, and organizing for instruction are tasks which are instruction-related. Other tasks which might have important instructional implications include the development of public relations, the orientation of new staff, the provision of special pupil services, and the development of facilities.5

According to Ben M. Harris, competencies directly related to supervisor behavior would include:

Planning and Designing

The supervisor has special competencies as a program planner. This is planning which is different from that required for program implementation. The requirements for planning, when new and unusual program elements must be put into designs for instruction, include special skills and abilities. Divergent thinking and conceptualizing abilities are important. The possession of flow-charting skills makes a difference. The ability to remain open to strange ideas and to identify common elements in rather diverse approaches is essential to this kind of planning. Of great significance is the ability to synthesize—to give new form to a plan using unfamiliar components or unique combinations of the familiar.

Observing and Analyzing

Competence of this kind is essential for supervisors whether evaluating instruction or working with in-service or curriculum development groups. The supervisor must be able to stimulate, influence, coordinate, and lead. This is possible only when the behavior of
people is systematically observed and usefully analyzed. The supervisor must be able to use a variety of classroom observation systems, be skilled in discerning the most relevant events transpiring, exercises self-control over the predisposition to judge, and dispel the "halo" effect in interpreting observed behavior. Supervisors should know the dynamics of group process and be able to employ both systematic and informal group process analysis procedures. Skill in recording and analyzing data on observed behavior is essential for the competent supervisor.

Face-to-Face Communicating

The supervisor is a communicator in a variety of ways, but face-to-face communication in the interview or small-group setting is most important. The supervisor must not only know about the variety of face-to-face arrangements which are useful, but he must also be skilled in making appropriate uses of them. This implies skill as a discussion leader, an interviewer, an organizer of buzz sessions and panels, a debater, a leader of brainstorming sessions, and other skills.

Idea Presenting

The supervisor must be able to present extremely complex ideas to other people in ways that stimulate thinking, clarify misunderstandings, and impart new knowledge. This requires knowledge of an array of presentational media and their relative value for various purposes. The supervisor must be skilled in expository and analytical writing, formal lecturing, and the use of visualizing techniques.
Searching and Abstracting

The supervisor must be able to conduct searches of appropriate sources and abstract the most relevant information for use in approaching instructional improvement problems. This requires that a supervisor be knowledgeable about a great variety of information sources. The supervisor must be skilled in efficient library utilization techniques. Most important is the ability to read rapidly, interpret research findings, and critically assess information for significance and relevance.\(^6\)

Harris refers to supervisory activities in two areas, the tractive and dynamic. Tractive, according to Harris, are those activities geared to continuity or maintaining "the existing level of instruction; to promote minor changes in the program, to enforce or support existing relationships, and to resist pressures for change from various sources."\(^7\)

Dynamic supervision consists of activities which are designed to bring about change in the program. This behavior emphasizes "discontinuity, and disruption of existing practices, and the substitution of others."\(^8\)

Harris concludes that there is no implication of desirability of dynamic supervision activity. The balance to be achieved between tractive and dynamic operations is
directly related to the values question.

According to Lucio and McNeil, "the main task of supervision has always been that of the school itself: furtherance of that knowledge by which human beings can comprehend if not control their world." They also state that supervisors of instruction have responsibility for exploring, surveying, and mapping new terrain in supervision. An environment of uncertainty exists in which interpretation is more useful than prescription for positive supervisory behavior.

Lucio and McNeil contend that instructional supervision requires "supervision." This can only come about through special preparation and insight. Supervision is seen as a synthesizing process drawing on reinforcement theory of learning, theories of personality, phenomenological views of individual behavior, legal and political institutions and beliefs, contemporary philosophy, theories of knowledge, theory of group dynamics, social anthropology and theories of change, role theory, theory of organizations, and theory of communications. The authors go beyond supervision as democratic human relations; it is
developed as action through reason and practical intelligence. Reason and practical intelligence result from the synthesizing process.

The purpose of modern supervision, according to Elsbree and McNally, is:

to supply the leadership which will help the staff to improve the instructional situation, and in doing that, to grow professionally themselves. Instead of showing or telling teachers how better to do their jobs, the supervisor or principal works with them in the study and analysis of the total teaching-learning situation in efforts to find out how to improve that situation.

Elsbree and McNally continue by stating that modern supervision is (1) "co-operative," (2) broader in its scope (It encompasses as many as possible of the conditions and influences which affect the learning and growing of the pupils.), (3) a "peer relationship" with the teaching staff, and (4) experimental in nature. Interpersonal relations emerge as a prime focus in Elsbree and McNally.

Mackenzie and Corey refer to supervision as helping another person with analysis and evaluation. They developed three criteria for effective leadership: (1) it must "meet the needs and preferences of group members;"
it must "utilize what is known about human motivation;"
(3) "the group leader elicits the maximum contribution of each member of the problem-solving group." Again, these authors focus on the interpersonal dimension of supervision; they refer to such leadership skills as self-analysis, stimulating interest, diagnosing problems, posing alternatives, improving group dynamics, and conducting action research.

John T. Lovell has defined instructional supervisory behavior as organizational behavior external to the teacher-pupil system but calculated to impact directly and purposefully on teacher behavior. The organizational behavior included is:

1. Goal development
2. Coordination and control
3. Motivation
4. Problem solving
5. Professional development
6. Evaluation

The conceptual scheme has proposed the following factors as important determinants of the distinctive features of instructional supervisory behavior as it functions in educational institutions:

1. The characteristics of human beings in the institution of public education
2. The nature of teaching and learning
3. The nature of the "social system" in the institutions of public education in which instructional supervisory behavior occurs
4. The organizational structure of institutions of public education.
Figure (2): Lovell's Supervisory Behavior: A Conceptual Framework
This analysis of the literature indicates that few advances in the generation of theory of instructional supervision have been made since World War II.

**New Dimensions of the Field**

In 1967, a significant shift toward communication theory was in evidence. Kimball Wiles, in a revision of *Supervision for Better Schools*, a widely used text, illustrates this significant shift. Two chapters, "Supervision is Communication" and "Application of Communication Theory to Supervisory Practices," directed attention to the role of communication theory in supervision.

In 1969, yet another dimension became apparent. L. Craig Wilson and his associates developed "Tripartite Power," a theory of institutional development and control.

Every culture has its institutions, formal and informal. Formal institutions, such as schools, churches, government, lodges, clubs, et cetera, were created, exist, and will continue to exist, to preserve and routinize some idealized solution to the one-time needs of individual members. . . . But the ideas of power and authority ought not to be confused. "A few" cannot operate an institution without the power of "the many," for authority cannot operate without consent. Institutional power is a composite of three interacting and closely related parts: **people**, **ideas**, and the **positions** people with ideas bestow upon certain leaders. 15
Separation between physical and psychological power prevents individual actions. When an individual solves a problem for himself, his actions are observed by others who have common problems. "His solution" may be attempted by others.  

Point of crisis: Individual action defines means. Public expectancy makes attempt at repetition.

One individual directs his total self toward a solution of a problem unencumbered by a defined position or public expectancy of a repeat performance.

Figure (3): Wilson, et al., Tripartite Theory
Tripartite Theory

Areas of social interest and commitment to prior act

Area of set (defined) and accepted ways

Area of redefinition

Person

Interest in means

Area of interest in ideas but decision to act is "cut-off" point in creativity

The encumbrance of institutionalized positions (defined expectancy) hampers individual creativity of position holders and directs institutional motion counter-clockwise (repetition). 17

Figure (4): Wilson, et al., Tripartite Theory: Encumbrance of Institutionalized Positions

This work is a significant attempt to develop an in-depth study of the basic theory of institutional change drawing primarily on sociology and political science.

When the instructional supervisor understands this change,
he can consciously manage and direct it. Understanding the dynamics of institutional renewal is a strategic concern to the supervisor.

Despite these recent promising efforts reflected in the later work of Wiles and that of Wilson and his associates, the literature clearly indicates that the field is still defined largely by extensive lists of specific functions to be performed by the instructional supervisor, functions matched with desirable traits. In effect, like the work in leadership studies, both the conventional wisdom of the field and its growing edges suffer from the restrictive constraints of "trait listing."

Recent Efforts to Order the Field

In a continued effort to order the field, Muriel Crosby made an analysis of the sixty articles published by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development from 1960-1968. Her study revealed:

1. There seemingly appears to be inadequate emphasis on the problems, concerns, and directions for supervision in an organization which claims to be the professional home of supervisors.
2. Few practitioners in the field of supervision publish; the majority of articles were written by college professors.

3. Directions described and predicted are presented with little regard for a research base.

Common threads that appeared in the articles:

1. Supervision of instruction is a team process which usually involves teacher, supervisor, and principal.

2. Supervisory behavior is a peer relationship with leadership shared among team members.

3. Supervision of instruction is seen as that of change agent, developing an environment that is supportive and frees the teacher to express creative attributes.

Crosby summarized by suggesting the supervisory leadership role during the 1960's to be:

1. Placing an emphasis upon the person in the process of becoming, with the supervisor in the role of change agent.

2. Understanding, appreciating, earning authority, loving, obtaining knowledge and wisdom, thinking, maintaining enthusiasm, possessing vision, freedom, feelings, positive self-concept, and interacting.
3. A lack of attention on professional know-how. Human and professional qualifications are not separate entities; professional skills are needed for effective human relations.

Pertinent questions that arise from Crosby's study:

1. There is a lack of common agreement on roles and functions of instructional supervisory behavior.

2. There is question about the role and functions of the instructional supervisor; however, he knows that the role is changing.

3. Experimental programs are judgmental and not empirical.

Crosby closes her article with:

... While the new supervisor must be in command of the day to day "nuts and bolts" of his new functions, he will be motivated by the larger goal of education in a democracy. He will see:

1. The supervisor as keeper of the dream, the American dream of human dignity and brotherhood.

2. The supervisor as catalyst of the American scene, perceiving change, weighing its implications for education, providing leadership in planning to meet it.

3. The supervisor, as realist, accepting the fact that, like the gnarled and twisted pines on the rugged,
windswept coast of Japan, the ability to bend with the wind means survival, while the mighty oak, rigid and inflexible, crashes to the earth, helpless against a force greater than itself.

The "new supervision" must never perceive itself as a "power play," for as Paul Fournier has written, "It is a catastrophe when evil triumphs, but it is an even greater catastrophe if it compels the just to resort to injustice in order to combat it. Unless the world returns to moral conscience, to the value of the spirit and to its primacy over force, power is only a source of destruction." 18

Clearly, a careful analysis is imperative to help in an examination of operations "on the job," and to develop more effective training programs for instructional supervision, training programs that honor new theoretical concepts.

Willard Olson's admonition serves as a good benchmark for this examination. "In planning school programs we must keep in mind that the learner is central, the organization is peripheral. Unless we keep this thought in mind, the energies we expend on the organization may miss the heart of the major endeavor." 19
In this value framework, the goal of the supervisory leadership team of an American school is to help the teacher, to have a primary and authentic commitment to the intellectual, emotional and physical development of children. In order to develop this commitment, the works of Combs, Rogers and Maslow suggest that the supervisor, himself, must be a person who is self-renewing and inquiring, utilizing new findings for studying and knowing children, their lives, and where they are in the world. Klopf contends that such a role means helping the teacher to be experimental in his consideration of approaches for attaining his goals for children, approaches rich in resources, challenges, and opportunities.

In light of the evidence, the supervisor needs to find ways to help the teacher ask questions about new or old methods of instruction. Will this learning experience produce what Maslow would classify a growth-fostering environment for the child or will it be growth-inhibiting? Does the learning environment encourage the child to become more open to the stimuli about him or does it cause the child to close, to build a psychological screen
around himself? Does the experience help to fulfill the needs of children?

These more recent efforts to bring order out of the field quite clearly illustrate the inadequacy of the "traits" approach to a definition of the parameters of the field. Moreover, a growing body of younger critics point to even greater limitations of the conventional wisdom as a base. Paul Goodman and Edgar Friedenberg, for example, contend that schools are too bureaucratized, that "the establishment" is insensitive to the needs of the individual. The student must "fit" the instruction rather than seeing that the schools provide experiences that fulfill individual needs. It is postulated that a major cause of alienation is the incompatibility between people and the out-moded institutional patterns which students are forced to accept.

Alienation is, therefore, manifest in many forms: dropouts, psychological dropouts, restlessness, student rebellion, and other forms of disassociation or isolation from society.

Contemporary critics such as Paul Goodman and Edgar Friedenberg reinforce the investigator's point of view that
schools may be thought to be incapable because of the lack of internal apparatus to bring about self-renewal. In order to respond to the new conditions and make use of new resources that exist in our contemporary setting, a reorganization of schools and change in behavior of school personnel seems necessary. This criticism implies the need for: (1) an internal apparatus to maintain that which is good in an organization, and (2) appropriate mechanisms to bring about renewal where change is needed.

Perhaps more than any other person, Alexander Frazier develops this point of view—namely, that instructional supervision behavior includes: (1) the maintenance of teaching competence, (2) the maintenance of the instructional program, (3) the renewal of teaching competence, and (4) the renewal of the instructional program.22

Figure (5): Frazier's Charge for Instructional Supervision
Frazier's maintenance and renewal relates to Harris' "tractive," geared to maintaining the existing level of instruction, enforcing or supporting relationships and "dynamics," to bring about change in the program.

Despite these recent reconceptualizations of the roles and functions of supervision, there are critics who raise serious questions about the value of supervision. According to Macdonald, research tells almost nothing about how to implement the aims of helping, guiding, and giving direction to teachers. In fact, Macdonald relates, "We are left with still unanswered questions of whether supervision has any value at all."23

To support Macdonald's contention, there is little evidence that supervisory efforts change teacher behavior. For example, Flanders24 found that the change was minimal and that procedures for bringing about change were not the usual types of supervisory behavior. Maintenance and renewal of teacher competencies and the instructional program infers change
in teacher behavior. Research of Flanders\textsuperscript{25}, Bowers, and Soar\textsuperscript{26} indicate that there has been a malfunction of the supervisory function.

Guba's model\textsuperscript{27} for internal administration of organizations provides a fresh view of supervisory operations when one accepts the preceding evidence. For the purpose of this study, the investigator substitutes "instructional supervisory personnel" for that of "administrator" in order to clarify power and authority dimensions of supervision of instruction.

![Diagram: Guba's Model: Internal Administration of Organizations](image)

Figure (6): Guba's Model: Internal Administration of Organizations
In this model, power becomes the actuating force of the supervisory behavior in the organization. It has two major dimensions: (1) that which has to do with the role or office, and (2) that which resides in the achieved prestige of the person. Power of the role dimension resides in status and legal authority. Authority depends entirely upon some social recognition of power and derives not from any individual who may seek to invoke it, but from the willingness of others to accept it.

Power is a real force; authority is an attribution. Power cannot be conferred by office; it must be earned. Clearly, power is most often referred to as influence or impact as a leader.

Individuals in supervisory positions that have little influence often find it necessary to invoke status and authority frequently. Those instructional leaders who have a great deal of influence seldom resort to such formal expressions of power. A supervisor may be given the authority and yet lack the power to do what is expected of him.

To be sure, no supervisor can rid himself of the fact that he occupies a formal office and that the office itself represents power. If a supervisor were successful in ignoring
status and authority, he would find himself half-powerful. But for the supervisor to ignore prestige and influence also makes him half-powerful.\textsuperscript{28}

Power is human energy directed toward an objective; in an institution, individual power may be exercised as control over members with or without authority. Authority depends entirely upon recognition from the social group. Power may be exercised in harmony or in conflict with the authority.

Guba's point of view relates directly to the position taken by Wilson, \textit{et al.}, namely, an individual must gain recognition (idiographic dimension) in order to bestow his ideas and lead a group. Guba's model also makes clear that goal development on the part of the supervisor is crucial. Goals and values constitute the integrating forces in the organization. Imposing goals on members of an organization often is met by resistance.

\ldots Goals need to be explicated and rationalized. Such activity on the part of the administrator would appear to be a major motivating activity in the organization.\textsuperscript{29}

The congruence between Guba's efforts and those of Wilson, working more directly in the field of supervision, suggests the strong influence sociology has had more recently
in defining the parameters of the field of supervision and in making order out of it. An explication of this sociological influence is best undertaken by an examination of what it means in terms of the roles individuals must assume in the social setting of a school.

Society is composed of interrelated roles which form the basis for social systems. It should be recognized that the behavior of organization members is influenced both by personal needs and organizational expectations. Each person brings to the organization his own background, his own perceptions, and his own personal characteristics. Campbell states, "When both institutional expectations and individual need-dispositions are seen as important, employment practices in an organization take on a different flavor." 30

Goals and values constitute the integrating forces in an organization. Often, individuals involved in supervision of instruction take too much for granted—they assume that members of the institution share the same goals and purposes. Goals need to be clarified.

Another area of concern in instructional supervisory behavior is role description. Role conflict for super-
visory personnel is readily apparent as one studies supervision of instruction. Parsons indicates that a series of overlapping, subordinate, and superordinate relationships exist among the sub-systems in any social system. An examination of supervisory behavior makes obvious the fact that many functions cross social sub-system role descriptions. Figure 7 illustrates these cross-functions.

Figure (7): Overlapping Roles
In Figure 7, one sees an overlapping of administration and supervision, supervision and teaching, administration and teaching and administration, supervision and teaching. When looking at supervisory behavior and asked to place teacher evaluation behavior in one of the seven areas, one might logically argue that it "fits" in category one due to the fact that all three roles are involved in teacher evaluation. Unless role definition and an understanding of role responsibility and shared responsibility are clarified, conflict for supervisors and others occupying positions in the system will arise.

This clearly suggests that those involved in supervisory behavior, to be effective, must, therefore, understand organization and role theory if they are vigorously to maintain and renew teaching competence and the instructional program. Change in any of these overlapping roles has a great impact on the others. Teaching, as an example, can no longer be perceived as a subservient or pseudo-professional function. Teachers are fighting to share in decision-making, goal-development, and greater professional recognition. They are better educated in the
liberal arts and more competent in the subject-content areas; more time is devoted to their profession. This is documented by looking at the reduction of uncertified teachers now being employed in the public schools. As one observes the contemporary scene, it is apparent that teachers are organizing to resist assignments that call for less than professional employees. They are requesting involvement in decision-making in curriculum planning and policy development. As a result, a new supervisory role is emerging. Foster presents the thesis that remedial assistance and administrative control are no longer adequate justifications for the supervisory function. Teachers are asking for an increase in professional responsibility and decision-making functions; they are asking to become participants in supervision rather than merely the object of it.

With the new role of the teacher, supervisory challenges can no longer be met with old roles. The concept of supervision as classroom inspection must be abandoned.

Wilson, Byar, Shapiro, and Schell describe the follow-
ing as the new emergent supervisory strategy:

1. Concern for the removal of structural impediments to effective teacher-planning such as rigid schedules, restricted role definitions, limited interaction opportunities, divorce-ment from decision-making, restricted common free-time for team planning, substandard clerical and technical support, and absence of budgeted venture capital.

2. Attention to the clarification and/or re-establishment of institutional and teacher-group purposes.

3. Facilitation of decision-making of the type which produces tangible school improvement projects, and through their success, continuing institutional progress.\(^{35}\)

Wilson, et al.,\(^{36}\) suggests that supervisory behavior emerges toward involving the lower level of authority in the philosophical and theoretical, as well as the operational, planning stage.

Bishop\(^{37}\) contends that much of the contemporary teacher militancy and unrest stems from the bureaucratic authority structure. Dissatisfaction is voiced in terms of demands for an increased share of decision-making. A permanent on-going curriculum-design study must be instituted—not just spasmodic ceremonial involvement.

The wide variety of curricular areas that could conceivably be negotiated constitutes
a powerful two-edged sword. It is admittedly
heady stuff to suggest that anything can be
negotiated or at least be subject to negoti­
ation process . . . .

Is not a criterion necessary to determine
what shall and shall not be negotiated;
or better, what curriculum categories, if
any, lend themselves most appropriately
to negotiation and which are better handled
by other processes? 38

Items of curriculum are becoming negotiable items
at bargaining confrontations as exemplified in New York
City in the 1969 American Federation of Teachers strike.
Does meaningful curriculum evolve best through a bargain­
ing confrontation or through intelligent planned study?

Young states that, "Down through the years educators
have advocated the development of curriculum through team­
work and a co-professional approach. This position is
now in jeopardy. The climate of labor-management bargaining
not only has had a negative impact on working relation­
ships among professional staff members, but also has had
a negative impact on the instructional program and
curriculum development activities." 39

Many of the negotiations have dealt with items such as:
selection of textbooks and instructional materials,
Teaching assignments, pupil-teacher ratios, class sizes,
length of school day, length of school year, number of teaching periods, restrictions on classroom visitations, transfer policies, and released time. These items have a definite impact on the total school program.

Education can ill-afford division, Young continues. A vehicle for making significant breakthroughs in education by providing opportunities for a co-professional approach toward the achievement of common goals in a rational and responsible manner is needed.

Sanders and Lovell also strongly assert that the education profession should initiate action immediately for greater involvement of teachers.

It is our contention that the education profession should initiate action immediately to change the legal structure within which schools now operate so as to permit the legitimatized involvement of teachers.\(^{40}\)

They maintain that it would generate greater efficiency in goal attainment, better policies, higher levels of teacher satisfaction, and less confrontation, unrest, and militancy.

Action for involvement of teachers will necessitate budgetary funds and freed time for teams of teachers and
curriculum workers. Neville contends that expenditures of energy and resources are required and "patently justified." Supervision should work toward the freeing and facilitation of individual effort, and developing cooperative planning.

Basic Generalizations

The foregoing analysis of the state of the field of supervision has generated four basic generalizations regarding the overall role of the supervisor. These are:

1. A supervisor is needed who makes a difference; one who acts effectively in maintaining and renewing teacher competence and the instructional program; one who can release the power of teachers in the advancement of the instructional program.

2. To make a difference, a supervisor cannot rely on position, but must gain power through the prestige he has gained by giving evidence of expertise in his field.

3. A supervisor is needed who understands his role in a rapidly changing world of education.

4. To effectively operate in a world where its societies and institutions are in constant flux, the supervisor must be continually self-renewing. He must be open, integrative, and responsive to the stimuli about him.
From these basic generalizations, the investigation posits seven skills or competencies. These skills derive from what is essentially a "content analysis" of both the conventional wisdom of the field of supervision and an examination of the new dimensions of the field. In effect, they are supported by the theory and research which characterizes the field. These are:

1. Planning and Designing - The instructional supervisor is involved in many activities which utilize planning and designing skills; determining what is to be taught, when, where and how. Working with a group or with an individual, the instructional supervisor works toward developing goals, policies, and programs. Although there are common overall general education objectives, different subject matter disciplines, grade levels, departments, schools and individual teachers may tend to go in separate directions. Special competence and knowledge about educational research, or the ability to design and systematically study specific problems or interest areas, and yet maintain relationship to the total program, is greatly needed.

2. Evaluating - In the process of maintaining and renewing teacher competence and the instructional program, a continuing process of evaluation is brought into play. What are we trying to accomplish?
How is it to be done? What information is needed to identify the present state of affairs? What evaluation tools will be necessary to gain the information needed to determine the present state of affairs? Certainly, the instructional supervisor must have the ability to recognize, and to help others recognize, instructional problems.

3. Observing and Analyzing - The instructional supervisor should possess observation skills; he should be open and sensitive to the educational setting. Skills necessary for careful analysis of methodologies, instructional materials and measuring devices should be in the instructional supervisor's repertory.

4. Searching and Abstracting - Research skill in searching and the skill to abstract information that will be helpful in the solution of specific problems or areas of interest are necessary for effective instructional supervisory behavior.

5. Synthesizing and Assimilating - Attempting to come to grips with problems of children in a rapidly changing world, the school is continually combining new methodologies and instructional materials and incorporating them into the present educational system. This suggests a need for synthesizing and assimilating skills for the instructional supervisor who is charged with responsibility in the renewal of the instructional program and for the renewal of the teacher competence.
6. **Communicating** - Communications is clearly associated with instructional supervision behavior. Skill in speaking, writing, listening, reading, questioning, and discussion-leading may be skills of primary importance.

7. **Facilitating and Coordinating** - Process skills such as group dynamics, an understanding of organization, and human relations aid in accomplishing the tasks of instructional supervision.

Although this delineation of seven skills on competencies is not exhaustive of all such skills, the claim is made here that the most basic of skills tend to cluster around these categories. Empirical research will be required to verify further this analysis and to modify it with new data from practical applications and testing.

**Parameters of the Field**

From the foregoing analysis of the skills and competencies, and from the four-fold delineation of major functions proposed by Frazier, the investigator proposes the following matrix which describes the parameters of the field:
**SKILLS**

- Planning and Designing
- Evaluating
- Observing and Analyzing
- Searching and Abstracting
- Synthesizing and Assimilating
- Communicating
- Facilitating and Coordinating

---

**Figure (8): Parameters of Instructional Supervision**
Having developed this matrix which identifies the parameters of the field, one is now able to: (1) examine the sources required to identify appropriate operations in each of the cells, and (2) project possible curriculum and/or learning experiences based on these sources and design to bring about required learning outcomes in a supervisory training program. For example, the shaded area from the upper righthand corner of Figure 8 illustrates the scheme for the skill area "planning and designing" and the charge for the "renewal of teaching competence." This cell suggests those activities that work toward the renewal of teaching competence which depend upon planning and designing skills. Experience suggests that a strategy must be established when dealing with the renewal of teacher competencies. What areas of involvement will be utilized in dealing with the area of concern? What decision-making processes will be utilized? Ben Harris\textsuperscript{42} feels that abilities to be exhibited in planning and designing include divergent thinking, conceptualizing abilities, and openness.

Many skills are necessary in bringing about the re-
newal of teaching competence. This example is utilized only to help in clarifying the relationship of charges and skills. As the supervisor of instruction works toward the renewal of teaching competence, understandings or skills in planning, organizing and designing are dependent on his ability to evaluate areas of need for renewal through the use of techniques of observing and analyzing. Skills in searching and abstracting contribute in providing more adequate alternatives in problem-solving. Synthesizing and assimilating techniques might well bring about a smoother acceptance into the total educational program.

Communicating is a prime skill component in the success of any instructional supervisor in his efforts to renew teaching competence. Facilitating and coordinating demand imagination and an understanding of human relations.

There is ample evidence that educators have lacked either the understanding or skills necessary for instructional supervision that improves teaching competence and the instructional program. This is no easy task. If the instructional supervisor is to release human potential for
the improvement of the educational system, his skills must grow out of curricular experiences derived from the substance of cognate fields as this substance is brought to bear on the development of competencies in the areas unique to the supervision of instruction.

The matrix provided here serves as something of a "map" in this larger undertaking. Chapter III, which follows, explores more fully the resources from other fields.
CHAPTER III

SOURCES FOR THE RECONCEPTUALIZATION OF CONTENT

With the matrix developed in the previous chapter as a map of the parameters of the field, the phase of the investigation reported in this chapter centers on (1) an identification of the sources to be used in the reconceptualization of content for the training of supervisors and (2) an explication of illustrative content from these sources. To place this effort in a realistic setting, a brief overview of the school functioning as a social system in its contemporary setting is provided at the outset.

The School as a Social System

The school may be seen as a functioning system that has inputs, components of process, and outputs. The school inputs include students, teachers, supportive instructional personnel, administrators, goals, financial resources, information, etc. The components of process would include learning, teaching, administering and counseling. Educated human beings, human beings more sensitive and knowledgeable
about man and his reciprocal relationship with his environ-
ment, is hopefully the output. The teacher and the learner
are central to this system. These central figures give
reason for all other school personnel; supervisory behavior
exists only because of the complexity and volume of inputs
into the educational system.

Population explosion, a mobile population, a shift
from rural to an urban society, industrialization, a con-
tinuous outburst in the growth of knowledge and technology,
a diverse group of pupils from a pluralistic society com-
 pound the problems of the teacher. There is a desperate
struggle in the schools to attempt to meet societal change.
Evidence indicates direction toward differentiated staffing
and more specialized roles for personnel in the American
schools. Increasingly differentiated roles result from the
development of new curricular designs and new insights in
the teaching-learning process.

As one looks at the input of human resources, an
examination of some of the different roles in curriculum
decision-making is in order. Administrators, often refer-
red to as the "gatekeepers of change" and as the "instruc-
tional leaders," are increasingly confronted with problems
of school finance, negotiations, staffing a complex organi-
zational system, public relations, pupil personnel problems, and many other items of concern. Unfortunately, the expanding problems of the administrator curtail the amount of time that administrators can spend in the area of instructional leadership. Basically, the investigator feels that the teaching staff is the professional and that the responsibility for choosing the best course of action in education lies with the classroom teacher.

This clearly suggests that the new supervisory role focuses on the task of coordinating the many facets of a school program. Observers of the contemporary educational dilemma point out the problems of the separate growth of elementary schools, intermediate or junior high schools, senior high schools and subject matter disciplines. Phenix\(^1\) and Foshay\(^2\) suggest that people in schools should understand two kinds of relationships: (1) between disciplined knowledge and the tasks of teaching and learning, and (2) that between the fields of knowledge within the whole curriculum.

Major change conditions of contemporary life are unprecedented and many educators do not know how to cope with them. Confused, people hold to the status quo; they inevitably try to stave off anxiety by adhering to old methods of education. In order for teachers to make wise curriculum
decisions and to improve professionally, evidence suggests that there is a need for instructional supervision behavior that bases its action on a synthesis of learning theory, organization theory, child growth and development, communications theory, among others.

Goals pluralistic in nature or poorly defined tend to be a problem in the total system. There are those that adhere to the Deweyan hope that the schools could be a community somewhat better than society and serve as a lever for social change, a theory of continual scientific experiment, and orderly, non-violent social revolution to the opposite end of the continuum where schooling becomes a social engineering for extrinsic goals such as college entrance, vocational skill, or fulfilling governmental needs. (Exemplified by NDEA and the emphasis on science.)

Pluralistic societal values, customs, ideas, and the contemporary setting further complicate the input of the system, "school."

Billboards, roadsides cluttered with junk, the sprawling pandemonium of suburbia, cities with eroding buildings and garish signs, monstrous utility poles supporting a web of utility lines, polluted skies, pungent odors, debris of industry,
a society of compulsive consumers; this is the enigma of "America, the Beautiful." Society is caught in a rapid fluctuation, tension, and anxiety. Knowledge explosion and scientific technology flood our environment; urbanization is almost total, independent farming is nearing extinction, which creates great social stress. Civil disobedience, riots, rising crime rates emphasize our societal disease. Rising bureaucratic structures stifle individual initiative; a political system that often becomes obsessed with stability instead of social justice is evident. Polarization of the Black and White, rich and poor, intellectual against non-intellectual of this nation sets the scene for violence.

Yet, with all these perplexing problems, the earth becomes smaller and smaller as man's horizon becomes greatly enlarged as he searches for understanding of the earth and the universe. This brings about new goals and philosophies for man, which in turn change the potentials of man.

The preceding evidence helps to depict some of the tremendous overload of input. However, the problem does not lie in this area alone. Processes of valuing, teaching, learning, and administering also have inherent prob-
lems. It is difficult to deal adequately with process when direction (goals and objectives) has not been clearly established. When goals and priorities are established in the input of the system, what means will best insure these goals? To improve the quality of instruction, process must play a central role. It is the process or the series of actions which leads to the output. A change in any part of the system has an impact on the other components. With the rapid growth of knowledge and changing societal values emerges new processes in education. The goal, however, determines, to a great degree, the processes. For example, if a system places priority on "adapting to" society versus being a "society maker," the processes are different.

Placing priority on the number going to college stresses processes that tend toward lecturing, memorizing, "covering the material," and "grade-getting."

Beginning efforts are being made to describe the "process orientation" required to understand the school in its contemporary social setting and the emerging roles of educators in such a setting. Berman's work perhaps best exemplifies this effort. She identifies four basic dimensions of the process-oriented individual.
1. Spacial transcendence—The individual learns to see similarities as well as differences in others. Individuals must learn to assume responsibility for the improvement rather than the deterioration of the spaces in which they find themselves. (This applies to the way we relate with our fellow man, as well as man's reciprocal relationship with nature.)

2. Intentional temporality—Time should be used intentionally, not haphazardly; schools should help bring an awareness to the meaning and significance of time. Piaget says that psychological time is the time of work accomplished in relation to the speed of the activity in progress or motor activity. If time is important, it is the justification for life that becomes the ideal we must defend, and not simply the enjoyment of it. If individuals are to consider time in their thinking and planning, then a balance needs to be found between two important elements: activity and meditation. Activity permits the intake, analysis, and evaluation of experiences and ideas. Meditation permits the synthesizing and establishing of priorities among competing ideas and forces. It enables man to be honest with himself and to develop the inner resources necessary for the tasks persons must accomplish in today's world.

3. Integrity of Selfhood—The individual must garner the courage and resources to live comfortably within his own skin. If the individual is to be able to develop in a manner peculiar to himself, he must have freedom to do so. The more restraints, impositions, and limitations,
the greater the possibility that the person will either have to search for ways to break out of the wall that has been built around him or devise ways of adapting and conforming rather than exercising initiative and responsibility. Growth of selfhood demands that constraining forces and controls be established within a society, for man's interdependence demands such protection. It is essential, however, to keep restraints at the level where individual creativity and integrity are fostered, and lifeless conformity or active rebellion is deterred. The critical norm is the right to responsible individuality.

4. Thinking-feeling Cohesion—The thinking-feeling cohesion qualities cause man to re-examine, internalize, and remodel the ideas of others until they have meaning for him.

Berman's priorities determine a different set of processes: perceiving, communicating, loving, decision-making, knowing, organizing, creating, and valuing become all important.

The system, "school," is completed by output and feedback. Figure 9 diagrammatically shows the relationship of input, process, output, and feedback. It will, therefore, serve as a backdrop against which the continued investigation of sources of content will be explored and the content, itself, reconceptualized.
THE SCHOOL AS A SYSTEM

Service Personnel
(Guidance, School Psychology, Supervision, etc.)
Administrators
Students
Goals
Finances
Teachers
Information
Societal Values
Etc.

Process
(Learning Environment)

The School with
Learning
Teaching
Administering
Valuing
Etc.

Input

Output

Feedback

Educated responsible free citizens

Figure (9): The School As A System
The Philosophical Perspective

Using the matrix developed in Chapter II, which identifies the parameters of the field of supervision, and assuming the social setting of the school as a social system with new process-oriented roles for all participants, this investigation is now ready to examine the philosophical perspective as one of the three major sources for the reconceptualization of more relevant content for the preparation of supervisors of instruction.

Every aspect of the analysis thus far clearly indicates the basic role philosophy and, in turn, philosophy of education has as a data source. From the early Greek philosophers like Plato through Dewey, and contemporary philosophers, runs a line of inquiry which delves into the important ventures of education. The supervisor is obligated to analyze and to evaluate his fundamental commitments guiding his day-to-day actions. Philosophy defined is the study of man to give meaning and purpose to human life through the development of answers to basic problems. The philosophical position one takes has great implication for the behavior actions manifested as a result of the point of view one holds.
To point out the variance in only a few philosophical positions, idealism contends that the nature of the universe is an idea in the mind of some supernatural being. Truth exists separate and apart from the individual or the society in which he lives. The truth must be discovered and thereafter considered to be absolute.

If one takes the idealist position, the purpose of education becomes the transmission of the cultural heritage which reflects the truth as it has been seen through the ages.

Education is the external process of superior adjustment of the physically and mentally developed, free, conscious, human being to God, as manifested in the intellectual, emotional, and volitional environment of man.

Realism is the philosophical position which acknowledges the existence of the real world. To the realist, the real world is the physical world. Natural laws come from observations of the "real world" and are thought to be separate and apart from the mind of the observer. The educator who bases his philosophical beliefs upon realism builds curriculum to induct the learner into the culture. His goal is to help the learner understand and adjust to
the natural order of things over which he has little or no control. Experiences are developed to provide the learner with opportunities to make proper choices for the "good life." The "good life" as defined by the realist would be that which is in harmony with the universe. The school, therefore, is the agency which transmits habits or tendencies to acquire, use, and enjoy truth.

Essentialism⁶ is not far removed from Idealists and Realists in that it is also a proponent of eternal truths. To essentialists, education is for intellectual training pure and simple. The essentialist favors special programs for the gifted, criticizing "basket weaving" and "fads and frills" courses. Essentialism had a great resurgence following Sputnik. Those who choose this philosophy state that American schools are neglecting their great national heritage; they are not teaching "American values."

Pragmatism⁷ is the philosophical viewpoint which sees reality in a state of constant change. Science becomes the major source for answers to man's problems. From this philosophical perspective, education is much more process-oriented. Education is the process of experiencing on the part of the learner. No longer is education a preparation
for life; it is considered to be an integral part of life. Identifying problems, seeking solutions, and arranging the environment to provide experiences for learners becomes the central theme.

Existentialist philosophers hold that all behavior, overt and covert, is a matter of free choice and that this choice carries with it the responsibility for the consequences from choice. Blame cannot be credited to anyone but one's self. Contemporary man is to look for himself; he is to refuse to be forced into a role as though he was on the stage of a puppet theater. Freedom is the unique quality that constitutes man as a human being. There is no essence—no truth, no structure in reality, no God nor any morality—except as man, in affirming his freedom, makes these truths.

The implications for education suggest that attention be given to individual needs. Only the individual knows what these are. Pupils, according to the existentialist view, should be taught to choose, should be given choices, and should be responsible for the consequences of choice.

Schools should not push children around, giving them no choices. The pupil's life should not be absolutely
determined by educators. Children should have opportunities to confront themselves, to develop as self-reliant individuals.

Only when educators confront philosophical assumptions openly can communications basic to effective decision-making in education exist. And, clearly, one does not have to join one "school" of philosophy or another. Several attempts have been made, for example, to bring together the value concerns of idealism, the instrumentalism of pragmatism and the immediacy of existentialism. The work of Ryland W. Crary stands as an illustration of this kind of effort. Crary, for example, speaks of "pragmatic existentialism" and proceeds to draw from his creative synthesis some new visions to be "checked out" in empirical operations in the schools, themselves.

The Psychological Perspective

As was true with philosophy, every effort to rationally improve operations related to such improvement, draw heavily on psychological foundations. New content, therefore, for supervisory training must recognize psychology as a source of its reconceptualization.
Perhaps foremost among contemporary efforts in psychology which lend themselves to this end is the work of Combs, Maslow, and Rogers, known as phenomenologists. They assert, among other things, that one acts as he perceives himself.

The truth is made as each man perceives it - it is manufactured in his brain; man creates his own truth, the world comes back as he sees it. Who presumes to own the truth? Human reality identifies and defines itself by the ends which it pursues. The self consists, in part at least, of the accumulated experiential background, or backlog, built, since his life began, through unique experience and unique purpose, on the individual's unique biological structure. The self is therefore unique to the individual.

Implications for action might suggest that the supervisor make every effort to provide opportunities for others to express their beliefs and try to understand how the teacher perceives reality. To be a "growing self" one must feel that he is involved, that he is really a part of what is going on; to some degree he is helping to shape his destiny, together with the destiny of all. Those involved in instructional supervision must also work toward openness and honesty.

Open people are free to devote their energies to what is positive and constructive. They can and do set more realistic goals for themselves. Their levels of aspiration are more likely to achieve their goals because those goals are more realistic.
A paraphrasing of the opening comments in Chapter I, "What Can Man Become?" from Perceiving Behaving Becoming, illustrates the phenomenologist's stance:

Whatever we do in supervision of behavior depends upon what we think people are like. The goals we seek, the things we do, the judgment we make, even the experiments we are willing to try, are determined by our beliefs about nature of man and his capacities. Supervisors who believe teachers "can," will work with them in creative ways. Supervisors who believe teachers are unable, give up trying or spend their days on a treadmill, hopelessly making motions they never expect will matter. The beliefs we hold about people can serve as prison walls limiting us at every turn. They can also set us free from our shackles to confront great new possibilities never before dreamed of. No beliefs will be more important to education than those we hold about the nature of man and the limits of his potentials.13

Perceiving teachers as creative, responsible decision-makers has great implications for defining supervision of instruction behavior. If one believes in the research of the phenomenologist, the supervisor of instruction should work with the teacher to help him see types of behavior which he induces and provide opportunities to broaden the
range of possible behaviors in order to develop more effectiveness as a teacher interacting with pupils. The supervisor works with the teacher to develop greater awareness of the contribution of his behavior to pupil behavior.

The supervisor might wisely consider:

a. Bringing about an encounter with the teacher which will shake his perceptions to the degree that he will discard some of his established perceptual defenses related to his teaching role and help the teacher "open up;" to be less defensive; to perceive in a more positive manner.

b. Encouraging dialogue between supervisor and teacher which causes each teacher to become more committed to educating youth.

c. Working toward enlarging the teacher's perception of his own potentials, to provide an environment that encourages
the teacher to focus on behavior and behavioral change.

Because each teacher is unique, he has talents and skills that he can do better than other things. These special abilities should be encouraged and extensions of these skills should be nourished.

d. Developing an atmosphere of cooperativeness seems a most logical notion if we accept the belief of uniqueness, of special talents and skills. Educators need to cooperate, "to pool their talents" for the common good of educational experiences for the young.

e. Freeing the teacher to develop his own unique personal style. Earl C. Kelley states, "Freedom is the cutting edge of creativity."¹⁴

Purpose, paths of energy, have no meaning in the absence of freedom. Or, as Plato is alleged to have said, "A slave is one who gets his purpose from someone else."¹⁵
Knowledge acquisition, transmission of cultural heritage, and development of technical skills have been seen as the major import of education by society in general. Professional educators have shown concern about learning theory and have conceptualized different approaches with titles such as inquiry method, self-directed discovery learning, SQ3R, and the like. The psychological perspective takes one into such sources of content.

Educator Jack Frymier depicts the learning experience to be the combination of stimuli, receiving stimuli, and perceiving. Stimuli are the ideas, facts, generalizations, books, suggestions, pictures, lectures, maps, graphs, and other facilities which make up the "subject matter to be learned."

Receiving the stimuli is the second step; availability of the stimuli is not enough. The central nervous system of the student must receive the stimuli. "The only way in which stimuli which are 'outside' of the student can get 'inside' is via his senses. These senses are the gateway to the mind." 16

The third step, perceiving, means that the organism gives meaning to a stimulus which it receives. After the
stimulus has struck a nerve ending, modality can occur.\footnote{17}

Perception is a union of past and present; attributing meaning to a stimulus involves drawing upon reservoirs of previous experience.\footnote{18}

Accumulations of perceptions are grouped in clusters within the individual's mind. These groups of perceptions occur around patterns of meaning, and as he adds to this experiential store larger clusters develop which result in greater insights. As Frymier observes:

Somehow the stimuli are given meaning and stored in the central nervous system for future use, but many factors affect the perceptual process.

\ldots The central nervous system has a way of selecting from the multitude of stimuli available to those which will be most likely to maintain and enhance the psychological self.

\ldots It is this selective nature of the life process which is so important for teachers to understand, because learning follows the same general pattern.

\ldots A negative self-concept may serve to keep the psychological organism from receiving stimuli which might help the individual develop a different more positive concept of himself which would facilitate learning.

Since threat, values, self-concept, and need are all factors amenable to some variation and control, such information provides clues for teaching methods.\footnote{19}
Research in "learning how to learn" was given impetus by Gestalt psychology. Hilda Taba developed an educational rationale for learning by discovery and receptive learning. Her work was preceded by Kohler, Wertheimer, and McConnell, among others. Learning by discovery pertains primarily to cognitive aspects of learning - development of concepts and the use of inferential learning.

The learner must construct his own conceptual schemata with which to process and to organize whatever information he receives. Teaching is directed to enabling the learner to establish a relationship between his existing schemata and the new phenomena and to remake or extend the schemata to accommodate new facts and events . . . . He must also build his strategy of inquiry. 20

The approach to learning by discovery starts by exposing the learner with some concrete examples of a principle. The student is to analyze, manipulate, and experiment with the problem symbolically or in reality. An attempt is encouraged to bring about an intuitive or operational grasp of the generalization before it is verbalized.

Suchman's Inquiry Training Program is designed to develop an approach to discovery. He believes that under the proper conditions pupils can acquire the attitudes,
skills, and strategies that are required for a scientific research approach to problem-solving. Structuring of an operational schema, guided practice, and feedback and reinforcement are the three steps included in Suchman's program.\textsuperscript{21}

The works of Bruner, Piaget, Skinner, and Thorndike should cause the supervisor of instruction to raise serious questions. Is it true that knowledge can be transmitted more effectively by machines than humans? What concepts are effective and might be adapted for other learning experiences? What places do stimulated experiences have in education? Do we practice according to what is known about the way children learn? If not, what is the behavior which should be exemplified by those in supervision of instruction.

Typical of the insightful theorist who is trying to synthesize the fields of philosophy, phenomenological psychology, and at the same time honor models from nature somewhat ecological in their design, is Ross Mooney. Mooney describes his view of man this way:

The first need is to know, within ourselves, what it is we value. We need, as persons, to find life existent in us. We need to be conscious of it.
As I see present psychic movement, we are groping in this direction. What I sense to be developing in the Western psyche is something of this order:

(a) a reach for consciousness of "life" at center,

(b) born in the consciousness of self, or person,

(c) person wombed in life of man, the species,

(d) man in life of nature,

(e) nature in the universe (or God), as the most inclusive system, and all realized, within a given moment to be integrated.

The search, therefore, is "turning inward" to find the primal source of living. What life is, is something that he has a part in. How can man stay on course unless he has the opportunity for becoming aware, for understanding himself?

This implies also that to gain an understanding and an awareness of himself and how others see him that the individual must gain greater openness. Mooney continues that when openness is developed a greater exchange of energies and stimuli is permitted. To be fully actualizing, the human species needs to be ever increasing in "openness" and "integrativeness." The way the individual perceives
determines the way the world comes back to him. Perception of one's self also determines behavior. Awareness can be attained through both individual and group counseling. Skills in counseling becomes a necessary component in supervisory behavior if the reader accepts the need for understanding one's self.

In a research study, Richard L. Cutler and Emory L. Cowen demonstrated that participation in an in-service program designed to induce significant changes in self-appraisal had a definite impact on mental health. Therapy had a distinct effect on the professional work of teachers. Teachers became more introspective in dealing with the affairs of their own lives and in their relationships with their fellow colleagues and pupils. The authors, Cutler and Cowen, report that teachers feel a diminished need to exploit the teaching situation to satisfy their own subjective needs and that they are more certain of their goals and better able to enjoy their work.

Many examples of group therapy such as role playing, sensitivity training (T-Groups), and attitude development should be considered for adaptation to supervisory practice. Such operational strategies are a direct outgrowth of data
from psychological sources.

As one attempts to synthesize possible new content from sources such as philosophy and psychology, he is struck, time and again, with the need to conceptualize human growth and development over the long life-span of individuals. Some of the efforts in developmental psychology do this and some of the frontier work in adult education and continuing education make similar attempts. But, by and large, the field of education as a whole and the field of supervision, in particular, has ignored content that might come from this data source. In view of this fact, attention is given at this point in the investigation to an exploration of this unique perspective.

D.B. Bromley, A.T. Welford, James E. Birren, and Bernice L. Neugarten, as examples of individuals at work in this field, have much to share in guiding supervisors of instruction toward more effective staff development programs. Supervision of instruction must give special attention to the nature of adult personality and learning. When one looks at supervision as maintenance and renewal of teaching competencies and of the instructional program - this implies CHANGE. Supervision which works toward
bringing about change in adult behavior must take into account the way in which adults perceive their environment surroundings, how they perceive themselves, and how they perceive the risks of change. Human aging is a pattern of changes. These changes start after the individual meets biological maturity. Although the aging changes are fairly gradual, they have great impact on perceiving and behaving.

Slowing that comes with age, and the reduction of effective capacity that this implies, has been observed in rather general terms. Researchers during the last half of this century have shown, however, that the extent of this slowing varies widely between different tasks and is by no means uniform in the various mechanisms of the sensory-motor chain from sense-organ to muscles.

Characteristics of adulthood that appear in the works of D. B. Bromley, Bernice L. Neugarten, A. T. Welford and James E. Birren include:

1. There is a preoccupation with the inner life with increasing age, a movement away from the outer-world to inner-world orientation. Research also indicates that emotional carthexes toward persons and objects in the outer-world apparently decrease.
Aging is perceived, through studies by Bernice L. Neugarten, David Gutman, and Jacqueline L. Rosen, as an inevitable and mutual withdrawal resulting in decreased interaction between the aging person and others in the social systems to which he belongs.

2. Forty-year-olds often see the outer-world as one that rewards boldness and risk-taking and see themselves possessing energy that is congruent with the opportunities presented in the outer-world. As adults approach sixty-years-of-age, they seem to view their surroundings as complex and dangerous; they are no longer able to be reformed and resist conforming and accommodating to outer-world demands.

The ability to integrate a wide variety of stimuli and complicated and challenging situations seems to become more restrictive. As people age, they become more dogmatic, in failing to clarify past-present or cause-effect relationships. They give evidence of lessened sensitivity to others.

3. Speed and accuracy slow with middle aged to aged. Older people on the average perform more slowly in cognitive tasks. Research is not clear in showing which types of task manipulations can be expected to lead to disproportional slowing or error proneness. Study in this area is greatly needed.

4. Verbal performance or verbal fluency of middle aged to retirement age does not appear to have relevant differences, although older adults tend to utilize implicit, organized sets in their reactions in relatively unstructured
situations (e.g., word association tests). The older adults have a tendency to give meaningful and logical responses and to follow grammatical patterns although they are not requested to do so.

5. Important differences are visible between men and women as they grow older. According to research, older women tend to be more receptive than younger women of their aggressive and egocentric impulses. Women are increasingly affective and expressive in terms of the way they appear to cope with their environment. Men seem to be more receptive than younger men of their affiliative, nurturant, and sensual promptings. Both sexes seem to move toward more eccentric, self-preoccupied positions, and to attend increasingly to the control and the satisfaction of personal needs as they age.

6. The self becomes institutionalized with aging, certain personality processes become stabilized and provide continuity, the individual builds around himself a network of social relationships. Dependence for emotional support and responsiveness from this network of social relationships maintain the individual in many subtle ways - super ego qualities may become more evident with increased age as the values and moral standards which have long been internalized become focal. He is more selective and constrictive.

7. There is a greater concern for physical comforts and materialism. Individuals in late adulthood (40-55 years of age) express concern for protection of the physical body, sleep, diet, work-load.
An increased tendency toward personality that processes new input against a grid of life experiences, values and beliefs. Expertise is used to more consciously designed ends and more value is given to experience in looking at life.25, 26, 27

A person's chronological age is closely associated with his physical and mental capacities. Certainly, there is no means of a perfect index. The outward visible signs of aging appear earlier in some people than others - discrepancies lead researchers to think in terms of "biological age" and "functional age." Perception, intelligence and learning do not have simple relationships with chronological age. There are many complex variables in aging. In order to help the reader in adulthood in its relationship to life span, Bromley categorizes the main stages of the human life-cycle, biological and social factors as follows:

**HUMAN LIFE-CYCLE IN OUTLINE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Approximate Age</th>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Main Characteristics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Zygote</td>
<td>Conception (fertilized ovum)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>7 weeks</td>
<td>Embryo</td>
<td>Early stages of biological development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Foetus</td>
<td>Later stages of biological development: 'human-like' appearance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age from birth</td>
<td>38 weeks</td>
<td>Birth</td>
<td>Change from intra- to extra-uterine life.</td>
</tr>
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<td>------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. 18 months</td>
<td>5 years</td>
<td>Infancy</td>
<td>Acquisition of basic skills in locomotion, perception and manipulation (Sensori-motor schemata), non-verbal communication, parental (especially Maternal) relationships, socialization.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. 11 or 13 years</td>
<td>Nursery</td>
<td>Pre-school child</td>
<td>Development of basic skills in locomotion, perception, manipulation (pre-operational representations), non-verbal and verbal communication, family and other social relationships.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11 to 15</td>
<td>Puberty; senior school child</td>
<td>Assimilation of cultural characteristics through education and socialization; symbolism (concrete operations, groupings), morality.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>15 to 21</td>
<td>Late Adolescence</td>
<td>Further education; vocational training; end of main biological growth phase; transition from dependence to independence; peak years for anti-social behavior.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age Group</td>
<td>Stage</td>
<td>Description</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 to 25 years</td>
<td>Early Adulthood</td>
<td>Acquisition of adult roles; legal maturity; economic responsibility; voting rights; marriage; employment; children; continuation of professional training; full engagement in adult activities; peak years for athletic achievement (up to about 35 years).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 to 40+ years</td>
<td>Middle Adulthood</td>
<td>Consolidation of social and occupational roles; peak years for intellectual achievement; slight decline in some physical and mental functions apparent in tests of maximum performance; seniority; accumulation of relatively permanent material relationships.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40+ to 55+ years</td>
<td>Late Adulthood</td>
<td>Continuation of established and social and occupational roles; departure of children; diminution of sexual and reproductive function (menopause); re-entry of some women into occupational roles; further decline of physical and mental functions.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The mid-point of the post-development period is between 45 and 50 years.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Group</th>
<th>Pre-retirement</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>55+ to 65 years</td>
<td>Pre-retirement</td>
<td>More obvious decline of physical and mental functions; peak years for some kinds of social achievement and authority or partial disengagement from occupational roles and community affairs; further diminution of sexual functions and interests.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Senescence

Disengagement from occupational role and community affairs; or continuation of some kinds of social authority; greater prominence of kinship and primary-group relationships; heightened susceptibility to physical and mental disorders; deterioration of physical and mental conditions; biological and psychological impairment of ordinary activities in everyday life.

Old Age Dependency; full disengagement; physical and mental inadequacy.

Senility; final breakdown of critical biological functions.28

Three quarters of the normal life span for man is made up of adulthood and senescence, and, yet, there have been fewer researchers studying adult life. The period from conception through adolescence has been thoroughly studied. Even though changes during adult life are not as spectacular, life is still progressive and cumulative. Neugarten suggests that as we study adult achievement, we might raise questions such as:

1. How does an individual utilize experiences?

2. How does an individual structure his special world?
3. How does he see the perspective of time?

4. How does he view his concept of self—
   who and what he is?

5. How does he deal with life themes such as:
   a. Work
   b. Time
   c. Death
   d. Love
   e. Success - failure.

Teaching skills involve the whole person - verbal
skills, information storing skills, perceptual integration
skills, psychomotor skills, and a high degree of sensi-
tivity to the stimuli about him. In reviewing the liter-
ature one finds that verbal skills and the storing of
information may increase; however, perception, integration
abilities, and psychomotor skills decline with age.

As adults age, they seem to view their surroundings
as complex and dangerous; they are less motivated toward
change. They resist drastic change; the ability to inte-
grate a wide variety of stimuli decreases.

Many in-service programs designed to maintain and
renew teaching competencies have been met with antagonism.
The problem has arisen from the fact that little attention has been paid to adult learning and to needs. The assumption is made that middle aged people grow increasingly inflexible in their opinions and actions and close-mindedness to new ideas. Excitation from within the organism takes precedence over excitation from without. The inner stimuli demands relatively great investment of ego energy and there is less energy available for dealing with stimuli from the outer world.

The decrease of physical energy provides an additional condition of interference that needs to be considered in the following dimensions:

1. ability to integrate wide ranges of stimuli;

2. readiness to perceive or to deal with complicated, challenging or conflictual situations;

3. the tendency to perceive vigorous and assertive activity;

4. the tendency to perceive or to be concerned with the feelings and affects as these play on life situations.  

One major idea emerges from the studies on adult learning - "the person inside the teacher." In order to
bring about commitment and change, the teacher must gain an awareness of his own perceptual framework. The teacher needs to look at the conditions which make up adulthood. He needs to know something about his nature - then he can do something about it. Instructional supervision should encourage each faculty member to accept his personal development toward maturity and autonomous professionalism. This may mean "counseling oriented seminars."

As instructional supervisors develop programs that reflect implications from what is known about adult behavior, certain factors should be kept in mind.

1. Programs should be designed to help the individual look inward - to find himself, to understand his perceptions. Perception determines behaving and behaving ultimately determines what he becomes.

2. Programs should be designed to reflect needs.

3. Programs should be designed that have adequate length to give adults opportunity to test new skills and to receive feedback. Reinforcement and
"threat-free" atmosphere must also be a part of the program.

4. Programs should be designed with opportunities to observe operating models, simulations, demonstrations, and visitations to "on-going programs."

The Sociological Perspective

One crucial aspect of the social foundations of education is the pattern of social realities in which we live. The term "social realities" stands for the total setting—the society, culture, civilization, characterized by social demands and problems—in which education takes place.31

Accepting Van Til's analysis suggests the need for a careful examination of the sociological perspective in any search for new content for the preparation of supervisors. To deal with the basic concepts of sociology, such as culture, institutions, social class, groups, values, norms, power, social structure, mobility, role theory, organization theory, change theory, forms of social interaction, and communication is beyond the scope of this investigation. However, some examples drawn from an analysis of this
content are discussed at this point to illustrate the nature of the data that can be drawn from sociology in the reconceptualization of the content of supervisory preparation programs. The examples included here represent a synthesis of sociological concepts as these are brought to bear on problems of change in education.

The supervisor of instruction must provide attention to the process of change. Surely, the supervisor must devote significant time toward change if renewal of teaching competence and the renewal of the instructional programs are to become realities. Resistance to change can often be very strong; the supervisor must understand change theory and participate in planned change in a school system.

Change is inevitable; life is in continual change. As defined by Webster, change means to alter by substituting something for, or by giving up for something else; to give and take reciprocally; to make different. Process refers to the act of proceeding; progress; a course; a series of actions, motions; a progressive action.

When looking at curriculum change, one should realize that there are two main types:
1. Change which can be called evolutionary or natural. This type of change results from responses an institution makes over the long run to its environment and to the day-to-day problems and pressures. Growth of an institution, change of administrative and instructional personnel, and changes in community make-up fit into this category.

2. Change which is planned. As the reader would assume, this means change which is consciously and deliberately executed or instituted, such as the modern mathematics programs or the Biological Sciences Curriculum Study.

Planned change may be as local as one creative teacher responding to the needs of her group of children through the development of a new unit. It might be as large and complex as a university research and development center team working on new programmed experiences. It is the process of planned change to which the author addresses himself. As educators face the tidal wave of change in
the contemporary world and the societal problems that are ever increasing, constant concern with identifying the priority of learning experiences is evident.

The challenges and opportunities for education are great indeed. The purposes of public education in our contemporary society need to be continually explored. Change in curriculum should be geared toward these ever evolving purposes. Although many advocates of innovation feel that "change for change sake" is sufficient reason for new programs, a rationale for being, a philosophy or basic set of objectives must be continually in the forefront. Change should only be brought about if it appears to reinforce basic goals and objectives. Common sense suggests that one cannot grab all innovations and place them in the schools as a panacea.

The supervisor of instruction needs to continually ask himself: What do pupils need as learning experiences to prepare them for the challenges of continuing learning, for facing a world of rapid changes, changes in the vocational world, etc? With the explosion of information, what are the core units of knowledge? What are ways to
relate these learning experiences to the wide variety of needs and competencies of learners? How can teachers gain understanding? Where can teachers gain greater resources?

Educators must transcend curriculum that is often geared toward facts, facts, facts - many which are irrelevant in today's society. Relevance must be brought into the present public school educational program.

If change is to come about in a meaningful manner, an organized model needs to be developed - one that involves all that will be effected by change. The following scheme, developed from Lippett, Clark, and Guba as a program for planned change, would be one approach.

**Gathering Operational and Planning Data.** The first phase of the sequence is geared to identify operational problems. Assessment of the institution's present status is necessary to detect and diagnose problem areas. How does our operational procedure relate to stated objectives? What circumstances contradict or impede reaching stated goals? Are we accomplishing what we are setting out to do? These and many additional questions need to be raised.
Teachers, students and lay citizens should be asked to describe the school situation. One of our present problems in school administration has been that too often the identification techniques involved only school administrators. Gathering the operational data should include the teaching departments; all who will be involved in change should have a voice in the decision-making process. In fact, a representative body of the faculty, students, and lay public should be involved in all steps of the change process from gathering of data, developing programs and the operation of the innovation. Personnel from universities, research and development centers, and federally funded projects should be engaged to help translate the raw data into clarified problem statements.

Continued re-evaluation of the school philosophy and stated objectives is certainly implied in such a rapidly changing environment. If indeed there is a new vision of the possibilities of man and his future, if man is conquering space and technology in such an unprecedented manner, if man is to face the social problems with which he is confronted, new goals and philosophies promise great operational change in the schools. Perhaps this is the
step that takes the most careful examination - where are we and where do we wish to go?

**Search for Solution.** Alternatives to solve the operational problem are gained through careful research and study. Funds and time need to be available for the purpose of professional growth. If faculties are expected to design creative solutions to operational problems, their thinking process must be well nourished with fresh new ideas that come about through reading professional journals, retrieval of ideas from educational clearing-houses, visitations within local school district, visitation of neighboring systems or national exemplary programs. Every school system has a great variety of creative curriculum practices that remain behind closed classroom doors, invisible and inaccessible, known only to the inventory. Individuals and teams need the opportunity to work together in "blue sky" sessions developing new, creative approaches to solving operational problems. Creation does not come from a vacuum or in a threatened atmosphere. Professional growth experiences as well as professional atmosphere are necessary if creative problem-solving is to evolve.
Developing Programs for Operational Use. Ideas for solving problems must be arranged from the theoretical stage into usable programs that can be communicated to the instructional staff. There is a need for the ideas to be ordered to systematize the parts of the theoretical for institutional use. If the design of the program is not organized so that it is feasible to utilize the ideas there is little institutional value. Outside consultant help from universities, state department of education, or pilot school districts may be a necessity in designing programs.

The invention and design of better solutions to problems in teaching-learning situations is a crucial step in the total process of change. If a new program is unusable by the practitioner, the greatest theoretical idea is of little value. Programs need to be designed that have a great deal of flexibility or adaptability built-in, so that they are usable in practicing situations.

The classroom teacher is a specialist in his field and has much to offer in this stage of curriculum development. School systems have a great deal of untapped human resources which should influence curriculum change in a positive manner. Traditional administration has not
effectively utilized these human resources with a team approach. Educational leadership should provide greater articulation horizontally and vertically in the development of programs. When this type of involvement is in existence, problems of communication of new programs should be at a minimum point. Attitudes toward change should also be more positive due to the continuous involvement in curriculum development.

Testing New Programs. Testing the effectiveness of a new program is imperative before any innovation is instituted school-wide. Programs may appear completely different when taken from the sterile laboratory setting and placed in a field setting. Taking programs that are successful and on-going in a neighboring school may need many alterations before wholesale adoption in another district. It is only after one has tested an innovation that an innovator in good conscience can offer it as an alternate program.

Diffusion or Distribution. Teachers cannot institute a new program unless there is a process of diffusion or distribution. The system must be aware of alternatives. To help those become better informed who are in a curriculum
decision role, field trips to demonstration schools, summer institutes, in-service education programs, reading professional literature, attending professional conferences are all beneficial. Wise strategy is often required to overcome the nature of resistance to change. The innovator must be prepared to face the problems that aid in maintain­
ing the status quo:

Complacency: Needs to be disturbed by intrusive, interfering stimuli. According to Lilly, there is a "desire for new experience." Experiments with perceptual isolation of human subjects showed that lying quietly awake in a comfortable bed, free from disturbing stimuli, soon became intolerable. People need to interact with a changing environment.

Habit: Most learning theory has included the assumption that unless the situation changes noticeably, people will continue to react in their same old way. Changed forms of action are often met with resistance - the familiar is not only preferred, it is sanctified.

Selective Perception and Retention: Many educators are exposed to graduate courses which present different
philosophies of education. When presented with a new approach they carefully segregate in their minds the new as theory, which could not work in a practical situation.

Dependence: Teachers are often dependent upon the values and attitudes which they imitate from their past public school and college education.

Feeling of Impotence: Often the feeling that "I cannot buck the bureaucracy - it is up to 'them,' the administrators, to do something about the situation" exists.

In addition to these concerns, too often poor communication within the institution, greater concern for status quo and a conservative budget add to the problem.

If strategies are developed effectively, teachers will engage, on their own initiative, in learning activities to achieve skills needed to master the use of new curriculum.

Counterparts for the agricultural extension agents as a part of the distribution system are needed in education for the in-service training of those to be engaged in accepting new curriculum material, people who can deal
effectively with the aforementioned concerns.

Adoption and Presentation. Too often, comments of the following nature are heard after adopting a new program. "I don't feel clear as to how I should use this new material. I'm not clear what our objectives are - just what results do the principal and superintendent want?"

The adoption decision is of central concern, indeed.

Ronald Lippitt suggests:

(a) It must include involvement of appropriate decision-makers in a review of alternatives.
(b) There must be intensive exploration of value judgment criteria having to do with thinking about the validity of the resources that were used in the development of the materials, the organization of the resources, the relevance to learners, and many others.

We found high involvement on the part of teacher and administrators when we worked out with them a set of rating scales for making a 'consumer research' evaluation of a large number of educational innovations. They worked as rating panels to judge "relevance for adoption." (c) A third part of the adoption decision must be a plan to test alternatives, to test feasibility, and to learn about responses of learners. This process would involve the learners in evaluation of the new materials. (d) Then there must be intensive analysis of the needs for in-service training and adapt-
In the presentation of new materials teachers need a variety of support. Expertees from the outside, from teacher peers, and from the learning group, the class. As new resources, learning concepts and techniques emerge, they should become available.

Teachers need opportunities to reach out toward outside resources - to colleges - teachers from other school systems - to review, evaluate and explore the use of relevant material. They need to be involved in decisions in the adoption and presentation of new resources. Teachers also need freedom to explore new skills needed for utilizing curriculum experiences. Freedom is the cutting edge of creativity. The development of evaluative tools to gain feedback about the success or lack of success of the materials with students is also of great importance.

Maintenance of New Programs. Adoption, the process of trying out, adapting to, and working the innovation into the on-going problem is not the end of the innovator's concern. An institutionalization period is required to
assimilate the new resource or program into the on-going program. A strong on-going in-service program is imperative. Supportive personnel, material resources and facilities are of great importance to maintain new programs. Opportunities for staff members to share problem or success experiences among the professional community greatly aids in the maintenance in the utilization of resources.

Yet another basic effort which draws both on a sociological and a psychological base but which is crucial in any effort to define new content from basic data sources is communication theory. Since the third edition of Kimball Wiles, Supervision for Better Schools, greater attention has been given to the role of communication theory in supervision. Communication has significance for instructional supervisory personnel who work primarily in face-to-face interactions with individuals in a larger organizational setting. Communication is more than talk, it is the means of conveying ideas, transmitting information, values, emotions and insights. It is an attempt to share feelings, purposes and knowledge. Greater misunderstandings evolve between people when communication is ineffective,
skill in this area, therefore, is of utmost importance.

To enlarge staff commitment and stimulate constructive action, it is necessary that the instructional supervisor have knowledge of how people are motivated to act and how attitudes and opinions influence people's response to information and appeals for action.

Instructional supervision can be much more effective if communication barriers are understood. According to educator Wiles:

1. People use symbols or words that have different meanings. Words are interpreted in terms of receivers background, needs, and purposes; in terms of different contexts and situations.

2. Members of the group have different values. The receiver often closes out foreign values.

3. Different perceptions of the problem. If different interpretation of the problem exists and cannot be resolved, it will be difficult to work toward solution and the development of alternative proposals.

4. Emphasis on status. Too much emphasis on superior knowledge, status or experience can alienate the supervisor from the group.
5. Conflict of interest. Some instructional supervisory personnel are more interested in the building of a bureaucratic superstructure rather than dealing with pertinent issues.

6. Making decisions by the majority vote rather than seeking consensus. Decisions by majority cause members to attempt to convince to win and to score points rather than to try to understand other members of the group, or to seek to find out what beliefs are held in common.

7. Attempts to keep feelings out of the discussion. Feelings are facts, to keep them out of a discussion attempts to limit the degree of communication.

8. Use of words to prevent thinking. (e.g., Seeking to associate an argument or proposal with sacred symbols to shut off discussing.)

9. Lack of desire to understand the other person's point of view or his feelings or his values or his purposes. When the sender of the message attempts to make people accept his view, he seeks to convince rather than to understand.

10. Lack of acceptance of diversity. When a person lacks openness staff members soon feel that can only express what the "status" leader will accept.
Wilbur Schramm defines Communication as an effort to establish a "commonness" with another person or group by sharing information, ideas, or attitudes.

If the instructional supervisor wishes to create a wider understanding of education, the relationship of this "commonness" is very important. Exchanging information, ideas or attitudes can develop common understandings and mutually agreeable working conditions.

The idea of sharing and exchanging is crucial. It requires that effective communication is a joint consideration and appraisal of relevant information and viewpoints by all concerned.

Figure (10): Schramm's Communication Model
Knowledge of the communicative process and the media available for putting it in motion is basic for those who are involved in instructional supervision.

Organizational theory, like communications theory, might be thought of as multi-disciplinary with a heavy loading of sociological content. However it is classified, this field clearly has a central role to play in search for relevant curricular content for the preparation of supervisors. It is analyzed here, then, as an additional source for new data. The systems approach is a current effort to bring together many strands of organizational theory and practice.

... Systems Approach is the application of tools and techniques of systems analysis and systems synthesis to assure that the total system will do what it is supposed to do under the conditions which it must operate. In the System Approach, the tools and techniques are used by the educator to determine his activities. He uses it to select those methods and means which are best suited for solving his problems rather than having arbitrary solutions superimposed upon problems which have not yet been identified. There is nothing in the System Approach which either infers or connotes automation, stifling of creativity, or the like. It is simply the application of the tools of logical problem-solving. 38
Systems analysis is not a set, established, clear-cut process to solve all problems. It is an evolving strategy. According to John Pfeiffer, a systems approach includes the following features or elements:

1. Design for action. Scientists have long known that, in research, finding the right questions to ask is half the battle, the idea being that only after you know clearly just what it is you want to learn can you proceed to come to grips with your problem. An analogous principle holds when it comes to shaping administrative policies. The first job in dealing with such problems is to identify exactly what has to be done, which means defining objectives in operational terms, in ways that demand concrete action.

Criteria are then selected which measure how well the objectives are being met and determine when those objectives have been reached. This stage of systems analysis depends on the art of expressing aims in specific and economical terms. You may proceed from a vague aim such as "promoting racial relations" to a rather more precise "increasing the non-white population of the school," and then to a still more precise criterion: "including at least fifteen percent of non-white students in every grade."

2. Seeking alternatives. Imagine a meeting held in one of the state capitols to decide whether or not several new state parks should be established. A special staff recommends a clearly defined plan and supports it with charts and slides
and tables showing the detailed costs of land purchases, camping facilities, mosquito control, road building, publicity, and so on. The head of the Park and Recreation Department makes his decision on the basis of the staff's recommendations. For all its care and thoroughness, this sort of presentation illustrates a Hollywood version of sound planning the old rather than the new way of doing things. It may be systematic, but it is certainly not the systems approach. The missing ingredient is alternatives, and without alternatives the planning staff tends to assume the role of salesman for a particular course of action. The scope of the decision maker's judgment is correspondingly diminished...

So once objectives and criteria have been determined, the next step calls for identifying and spelling out different methods of meeting each objective. This is an active not a passive step. There must be an organized effort to search out alternatives, perhaps the most important and creative phase of systems analysis. It demands open-mindedness, and readiness to discard preconceived notions. Furthermore, the alternatives may be combined in different ways and each combination represents a possible plan, a set of activities which may bring about a desired set of changes.

3. Evaluation. One mark of a really complex problem is that it generally involves a number of objectives not all of which can be fully attained. This means that a realistic plan depends on trade-offs and compromises. The "systems" part of the systems approach comes in most strongly at this stage. A full-fledged
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analysis will attempt to evaluate a combination of alternatives by maximizing the benefits or utility to be obtained for a given cost, or by minimizing the price which must be paid to achieve specified changes.

Alternatives are generally evaluated in numerical terms, indicating how much money will be spent in a certain period or how many teachers trained or students graduated. But qualitative factors are always to be considered along with quantitative factors; there are always political implications, questions of morale, and other effects which may not be measurable in satisfactory terms.

Finally, evaluation is a repetitive process. A plan must be monitored to check its current effectiveness, modified, if necessary, checked again, re-modified, and so on. Continual assessment involves sensitive feedback, cycles of evaluation which permit prompt re-adjustment to tactics to make sure that the system is moving toward its objectives - a kind of steering by compass.39

Clearly, the systems concept provides educators a useful framework with which to carry out specialized tasks. It allows the educator to relate and compare ideas, which can serve to guide the administration and ultimately provide a framework for decision-making. As such, it qualifies for inclusion as a source for reconceptualized content in supervisory training programs.
Schema of the Relationship of New Input

This analysis of prototypical content drawn from the philosophical, the psychological, and sociological perspectives has demonstrated new sources of content for the development of curricular experiences to be used in the preparation of supervisors of instruction. We now need to demonstrate how this new input can be utilized to develop competencies required in the redefined roles of the supervisor for a new era. The following schema shows the relationship of this new input to the matrix developed in Chapter II, a matrix which defined the parameters of the field and identified from task areas.
A Schema of the Relationship of New Input to Development of Supervisory Skills in Four Task Areas

CONTINUING STAFF DEVELOPMENT

- Maintenance of Teacher Competence
- Maintenance of the Instructional Program
- Renewal of Teacher Competencies
- Renewal of the Instructional Program

Figure (11): A Schema of the Relationship of New Input to Development of Supervisory Skills in Four Task Areas
CHAPTER IV

A CONCEPTUAL STRUCTURE
FOR SUPERVISORY TRAINING

This chapter presents the proposed conceptual structure for planning curricular experiences in a supervisory training program. In essence, it is a logical, hypothetico-deductive synthesis of data drawn from the data sources explicated in Chapter III and the two-dimensional framework identified in Chapter II.

The relationships that are obtained in this synthesis can best be identified and understood in the following diagram:

Areas of Knowledge

Sociology
Psychology
Philosophy

Skills
Planning and Designing
Observing and Analyzing
Searching and Abstracting
Facilitating and Coordinating
Evaluating
Synthesizing
Assimilating

Charge
Maintenance of Teacher Competence Program
Renewal of Teacher Competence Program

Figure (12): Components of Supervision
This schema, it will be noted, makes use of the three-fold analysis of supervisory operations—namely, maintenance of teacher competence, maintenance of the instructional program, renewal of teacher competence, and renewal of the instructional program. Moreover, it projects seven skills, or competencies, as basic requirements in these four operations. This projection constitutes a second dimension. The third dimension is clearly one of the three major sources of knowledge from which data are to be drawn in shaping curricular content. No claim is made that these are the only data sources, but rather that clarity about what is involved in the process of utilizing content from these three will help to develop more effective curricular planning in yet other areas to be identified in field testing and empirical research. In effect, the effort here is to explore the preactive planning operations involved in projecting a curriculum for the preparation of supervisors of instruction.

Throughout this chapter and the next, the terms "pre-active" and "interactive" will be used. They derive from the research of Philip Jackson and serve to clarify two
related, yet uniquely different, phases of curriculum planning. Preactive planning involves the intentions, the goals, the purposes, the "best judgment" in the light of a consciously-held rationale of the nature of curricular planning. It is, so to speak, what those responsible for instruction enter the instructional process with. The dynamics, then, of the instructional process is best viewed as the "interactive" phase. In some instances it can be predicted, but many times it cannot. It is, in the last analysis, curriculum making in the process of change, the direction being taken from the interaction with learners—in this case, supervisors of instruction.

The illustrations which follow are clearly within the preactive realm, using Jackson's terminology. The expectation is that such cases would be modified in various institutional settings and with different groups of supervisors in training as the process moved into the interactive realm in each of these unique settings. One hypothetical cube, or cell, will be taken from the schema in order to focus more fully on how it can function as an element in preactive curriculum planning.
Prototypical Content: The Sociological Axis

In the investigation thus far, a claim has been made for sociology as a data source for the selection of curricular content in the curriculum for preparation of supervisors. Chapter III explored this source in some detail. The aim now is to explicate further by exploring the practical dimensions of a cell from the schema along the sociological axis:

![Sociology Diagram]

Figure (13): A Cell From the Sociological Axis

The other dimensions of the cell are planning and designing and the maintenance of teaching competence.

A teacher makes many decisions each day as he works with students. These decisions clearly depend on major concepts and processes that constitute sociological
knowledge. When teachers move into new positions, with a new school setting and a new community, the instructional supervisor can help develop opportunities for the new teacher to become oriented in role perceptions in the school organization, organizational structure, community needs, and the social and cultural milieu of the child. Utilizing, planning and designing skills in the development of in-service programs that use the best of what is known in group dynamics, facilitate the socialization of new personnel into the on-going teaching program. Operating on the assumption that an understanding of the teacher's new setting will facilitate his effectiveness in professional decision-making, the teacher will have insights that will help him in working with the learner, adapting learning processes, developing instructional objectives, selecting subject matter, instructional methods, and measuring devices.

This type of appraisal will insure a fuller maintenance of teaching competencies in relationship to the total program.

Central in the maintenance of teaching competence
as it relates to planning and designing along the socio-
logical axis is the whole realm of curriculum planning
and the competencies it requires. Some visualization of
this prototypical content is warranted at this point.

Key questions in the curriculum planning realm
suggest guidelines for the selection of sociological
content. What kind of human being does the educational
system wish the young to become? This is a fundamental
question which must be addressed when studying curriculum.
To answer this question, however, one must utilize
social, psychological and philosophical foundations of
education. Curriculum decision-making is a complex under-
taking which involves numerous kinds of choices which are
dependent upon the substantive areas.

As man's horizon expands through technology, moon
and space exploration, atomic energy, computers, and other
expansions of knowledge unprecedented heretofore by any
other age, man needs to find ways to make this knowledge
work for him. Man should not become a slave to knowledge
and technology. An understanding of technology alone
cannot develop the whole man; aesthetic rationality also helps man determine alternatives to solve problems and reflect upon his environment. Cybernetics and knowledge need to be harnessed to help man deal more effectively with his utilization of space. The environment of civilized mankind seems insulted by willful stupidity. It appears that man has taken this dangerous tool (new knowledge and cybernetics) by the blade instead of the handle. Civilization would destroy its own chances; man needs use these new tools responsibly for the improvement, rather than the deterioration of the space in which he finds himself.

Cultural significance of American free society could lay in the proper use of cybernetics and new knowledge. This will take not only a technological rationale; it will take an aesthetic rationale as well. Aesthetics, as used in the development of this investigation, is meant here to mean man's capacity to deal rationally with the world on an intuitive basis. One must return to the world of insights which will enable him to rise above the present system of thought.
If the curriculum worker is to engage in developing instructional programs that face the issues of spacial transcendence, and integrity of selfhood, he must be nourished by the Arts, philosophy, psychology, historical perspective of man, and sociology.

Philosophical considerations often determine the direction of curriculum design, the instructional supervisor is forced to make value choices which affect the educational enterprise. If the instructional supervisor helps to direct education toward democratic values that honor the worth and dignity of the individual, he determines the selection of content, process and involvement with the professional staff.

Social realities, the total contemporary setting, should not be ignored in curriculum development. An understanding of the society, culture, civilization characterized by social demands and problems seem important, indeed, if curriculum workers are to work toward the preparation of programs to enable children and youth gain insights about the world in which they live. Frequently, curriculum designers, in their attempt to be rigorously
"scientific," have failed to respond to the modern world. They have failed to address their planning to the problems of war, poverty, crime, the desecration of environment, and in a deeper sense, to provide a witness to the human values that lie at the base of life.

Contemporary problems of a pluralistic society—strained relationships of various races, religious, and socio-economic classes; international problems of cold war, undeclared war in Vietnam, the threat of world devastation; continued threat of man's desecration of nature; the conquest of space should be reflected in curriculum design.

The instructional supervisor who has a knowledge of man and his civilization has an added perspective of the relationship of people to each other and to their environment. Man has inherited a rich historical background; many insights can be drawn from these experiences.

It is the individual who does the learning, who experiences tensions, who has needs and wants. If educators are convinced that the learner is central to the educational institution, psychology cannot be ignored.
How can instructional supervisors humanize the curriculum so that man can find meaning in life? How can psychological barriers that are built around children and youth be minimized? How can layers of accidental custom be peeled from people with closed minds? How can educational experience be developed that will help liberate man from his parochial point of view—to help him move into a world of greater acceptance of others, greater openness to ideas, more spontaneous in thought, more positive in his own self image, and more sensitive to the feelings of others? This type of regeneration and reforming of the curriculum has a greater chance of developing when it is based on substantive content drawn not only from sociology but also from philosophy and psychology.

It is clear from this analysis of prototypical content in one cell along the sociological axis that content in the dimension of "planning and designing" to fulfill the "maintenance of teaching competence" function quickly merges, or synthesizes, with content from the philosophical and psychological axes.
Prototypical Content: The Philosophical Axis

This investigation now turns to an exploration of prototypical content which can be projected from a second cell in the total schema:

![Image](image_url)

Figure (14): A Cell From the Philosophical Axis

In this case, the philosophical axis will be analyzed as it serves as a focus in selecting curricular experiences in the preactive realm to develop evaluating competencies necessary for a fulfilling of the "renewal of instructional programs" function in the supervisory field.

Philosophy and, in turn, philosophy of education enables a school staff to become more rational in their
decision-making. Every proposal for making order out of the curriculum development process has in it, for example, some function that draws heavily on philosophy. Typical is the Tylerian thesis\(^2\) which asserts that there must be a philosophical "screen" in the process between the diagnosis-of-needs step and the formulation of purposes from which behavioral goals are derived. Some such inclusion characterizes both historical and contemporary curriculum theory.

In a more practical context, few decisions can ignore the philosophical questions. For example, the decision to improve a sex education program without taking into consideration the characteristics of modern society or child growth and development would indicate to the instructional supervisor that certain sources of the curriculum are being ignored. All blocks of the three-dimensional model should be brought into action in curriculum development. At any rate, a philosophical framework should be designed which expresses the belief of the professional staff.
Continuous evaluation of the on-going program helps curriculum decision-makers look at their beliefs and goals, at what is being done, and what difference appears between practice and belief.

As supervisors of instruction work with teachers in decision-making in terms of renewal of the instructional program, evaluation needs to be brought into focus. Evaluation of the instructional program is to the curriculum decision-maker what a stethoscope is to the medical diagnostician. Both must rely on these instruments to provide data for remediation or diagnosis. Doctors use many instruments, electro-cardiograms, x-rays, et cetera, to gain data about their patient. Intelligence tests, tests to measure attitude, achievement tests, check lists, rating skills, observation forms, oral presentation and follow-up studies of graduates of educational institutions, and assessment of directions of contemporary society help the educator gain his data.

The teacher needs to know the relationship of these instruments in terms of educational goals. Standardized achievement tests need to be supplemented by a variety of evaluative measures if both the cognitive and the affective
domains of human experience are to be assessed. Much research and development work needs yet to be undertaken to give educators the kinds of resources they need to implement the philosophical dimensions of curriculum planning and supervision.

**Prototypical Content: The Psychological Axis**

The study of psychology needs to be examined in order to understand what content might be most effective in the designing of curricular experiences in a supervisory training program. It will be recalled that Chapter III identified a number of components crucial to any consideration of the nature of instructional supervision training: phenomenology, learning theory, and adult learning theory.

Inasmuch as an extensive literature reporting the theorizing and empirical research in each of these areas is now available, this investigation will focus on only one component—namely, theory of adult learning in this effort to illustrate prototypical content. The cell, then,
drawn from the schema, is as follows:

![Diagram](image)

**Figure (15): A Cell Considering Adult Learning**

This cell shows one aspect of the psychological axis—namely, adult learning as it might serve to identify content selected to foster facilitating and coordinating competencies in order to fulfill the large "renewing of teacher competence" function.

Too often, as new programs are introduced into the curriculum, little is done to renew teaching competencies. When efforts are made to work with the teachers, salient characteristics of adulthood are overlooked. As noted
earlier in the study, some of the characteristics include:
a greater preoccupation with self, a concern for physical
comfort, more selective and constrictive, and more pro-
cessing of new input against a grid of life expectancy.

The facilitating and coordinating skills might
well be focused so that these characteristics are recog-
nized and dealt with in in-service programs.

Klopf suggests these four major factors need to be
facilitated:

1. Opportunities for becoming aware for under-
standing oneself.

2. Opportunities to gain a commitment, to
change, to acquire an attitude, an
interest, a concern.

3. Opportunities for gaining knowledge,
principles, concepts.

4. Opportunities to have experiences involv-
ning interaction and skill.3

This emphasis suggests programs need to provide
atmosphere that will be conducive for adults to test new
skills, receive feedback and support.

Instructional supervisors need to experiment with
many types of processes, organizational patterns, models or
simulated cases, audio-visuals and other training patterns to develop the facilitative skills in order to more effectively renew teaching competence. All of these efforts might well be conceived as an extension of the study of psychological axis as it relates to new knowledge about the nature of adult learning.

In order to help teachers assume responsibility for the personal and social development of their pupils and at the same time develop the cognitive domain in a manner that is in keeping with contemporary academic standards requires great breadth and depth of substantive fields and supervisory skills. Instructional supervision must be concerned with more than the act of teaching; it must be concerned with the entire being of the teacher and with his ability to influence the being of the individuals who are his pupils.

_Toward A Synthesis: A New Conceptual Model_

Referring again to Dewey's statement, "the only way in which adults consciously control the kind of education
which the immature get is by controlling the environment in which they act .... We never educate directly, but indirectly by means of the environment, the greatest impact in the learning environment is the teacher. Therefore, the way in which a supervisor can have greatest impact on the maintenance and renewal of the instructional program is through helping the self-renewal of teachers in the school setting.

Helping others gain self-renewal cannot be realized before the supervisor understands what the development of man means. The best place to gain this knowledge is by turning inward.

One might call for a Renaissance in supervision. Renaissance man centered his attention upon distinctly human aspirations and interests. For this reason, he was described as a humanist. There is a need to go beyond the Scientific Management of Max Weber, Frederick Taylor, and Henri Fayol of the early 1900's and the Human Relationists started by Elton Mayo and Fritz J. Roethlisberger in the middle and late 30's. The Revisionists Chris Argyris
and Douglas M. McGregor deal with man—organization as a means of self-actualization. They search for theoretical approaches to ways of integrating the task-serving and needs-serving purposes of organizations. In effect, they assert that organizations are instruments designed by man to serve man. Too often, however, the organization becomes so institutionalized it controls man. With this in mind, man needs to search for new means of self-actualization, for self-renewal—one should turn inward for rebirth.

What is it that is of value? Man needs to be conscious of the life that exists within. Working with human behavior calls for an understanding to the nature of life-giving systems. What makes each human system unique? What is necessary for the survival of this system? What gives this system order? What is distinctly human about man depends upon this psychological self. Although the preceding has dealt primarily with the psyche, it cannot be separated from the physical self. If anything happens to the physical self, it deeply affects the psychological self and vis-a-vis. Man's uniqueness begins with cell division following conception and is compounded through
his individual experience from birth to death. The perceiver decides what a thing is, and no two people perceive things the same way. No two people have developed in the same way, nor have they had the same identical experience. Any perceiver makes of any object a variance with the thing itself. What one makes of a thing depends upon what he already is. His past experiences, assumptions, expectations make the "truth." Since no two people have the same background of experience, no two people can come to exactly the same conclusion. All have different perceptual screens. Perception is selective—some stimuli enter through this screen, some cannot. This screen becomes the selective device that creates our individuality. When in a hostile environment, the screen is less open; when unthreatened, the screen is more open to stimuli. Earl Kelley calls this screen our psychological boundaries. He asserts that the boundaries become barriers when the individual becomes threatened and cuts off communication with other people or closes out stimuli that might be growth-fostering. These barriers become psychologically crippling.
As supervisory personnel, one should work toward altering defenses that are psychologically crippling. As stated before, life-giving systems, to operate, must be open to their environment and integrative in their being. Openness refers to the individual's receptivity to the stimuli about him—to the sights, sounds, touch, smell, taste, events and ideas that impinge on him. Man with the gift of creativity manages to keep a freshness of perception. Communication is necessary to provide the stuff of growth—without it, the person becomes imprisoned and atrophies. If instructional supervisors are going to help teachers that behave in a crippled fashion, they must understand the psychological self. They must see the forward edge of life as ever onward.

Instructional supervisors need to work toward developing a growth-fostering atmosphere that will encourage openness, trust and security rather than a hostile, endangering environment that thickens and hardens the perceptive screen. Becoming more aware of perception is a beginning; the supervisor must also look inward to gain direction for continued development.
Only when the instructional supervisor puts his own life in order so that he is more open and integrative and has developed his own priorities; only when he, as a man of integrity, exhibits these values in his own life can he deal effectively with teachers. He must exemplify these values by opposing authoritarianism, coercive institutions and standardization. The process of coordinating, motivating, developing, evaluating, planning and designing, communicating, observing and analyzing, searching and abstracting should reflect this integrity. The instructional supervisor's actions must be congruent with his verbalizations.

To work effectively and to keep the continuous, dynamic flow of energy going from supervisor to teacher, an understanding of psychotherapeutic tools to help teachers to look inward in order to become more open, less defensive, and more integrative of stimuli seems imperative. The broader the conceptual base and the deeper understandings the instructional supervisor develops, the greater his chance will be in his interaction with teachers.
Change in teacher behavior comes about only when the teacher, in turn, looks inward and develops his integrity of selfhood. The teacher determines what he values, evaluates whether his actions are congruent with his values, and develops a more open, integrative sequential ordering of his life. This indicates that instructional supervisors must help teachers gain a desire to determine what is strong and what is weak in their teaching character and build on their strengths.

This kind of rationalization regarding the role of the individual and the organization in the change process leads to a synthesis which is "more than" the sum of the several prototypical content illustrations drawn from the several resource fields. It leads to what might, in Ross Mooney's terms, be called a "life-giving system." Mooney identifies four characteristics of a life-giving system:

1. the organisms must be open to their environment,
2. integrative of their being,
3. in transactional give and take of energies across their borders,
4. selectively forming fresh fittings in creative transformation as time passes.
And, to illustrate the transactions that take place in such a system, Mooney uses the following model:

Model of a Life-System

An organism, open and integrative, in continuous give-and-take with the environment, effecting transformations through selective fittings.

Figure (16): Mooney's Life-System
Openness to experience is limited to those events or stimuli of the external world that seem to the individual to be relevant to the inner life. More significant than his receptivity to the external world is his openness with respect to his own inner life. He has fewer internal barriers of experience—he is self-accepting.

Figure 17 is a representation of the synthesis which is essential in any conceptual framework, or structure, adequate to guide decision-making in the development of a curriculum to prepare supervisors. It is clearly based on Mooney's life-giving system; yet, it draws on the concepts developed in this chapter as various prototypical content was projected along certain axes.
Figure (17): A Conceptual Model For Supervision Of Instruction
The arrows indicate the interaction between teacher and instructional supervisor as they focus on the maintenance and renewal of the instructional program; this interaction is determined by the perception of the participants. Perception is made up of the participant's sum total of life experience.

The instructional supervisor's perception, therefore, is based on life experiences which include his knowledge and skills in the study of teaching, the study of change, and the study of curriculum as well as the teacher's understanding of subject matter, pedagogy, and philosophy of education. These perceptions determine the overt action of the instructional supervisor.

As one examines the model of supervision in Figure 17, one readily sees continuous give-and-take process. Unless the chain is maintained, the system breaks down and attention toward the ordering of new thought and action is rejected.

The teacher or supervisor receives ideas or processes from the other in this reciprocating relationship and in return transforms through the receiver's own selective fittings and decides whether to keep or reject. From
this point, the receiver returns with feedback or energy into his environment. If these energies are internalized at both ends of the system, and if they are appropriate to the environment, growth occurs.

As both teachers and the supervisor of instruction focus on the renewal and maintenance of the instructional program and teacher competencies, this serves as a planned structure through which meanings are to be formed in communication between the supervisor and the teacher.

The problem evolves when people are not able to communicate honestly and openly and individuals relate only at a "polite level" of verbalization. When little of what has been said is internalized or integrated into one's being, growth does not occur.

The importance of a two-way communication cannot be negated. There must be an understanding from both ends--the teacher and the instructional supervisor. As already mentioned in the preceding chapter, communication is complex indeed. In light of this evidence, the supervisor of instruction must be open to the verbal and non-verbal
clues of teachers. Openness to experience has many additional attributes for human growth. Concepts are distillations of past experience; the more open to stimuli the instructional supervisor becomes, the fuller, more integrating, life can become. The more reference points the teacher has in his environment, the more capable he is in problem-solving. When the teacher avoids reality, or operates entirely through habit patterns, he limits creative growth.

The teacher must be stimulating, open, and integrating if he is to help pupils find order in this, our environment. Instructional supervision must continually strive to guide teachers toward this state of being.

This chapter has identified some of the basic relationships among prototypical content components drawn from a variety of resources as curricular experiences in the preactive realm of curriculum planning for the training of supervisors. No attempt has been made to deal with the interactive realm. Rather, a model based on Mooney's life-giving thesis has been generated. This model serves
as a rationale for curriculum development in a supervisory training program at the most abstract level. The prototypical content illustrations suggest how this abstraction may be translated at an application level. Further replication of the problem of application and implementation will be undertaken in the chapter to follow.
CHAPTER V

PROTOTYPICAL PROGRAM FOR THE
TRAINING OF INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISORS

This study was designed (1) to analyze supervision as a field of study; (2) to identify and describe the major dimensions of supervision of instruction; (3) to explicate major data sources—both content and process; (4) to generate a conceptual structure to give direction to training programs for supervisors of instruction; (5) to project prototypical training program components; and (6) to synthesize prototypical program components into a hypothetical training program.

In the foregoing chapters, the first five of these tasks have been accomplished. This chapter reports on the efforts to develop what might be viewed as a scenario for a hypothetical training program. It is a scenario in the sense that it reflects a synthesis of prototypical program components, but it does not detail the many complex process and content elements which would characterize curriculum
development in a unique institutional setting. It should be clear that this focus is on the preactive realm only of a hypothetical program.

**A Process-oriented Synthesis**

Also obvious is the fact that the synthesis which emerges is a process-oriented one; i.e., it is shaped by the "life-system" modification of Mooney's schema. In this context, a process-oriented curriculum, among other things, provides opportunities for making choices, confronting issues, developing alternatives, selecting from these alternatives, and implementing the choices made.

Present training programs based on piecemeal fragmentations and no consciously-held design rationale cannot fulfill these process outcomes. Perhaps more than any other curriculum theorists, Parker and Rubin describe the view central to this investigation—namely, that process must be viewed as content. They report, in part, as follows:

Process . . . refers to all the random, or ordered, operations which can be associated with knowledge and with human activities. There are a variety of processes through which knowledge is created. There are also processes for utilizing knowledge and for communicating it. Processes are involved
in arriving at decisions, in evaluating consequences, and in accommodating new insights. The scientist engages in what is perhaps the crucial process of his labor when he fabricates questions for which answers must be found. It at once becomes clear that the nature of process, as we conceive of it, is more than an intellectual amalgam. It exists in an infinite variety of shapes and forms. Indeed, processes must exist which cannot readily be identified, much less described. Nevertheless, every process, whatever its character, necessarily must have a construct—an underlying scheme which provides order and direction.

The crux of the assumed contradiction between content and process lies in the difference between passive and active approaches to learning. Where primary emphasis is upon content, the learner ordinarily functions in the passive mode. He conditions himself to submit to authority. He accepts the proffered gospel, and neither selects his conclusions nor assesses their validity. He does not wear a tailor-made mind, but a ready-made one, cut in the fashion of the day. Even here he employs a number of processes—directed toward the sponging-up of bookishness and to its consequent exhibition in the preferred manner.

Where the stress is upon process, the assimilation of knowledge is not derogated, but greater importance is attached to the methods of its acquisition and to its subsequent utilization. Therefore, a discrimination must be made between knowing something and knowing what it is good for. Knowledge becomes the vehicle rather than the destination.¹
A process-oriented approach such as that delineated by Parker and Rubin and supported by the life-system model generated in this investigation clearly calls for inquiry development. This is to say that those participants in the training program, whatever its specific structure in the interactive realm, must experience curricular content (using process as content also) selected to foster their growth and development as inquirers.

To translate this preactive "intention" into a prototypical training program, there is merit in viewing the training curriculum, itself, as a system. This view permits one to project intentions at the input level through a variety of process-oriented experiences until the student embarks on the applicative stage. Having experienced the input, manipulative and applicative stages, understandings necessary for effective instructional supervision should be reflected in the participants' behavior. Through confrontation with a broad spectrum of instructional supervision issues, the student has had an opportunity to grasp the nature of the supervisory processes and how to use them in diverse contexts. Moreover, he understands how to modify his supervisory behavior as
circumstances demand and to assess the effectiveness of his behavior. The confrontation with issues should have been broad enough to deal with major issues in the area of teacher behavior, curriculum development, and change. In this sense, these serve as criteria for making judgments about the adequacy of the selection of "input" into the preactive realm of the training program.

The following diagram sketches the broad outlines of the scenario which might be used to plan a training program:
**INPUT**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Seminar I</th>
<th>Man and His Civilization</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Philosopher</strong></td>
<td><strong>Sociologist</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>Seminar II</th>
<th>The Teacher and The Learner</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Psychologist</strong></td>
<td><strong>Educator</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Seminar III</th>
<th>Problems of Curriculum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Theory and Application</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Curriculum Theoreticians</strong></td>
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</tbody>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Seminar IV</th>
<th>Instructional Supervision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Instr.-Supv.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PROCESS**

- Manipulation through
  - Group Discussions
  - Case Studies
  - Simulations
  - Brainstorming
  - Buzz Sessions
  - T-Grouping
  - Interpreting Information
  - Classifying Information
  - Utilization of
    - Planning and Designing
    - Observing and Analyzing
    - Communicating
    - Searching and Abstracting
    - Coordinating
    - Evaluating
    - Synthesizing
    - Assimilating
    - Valuing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>OUTPUT</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Application</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internship</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure (18): Curricular System for the Training of Instructional Supervisors
Seminars: Major Curricular Vehicles

In this scenario, the seminar serves as a major curriculum vehicle in addition to the course structure and the many field experiences. These seminars are designed in terms of three hours per day, three days a week. Each seminar seeks to develop a "planned environment" in which the participant searches for a fuller understanding of self, purposefully utilizing group processes.

Teaming of professors will be utilized to relate the foundations, the study of teaching, curriculum development, and change in a more meaningful way.

Seminar I: "Man and His Civilization"

This seminar component should be flexible. It could, for example, well be built around a statement similar to that which Frank Lloyd Wright made, "So the genius of our democracy still lies hidden in the eternal law of change: Growth, our best hope, consists in understanding at last what other civilizations have only known about and left to us—ourselves, comforted meantime by the realization that all one does either for or against Truth serves it equally well." Drawing from sociology, psychology, philosophy,
history and the arts, a central purpose of this seminar would be to develop an awareness of man's major concerns through the ages. A deeper understanding for humanism and values central to our contemporary culture would be the major thrust of this effort.

An understanding of aesthetic rationality as well as technological rationality could grow from this seminar. A team of professors, a philosopher, sociologist, historian and psychologist might well team together to conduct this seminar. It should utilize a wide variety of group techniques, as well as encourage dialogue among the disciplines. Resource people from the various disciplines should be utilized. Students should share in the responsibility for the direction of the course. In effect, from the outset, the emphasis is to be placed on the participant performing in his role as an inquirer, as a theory-builder.

Throughout this seminar the intent is not only to develop a theory-builder who can "inquire" more competently in his own and in cognate fields, but also an individual who is becoming more fully self-actualizing in the process, to use Maslow's term. Greater emphasis must therefore be
placed upon personal growth and development of the individual student. The way the staff operates might well give the students a model to follow for instructional supervision behavior. This suggests a strong group experience dimension. Carl Rogers hypothesizes about intensive group experience in a way that illustrates the intentions involved in this emphasis:

A facilitator can develop, in a group which meets intensively, a psychological climate of safety in which freedom of expression and reduction of defensiveness gradually occur.

In such a psychological climate, many of the immediate feeling reactions of each member toward others, and toward himself, tend to be expressed.

A climate of mutual trust develops out of this mutual freedom to express real feelings, positive and negative. Each member moves toward greater acceptance of his total being - his emotional, intellectual, and physical being, as it is, including its potential.

With individuals less inhibited by defensive rigidity, the possibility of change - in personal attitudes and behavior, in teaching methods, in administrative methods - becomes less threatening.

With a reduction of defensive rigidity, individuals can hear each other, can learn from each other, to a greater extent.

There is a development of feedback from one person to another, such that each individual learns how he appears to others,
and what impact he has in interpersonal relationships.

As individuals hear each other more accurately, an organization tends to become a relationship of persons with common goals, rather than a formal hierarchial structure.

With this greater freedom and improved communication, new ideas, new concepts, new directions, emerge. Innovation becomes a desirable rather than a threatening possibility.

These learnings in the group experience tend to carry over, temporarily or more permanently, into the relationships with peers, students, subordinates, and even to superiors, following the group experience.  

Seminar II: The Teacher and The Learner

The objectives of this projected seminar in the preactive realm would be to help the instructional supervisor gain sensitivity in working with teachers in teaching-learning decision-making operations. Participants, it is hypothesized, might well develop the seminar content around areas such as:

1. Psychological development of the learner and its influence on curriculum
2. Mental development of the learner and its effect on the curriculum
3. Chronological age of the learner and its effect on the curriculum
4. Interests and needs of the learner and their influence on curriculum
5. Teaching methodology
6. Developing a "growth-fostering" learning environment.

The seminar should also have at least two professors from different disciplines (educational psychology and educational sociology). Resource people should be utilized to enrich the seminar.

Seminar III: Problems of Curriculum Theory and Application (Second Semester)

The seminar would support the sources of curriculum, study some of the curriculum theory (Tyler, Taba, Herrick, Alberty, Broudy, Parker and Rubin and the like) and show theory and practice relationships. The course should be flexibly structured in order that the participants would have an opportunity to share in the development of its direction. The seminar, as projected in this scenario,
should be taught by curriculum theoreticians with the use of substantive resource people.

**Seminar IV: Instructional Supervision Seminar**

It is hypothesized that this seminar should be organized to draw from the other three in the simulated solution of problems such as the following:

1. Purpose and nature of supervision
2. Principles of organization for supervision of instruction
3. Supervisory behavior and group process
4. Supervisory behavior and the individual teacher
5. Duties of the supervisor
6. Change Theory

The utilization of case studies, simulations, and a variety of group experiences would be encouraged.

Although the course work would not be pre-structured in the traditional sense, students would be guided toward experiences that would enable them to help others specify and organize:

1. Classroom instructional activities
2. Subject matter content
3. A variety of instructional strategies
   related to specific instructional
   objectives and subject matter
4. Evaluation tools
5. Feedback data from the educational
   program
6. Self-analysis tools
7. Teacher behavior research.

Input from philosophy, psychology and sociology
should be utilized in order to help the instructional
supervisor gain knowledge that will enable him to help
others specify and organize the characteristics of a con­
temporary society. In turn, the instructional super­
visor will be better prepared to help:

1. the teacher define decisions related to
   classroom instruction
2. others specify and organize the interests,
   needs, and characteristics of the learner
   which will help the teacher define
   decisions related to classroom instruction
3. others specify and organize theories of
   learning which will help to define the
   teachers decisions related to classroom
instruction
4. classroom teachers specify and organize curricular approaches
5. define, examine, and solve significant curricular problems
6. others identify needed in-service educational areas
7. develop in-service programs
8. institute systematic curriculum planning machinery which works toward a continuous and cooperative approach.

Clearly, Seminar IV makes extensive use of simulation as an approach to providing curricular content for the prototypical training program. The preceding seminars also use simulation, but the effect in IV is more nearly that of synthesizing the outcomes of the other three. The synthesis here is viewed not as an abstract theory-building exercise but rather as a "bridging" set of operations designed to generate praxiological theory; i.e., principles grounded in practice.
Other Features of the Training Program Scenario

Self-renewal Emphasis

In addition to the four major seminars which have been delineated thus far as features in the scenario designed to help plan the preactive realm of a supervisory training program, there are certain other program components which merit careful consideration. For example, the self-renewal aspect of the program for training instructional supervisors is concerned with the development of sensitivity to "inner being." It is intended that the development of such sensitivity will also increase the prospective instructional supervisor's awareness of self as a member of the educational system. To this end, the hypothetical program is planned to:

1. help the instructional supervisor become more open to one's environment
2. help the instructional supervisor become more integrative of the stimuli in one's environment
3. help the instructional supervisor become more adaptive to a variety of stimuli.
Internship or Field Experience

A central feature of the second year of the hypothetical program projected here is a year-long project, directed and supervised by resident faculty. One group session would be scheduled each two weeks in order to share successes and problem areas with each other's interns. The internship serves to provide an opportunity for the student to develop a relationship between practice and theory in curriculum planning and coordination, research application, in-service education and working with teachers on an individual and/or group basis. Thereby, the intern will be "field-testing" the theory-practice principles he developed through simulated experiences in the preceding seminars.

Upon completion of the internship, the "intern" instructional supervisor would be encouraged to return to the university during summer session and work on an individualized study project. This project is to be determined by the "intern's" assessment of his strengths and weaknesses.

Recognizing one's own needs, developing means for
improving one's self, is part of the importance of the self-renewing process.

The combination of seminars and practicum experiences should guide the future supervisors to the knowledge and skills needed to meet the charge. Involvement in planning, designing, observing and analyzing, searching and abstracting, facilitating and coordinating, evaluating, synthesizing and assimilating provide practice much more conducive to learning than reading texts or listening to lectures. The local school setting provides an excellent natural laboratory which supplies real life problems, real needs, and real learning opportunities for supervisors in preparation. The use of problems that grow out of the internship provides an excellent vehicle to self-growth.

To encourage individuals to become self-renewing, every attempt should be made to interact in the group and to share responsibility for the design of the seminars. Students are to operate as peers with the college faculty. The planned environment of the program should foster experimentation, spontaneity, and creativity.

Small faculty teams could well be organized to work
with a group of students. Each team should include instructional personnel who have the required professional competencies.

The team should act as advisors, teachers and supervisors of the laboratory and field experiences. Public school representatives might well participate on the team.

Seminars should be used to relate the content so that the disciplines are not splintered segments with no consciously-held framework. The team should aim toward developing a core approach, stressing relationships of the disciplines. One might see "earmarks" of the most thoughtfully conceived progressive movement in elementary and secondary education. In effect, the prime factors of the learning experience should be viewed as a process of problem identification, of hypotheses formation, data gathering, ascertaining tentative conclusions and drawing generalizations and applying them to supervisory problems. This is to assert that an inquiry-oriented, problem-solving mode should characterize the total undertaking both in the preactive and the interactive realms.
A Program Planning Guide

From the foregoing hypothetical projections, using a curriculum development scenario based on the hypothetical-deductive analysis of the nature of curriculum for the training of supervisors, it is now possible to propose what might be viewed as an overall planning guide for program development. It will be noted from an examination of Figure 19 that the resident internship is assumed to have a crucial role as a vehicle for helping the supervisor-to-be integrate all of his program experiences into a meaningful whole.
Figure (19): The Role of the Internship in Program Planning
This diagram, showing the relationships of the internship to other components available for selecting appropriate curricular experiences in the preactive realm, suggests the nature of planning guides which are available to the curriculum planner. These and other conceptual tools are the basic outcomes of the investigation reported here.

Summary

Because of the nature of the investigation, no major generalizations, or findings, can be reported in summary form. Rather, the generalizations to be tested through empirical effort in field situations have been presented in context throughout the report. The degree to which the rationale which has been generated meets the criteria of philosophical-logical discourse is, in the final analysis, the test of the validity of the total undertaking.

In a loosely-charted field such as the supervision of instruction, much work remains to be done. This investigation, as noted at many places in its reporting, is viewed only as a rough, initial mapping. However, it is claimed that this mapping is a crucial first step in making order
out of the field and in generating effective guidelines which might be used by institutions in designing more adequate training programs for the preparation of supervisors.

Clearly, there is need for other individuals and groups to engage in similar mapping operations. If, for example, there were alternative scenarios to compare and contrast with the scenario for proactive curriculum planning presented here, significant advances could be made not only in the theory-building realm but also in the practical improvement of training programs.

In conclusion, a paraphrase of Lincoln's Cooper Union speech seems appropriate:

We know better where we now stand and whither we are now tending. We should, therefore, now know better what to do.
FOOTNOTES

CHAPTER I


4. Martha L. King, "Where We Are in Supervision" (paper presented at the Conference on New Roles and Functions for Supervisors and Curriculum Directors, Columbus, Ohio, May 17, 1963), p. 3.


6. L. Craig Wilson, et al., Ibid., p. 29.


12 John I. Goodlad, Ibid., p. 142.

13 John I. Goodlad, Ibid., p. 142.


15 Daniel E. Griffiths, Ibid., p. 105.


19 George A. Beauchamp, Ibid., p. 12.


FOOTNOTES

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22 Alexander Frazier, unpublished lecture, The Ohio State University, 1968.


25 Ibid.


27 Egon G. Guba, "Research in Internal Administration--What Do We Know?" in Administrative Theory as a Guide to Action, ed. by R. F. Campbell and J. M. Lipham (Chicago: Midwest Administrative Center, The University of Chicago, 1960), Chapter VII.

28 Ronald Campbell, Luvern L. Cunningham, and Roderick F. McPhee, The Organization and Control of American Schools (Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill Publishing Co., 1965), pp. 245-246. (The word "supervisor" has been exchanged for the word "administrator.")

29 Ibid., p. 248.


32. Idea of diagram of overlapping role configuration from discussion with Jack R. Frymier.


36. Ibid.


38. Ibid., pp. 5-6.


42 Ben M. Harris, op. cit.
FOOTNOTES

CHAPTER III


5. Ibid.

6. Ibid.


Ibid., pp. 246-247.


Ibid.


Jack Frymier, Ibid., pp. 78-79.


Ross Mooney, taken from unpublished speech given in Columbus, Ohio at the OASCD Research Institute, 1967.


Ronald Lippett, op. cit., p. 52.


FOOTNOTES

CHAPTER IV


FOOTNOTES

CHAPTER V


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