Developing A Model Inservice Program For Preparing Secondary Administrators To Be Effective Instructional Supervisors

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DEVELOPING A MODEL INSERVICE PROGRAM FOR PREPARING SECONDARY ADMINISTRATORS TO BE EFFECTIVE INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISORS

University of Nevada, Las Vegas

Ed.D. 1982

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Developing A Model Inservice Program

for

Preparing Secondary Administrators
to Be

Effective Instructional Supervisors

by

George Ann Rice

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the
College of Education
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The intent of this study was to provide an answer to the following question:

What are the necessary experiences, proficiencies, and skills that an instructional supervisor should have in order to become the teacher educator his position, as currently perceived by educational leaders in the areas of supervision, educational research, and teaching requires?

On the basis of conclusions drawn through research and in the professional literature, a detailed training model was developed to help prepare secondary administrators to be effective instructional supervisors. These conclusions included:

1. A meaningful inservice experience must include an opportunity for each building administrator to examine his own commitment to personal growth and development and his commitment to the professional growth and development of those with whom he works.
2. Inservice experiences should include opportunities for administrators to evaluate and improve their personal interpersonal skills in the areas of communications and human relations.

3. The administrator should have inservice opportunities which will allow him to develop a repertoire of instructional strategies and skills and which will enable him to become a resource for the classroom teacher.

4. The effective instructional supervisor must be able, on the basis of valid and reliable teacher effectiveness research, to help the teacher analyze and improve his planning, teaching, and evaluating processes. Inservice experiences should be provided in this area.

5. The inservice experiences must include giving administrators a chance to learn to use a supervisory model which is consistent with his district's philosophy and objectives.

6. The planners for the inservice training must do everything possible to insure that the "environment" will be an appropriate one in which change can take place.
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Chapter 1

THE PROBLEM DEFINED

Introduction

American education is in a challenging period of its history. The public demand for accountability for learning results is rapidly becoming a fact of school life. A few of the reasons for this increased public interest and involvement are (55, 1979, p. 33):

1. Rising costs of schooling as reflected in tax bills.
2. Dissatisfaction with learning results.
3. Heightened relationships between education and employment as opportunities for the unskilled and undereducated are closed off.
4. Rapid social changes stimulating increased concern for and sharp disagreements over the proper tasks of the school.
5. Expansion of federal aid to education programs, most of which require reports stressing accountability.
6. Growing interest in adapting modern management techniques to the schools.

In the relatively recent past, many programs and practices have been mandated by federal and state governments, including: collective bargaining, pupil and staff integration, affirmative action in employment practices, specified procedures in the placement of exceptional children, statewide testing, minimum proficiency standards in basic skills, and required educational plans and needs assessments (347, 1978, p. 4).

The results of studies published within the last few years have increased the sense of urgency in the public's demand for school improvement. A 1976 study by the American Institute of Research...
(AIR) on the effects of educational innovation found that the "degree of innovation tended to be negatively correlated with reading and math achievement" (118, 1978, p. 74). In August of 1976 the University of California proposed abolishing "bonehead" English as a separate course and incorporating its objectives with those of the "regular" English program, which is required of all entering students, because a majority of students needed remedial help (118, 1978, p. 41). Evaluation reports assessing innovative programs in the past twenty years have revealed that there has been little or no change in improving achievement even after years of effort and excess expenditures (220, 1977, p. 568).

At the same time, it is becoming increasingly clear through research that the quality of education does not depend primarily on the number of students assigned to a class, the number of programs offered, or on the available facilities (although these factors are important), but rather on the quality of the teaching staff (410, 1978). "The teacher makes the difference between school success and failure" (319, 1976, p. 1). This is assuming that accomplishing instructional objectives is the criterion for success. A state-wide study was done in 1976 by the Delaware Department of Public Instruction in an attempt to identify differences between elementary schools achieving higher-than-expected results on state basic skills tests and those achieving lower-than-expected results. The biggest differences between effective schools and less-effective ones were found in the process of instruction. The results showed the following differences (326, 1979, p. 59):

1. Teachers' understanding of the structure and substance of content being taught.
2. Teachers' awareness of the particular characteristics of the group of students being taught.

3. Teachers' use of practices consistent with principles of learning.

In the recent past, it was relatively easy to effect school reform through teacher turnover and teacher recruitment. Now, because of the declining enrollments and the resulting decreases in number of teaching jobs available and in teacher turnover, school reform and improvement must be accomplished through existing personnel (295, 1977, p. 8).

Research studies on the effects of schooling continue to point out that effective instructional leadership in schools enhances student achievement (89, 1980, p. 34). The school principal can make the difference in helping the classroom teacher set and reach instructional goals. However, teachers are generally very suspicious of current methods being used to "assess the quality of their teaching." They feel that the current standards for effective teaching are "too vague and ambiguous to be of any meaningful value" (79, 1971, p. 63). At the same time the results of a survey done by the American College Testing program indicate that teachers seek educational leadership from principals not just clerical supervision (560, 1975, p. 10). A similar study with elementary teachers in New York brought out the following (560, 1975, p. 11):

Eighty-seven percent of the teachers in the study indicated that not only do they want to be a participant in the evaluation and supervision process, but they feel evaluation should be mainly used to diagnose teachers' performances and subsequently strengthen their weaknesses through inservice education.

At a time when the public is demanding accountability, when teachers in general are open to new ideas, and when research has
shown the quality of education depends primarily on the quality of the staff, principals are citing problems pertaining to teacher performance as being the ones most ineffectively handled (181, 1978, p. 63). Critics of the principal's role as instructional leader point to the fact that the degree and professional certification requirements of the various states provide "as high as a 10 to 1 ratio in background experiences in administration and management to the exclusion of experiences preparing them to evaluate the adequacy of instruction and to exercise instructional leadership" (159, 1979, p. 67). In interviews John I. Goodlad held with administrators in California, the same point was made many times: "We want to be educational leaders again: we want to make a difference in the education of our young" (200, 1978, p. 324).

Leaders in the field are finding that to make a difference in the quality of classroom instruction, available principals must (423, 1979, p. 9):

1. Take time to make the connection between instructional skill and the quality of the instructional program.
2. Comprehend and appreciate approximately 15 teaching skills.
3. Be able to demonstrate 6 to 8 of these skills.
4. Know where they can get help to assist with the development of others.

To be effective, instructional supervisors must command both a knowledge of instructional theory and skills of its practical applications with teachers.

To add to a rather dismal picture, the principal has the following dilemmas (340, 1967, p. 3):

1. . . . little if any knowledge of predictable chains of behavior that can be given all teachers in the form of $x, y, z$ will guarantee that $1, 2, 3$ will result.
2. . . . (no agreement) that "profit" in the form of learning outcomes is the only criterion of worth.
3. . . . confusion about how learning of new behavior takes place.

There is no absolute right way inherent in teaching. Rather the instructional supervisor must learn to look at and help teachers to look at teaching competence in terms of the quality of the decisions made (goals, diagnoses, methods and materials, and evaluation) (319, 1976, p. 7).

Statement of the Problem

A changing role for the school administrator is emerging today. "The shift is taking place as administrators are assuming ever increasing responsibilities for what goes on inside the classroom. Consequently, acquisition of classroom observation and supervision techniques is imperative" (146, 1978, p. 8). The purpose of this study was to develop a model for training inservice administrators to become effective instructional supervisors, who are willing and who are prepared to help teachers make better planning decisions, to diagnose students' knowledge and skills, to prescribe appropriate learning experiences, to monitor student learning and on the basis of this monitoring to modify instruction, and to use properly the principles of instructional strategies. The intent then of this study was to provide an answer to the following question:

What are the necessary experiences, proficiencies, and skills that an instructional supervisor should have in order to become the teacher educator that his* position

*For readability purposes, masculine pronouns are used in this paper when referring to supervisors and teachers rather than combination forms such as he/she.
as currently perceived by educational leaders in the areas of supervision, educational research, and teaching requires?

**Importance of the Study**

Since the instructional improvement must not be accomplished through existing personnel, it is the task of instructional supervisors who are charged with the responsibility of bringing about this improvement in the quality of the staff and the programs, to help teachers grow and develop while they are on the job at school. Pre-service education has provided a foundation for the preparation of the competent professional teacher, but this foundation is only the beginning of the process. Good teachers develop their competencies during the course of experience. "Teaching competence, then, is developed and honed through a constant and conscious effort to make professional improvement a career-long process" (410, 1978).

However, effective inservice activities have been the exception rather than the rule. The results of a massive review of inservice education by Joyce, Howey, and Yarger (including a review of approximately 2,000 volumes, 600 journal articles, major position papers, and interviews of more than 1,000 school personnel, community people, and congressional and state department members) were clearly negative, describing the inservice teacher education programs as "weak, impoverished and as relative failures" (187, 1979). These results are surprising when the substantial research done by Rubin reports that "teachers as a whole are remarkably open to new methodology— even hungry for it" (221, 1980, p. 37).

This project is of particular importance because the school
administrators must be prepared to work as instructional supervisors, to focus their efforts on helping teachers to become as effective as possible. This change of emphasis is to be made on a historical foundation of teacher mistrust of supervisors' skills and motives, of principals not being prepared or not being willing to be "teacher educators," of conflicting research results on what is effective teaching, and of increased public demands for accountability. "The exercise of leadership must be in terms of affecting the learning environments that intimately involve the teacher" (83, 1977, p. 12). "Schools will never be any better than teachers who man them" (102, 1975, p. 28).

Limitations

1. The study was developmental and was not statistical in nature.
2. The research studies which were cited included those conducted on the elementary and secondary grade levels and those conducted in the basic skills area.
3. The model developed was designed for building-level secondary school instructional leaders.
4. The model was developed for secondary school instructional leaders in a hypothetical school district.

Assumptions

1. The experiences, proficiencies, and skills needed by building-level secondary school instructional supervisors can be
identified and categorized through the literature and unpublished speeches, surveys, and related materials produced by scholars in the field.

2. In order to change the behavior of secondary-level administrators in the area of instructional supervision, an awareness of its importance and possible impact on the quality of education available to students can be developed.

3. School districts are interested in providing training for their building-level administrators in the area of instructional supervision.

4. Collective bargaining agreements are not severely limiting the prerogatives of the instructional supervisor.

5. The relationship of supervision to instruction is so basic that it is not significantly affected by changing social and economic conditions.

6. One of the identified goals or objectives of the hypothetical school district in Chapter 4 is providing, on the secondary-school level, instructional supervision which is seen by those involved and through objective data as being a major resource in the professional growth and development of teachers, with the ultimate result of increased student achievement on criteria-referenced tests.

Design of the Study

The study was intended to develop a working model for training inservice administrators to become effective instructional supervisors. In order to fulfill the requirements in such an
activity, the following design was used:

1. An extensive review of the literature was conducted in the areas of effective teaching and instructional supervision.

2. A theory of instructional supervision was formulated from the data derived from the review of the literature and was used as a "screen" for the various segments of the training model.

3. Various change models were researched and studied. One which was compatible with the assumptions upon which the theory of instructional supervision was based was chosen and its concepts were the bases for the planned implementation of the training model developed for this project.

4. The experiences, proficiencies, and skills needed by building-level secondary school instructional supervisors were identified and categorized through the information made available in the review of the literature.

5. A training model designed to provide the experiences intended to develop the proficiencies and skills needed to be an effective building-level secondary instructional supervisor was developed.

**Definition of Terms**

The following are the definitions of specific terms used in the body of the paper which may be subject to interpretation:

1. **Achievement**: How well a learner performs a required course objective or set of such objectives, usually as measured by a test (61, 1977, p. xiii).

2. **Assessment**: Evaluation of the learning status of students
for various purposes: (a) to determine readiness for a course, 
(b) to monitor progress during the course, (c) to measure 
achievement at the end of the unit or course (61, 1977, p. xiii).

3. Behavioral Objectives: The aims or objectives of 
education stated as actual performance criteria or as observable 

4. Context Variable: Concerns and conditions to which the 
teacher must adjust; characteristics of the environment about 
which teachers, school administrators, and teacher educators can do 
very little (141, 1974, p. 40).

5. Criterion Reference Tests: Tests which are constructed 
to determine if objectives, competencies, or skill with an 
acceptable level of performance which have been established have 

6. Diagnostic Teaching: The process of prescribing for 
pupils' learning opportunities based on individually determined needs 

7. Evaluation: Acts of decision making, judging, or selecting 
based on a given set of criteria (79, 1971, p. 52).

8. Feedback: In teaching, the confirmation or correction of 
a student response, supplied by the teacher or by an answer key to a 
test or exercise. In course design, the gathering of information 
from learners as a basis for improving the instruction (formative 

9. Goal: A statement of what "ought to be" with respect to 
learner attainments, as distinct from present attainments (61, 1977, 
p. xviii).
10. **Goal Analysis**: The process of collecting a wide range of goals from resource persons, then sorting them to eliminate duplications, then converting the statements to measurable form—as in stating performance objectives (61, 1977, p. xviii).

   
   A. Long-range objectives are drawn from goals. They cover a longer length of time and tend to be less precise. They are established at the beginning of the year as general directions.

   B. Component objectives are always directly related to long-range objectives. They are sub-objectives which identify behaviors that can be observed in the performance of long-range objectives; these are sometimes called "Bench Marks."

   C. Enabling objectives are the smallest part of learning. Each component objective can be broken down into a number of enabling objectives. These are behaviors that are necessary to perform a specific skill or learning.

12. **Inservice Education**: Any planned program of learning opportunities afforded staff members of schools, colleges, or other educational agencies for the purposes of improving the performance of the individual in already-assigned positions (221, 1980, p. 9).

13. **Instructional Design**: The entire process of analysis of learning needs and goals and the development of a delivery system to meet the needs; includes development of instructional materials and activities and try out and revision of all instructional and learner assessment activities (61, 1977, p. xx).

14. **Instructional Improvement**: The achievement of a set of objectives which seem to be directly and purposely related to improved learning experiences for students (478, 1966, p. 37).
15. **Instructional System**: The total package of materials, tests, student guides, and teacher guides that is needed to reach the goals for any instructional unit, course, or curriculum along with all supporting activities and processes required to operate the system as it was designed to be operated (61, 1977, p. xx).

16. **Knowledge of Results**: In learning, information as to whether or not a response is correct and whether progress or improvement is being made (194, 1973, p. 325).

17. **Model**: A set of coherent procedures for actually carrying out a process such as needs assessment, media selection, or evaluation (61, 1977, p. xxiii).

18. **Motivating Device**: Any technique or situation used in teaching for the primary purpose of stimulating interest and augmenting effort on the part of the pupils (194, 1973, p. 375).

19. **Motivation**: The practical art of applying incentives and arousing interest for the purpose of causing a pupil to perform in a desired way; usually designates the act of choosing study materials of such a sort and presenting them in such a way that they appeal to the pupils' interests and cause him to attack the work at hand willingly and complete it with sustained enthusiasm (194, 1973, p. 375).

20. **Need**: A discrepancy or gap between the way things ought to be and the way they "are" (61, 1977, p. xxiv).


22. **Nondirective Teaching**: A technique whereby the instructor as resource person creates for the student an atmosphere of self-
directed learning in order to encourage independent judgment, intellectual curiosity, strong motivation, and both subjective and objective evaluation; the target values become self-understanding and growth in social, intellectual, and emotional patterns (194, 1973, p. 589).

23. **Norm-Referenced Tests**: Tests which are concerned with how one student compares to all the others who took the same tests (255, 1981, p. 277).

24. **Organization**: Relatively permanent interaction system energized by information to coordinate the placement and development of the membership for task accomplishment. Structurally the organization is a set of roles that are defined by information pertaining to shared expectation and articulated values (427, 1980, p. 3)

25. **Organization Change**: Any planned or unplanned alteration of the status quo which affects the structure, technology, and human resources of the total organization (316, 1973, p. 37).

26. **Peer Teaching**: Working with others of similar developmental level to bring about change (194, 1973, p. 589).

27. **Performance Objective**: Statements of what the learners will be able to do or how they will be expected to behave after completing a prescribed unit or course of instruction; may be stated either in terms of a observable action or in terms of a product which results from an action (61, 1977, p. xxv).

28. **Philosophy of Education**: A careful, critical, and systematic intellectual endeavor to see education as a whole and as an integral part of man's culture, the more precise meaning of the term varying with the systematic point of view of the stipulator
29. **Planned Change**: An intended, designed, or purposive attempt by an individual, group, organization, or larger social system to influence directly the status quo of itself, another organization, or a situation (316, 1973, p. 37).

30. **Presage Variables**: Concerns the characteristics of teachers that may be examined for their effects on the teaching process (141, 1974, p. 39).

31. **Process Variables**: Actual activities of classroom teaching (141, 1974, p. 44).

32. **Product Variables**: Outcomes of teaching; those changes that come in pupils as a result of their involvement in classroom activities with teachers and other pupils (141, 1974, p. 46).

33. **Screen**: A positively worded statement that can be used as a criterion for accepting or rejecting possible future actions (416, 1979, p. 41).

34. **Soliciting**: Question asking (97, 1979, p. 534).

35. **Structuring**: Telling the students what is going to happen next—material to be examined and how it will be dealt with (97, 1979, p. 534).

36. **Supervisor**: The professional person responsible for the promotion, development, maintenance, and improvement of instruction in a given field (194, 1973, p. 574).

37. **Teacher Effectiveness**: The ability of a teacher to create a meeting and an interaction between the physical, intellectual, and psychological interests of the student and some given subject matter content; the ability of the teacher to relate the learning activities
to the developmental process of the learners and to their current and immediate interests and needs (194, 1973, p. 586).

38. **Teacher Supervision**: All efforts of designated school officials directed toward providing leadership to teachers in the improvement of instruction; involves the stimulation of professional growth and development of teachers, the selection and revision of educational objectives, materials of instruction, and methods teaching, and evaluation of instruction (194, 1973, p. 574).

39. **Teaching Strategy**: A plan for producing learning, including both the decisions representing the conception of the plan and the actions representing its execution (479, 1969, p. 4).

**Organization of Dissertation**

The dissertation consists of the following chapters:

Chapter 1. **The Introduction**: This section includes the general problem area, the specific problem area, the importance of the study, the limitations and key assumptions, the research approach, definition of terms, and a brief description of the dissertation format.

Chapter 2. **Review of the Literature**: This section consists of an extensive survey of the research and the published and unpublished material which is available in the areas of teacher effectiveness, instructional supervision, and the change process.

Chapter 3. **Research**: This section includes a summary of the findings concerning effective teaching, instructional supervision, and the change process. On the basis of these findings, a theory of instructional supervision has been derived. Also, the concepts
of the change model and the supervision model which were chosen on the basis of these findings are outlined in this chapter.

Chapter 4. **The Model:** This section consists of a training model which was designed to provide building-level secondary administrators with the experiences and knowledge necessary to enable them to develop the proficiencies and skills that the instructional supervisors who are teacher educators should have. The model is based on the summaries drawn in Chapter 3 and supported by the theory of instructional supervision developed and the change and supervision models accepted in the same chapter.

Chapter 5. **Conclusions and Recommendations:** The study is summarized in this chapter with emphasis upon the results obtained and the possible contributions which can be made by those results. Suggestions for further research are also described.
Chapter 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Instructional Supervision

What is the purpose of making instructional supervision an educational priority for the building-level administrator?
Researchers are beginning to conclude that regardless of the size of the district, one of the most significant variables between effective schools and ineffective ones is the principal. "Only the classroom teacher can improve the learning of pupils, and only the site administrator is available on a continuous basis to orchestrate the resources required to improve classroom instruction" (34, 1978, p. 27). The teacher's supervisor is indeed in the best position to help him improve his performance. Through direct observation in the classroom and related meaningful feedback on the teacher's performance, the supervisor can provide the most relevant and continuous inservice that the teacher could have (431, 1979, p. xiii). Based upon interpretations of research by Rosenshine, Edmonds and Mortimore, an effective school displays the following characteristics (467, 1981, p. 19):

1. Has strong leadership, especially in reading and math instruction.
2. Provides a pleasant and orderly atmosphere; the classroom climate is business-like with teacher-directed student activities.
3. Expects all students to learn.
4. Makes learning the chief priority; all staff members understand this emphasis.
5. Monitors student progress carefully, reports test results, and uses them to improve teaching and learning.
6. Gives students adequate time on task and opportunity to learn expected content.
7. Stresses rewards rather than punishment.
8. Is committed to mastery of subject matter; insists that each student succeed before moving on to the next unit.
9. Has high expectations for teachers as well as for students.
10. Encourages and facilitates visits of teachers to other teachers' classrooms to observe techniques and amount of time on task.
12. Conducts a yearly self-evaluation, involving all the staff, to find areas of strength and weakness.

Inservice Training Programs Needed

Recent studies have shown that the "school principal can be the pivotal factor in determining the effectiveness of a school" (77, 1975, p. 74) and that the principal's method of working constitutes the "key to what can be realized in the school toward improvement in instruction, curriculum, morale, or any other specified area" (296, 1979, p. 53). Principals indicate that they believe instructional leadership is a very desirable role, a very necessary one, but that the role is not being carried out to their satisfaction (381, 1979, p. 33). One possible cause of this problem may be that they have not generally received specific or sufficient education and training to equip them to be effective instructional supervisors (159, 1979, p. 67). In fact there is very little agreement on what an effective instructional supervisor does even though 92 universities are preparing people at the doctoral level to be leaders in the field (513, 1979, p. 586).
Because of the lack of expertise as instructional leaders, principals become involved in facility, budget, or other support concerns—areas in which they feel more comfortable. They become satisfied to make visits to classrooms once or twice a year and to write up one or two brief statements on the teacher's professional competence at the end of the year (391, 1977, p. 248). Because of the disparity between what supervision could be and what most teachers experience (389, 1971, p. 3), supervisor-teacher relationships are not generally mutually supportive. Arthur Blumberg concludes as a result of his work (47, 1974, p. 1):

1. Teachers see much of what occurs among themselves and supervisors as a waste of time and at best, harmless.
2. The character of the relationships between teachers as a group and supervisors as a group can be described as somewhat of a cold war.
3. Supervisor-teacher relationships are largely characterized by lack of trust, little or no real respect, and closedness and defensiveness.

Building-level administrators must realize the potential they have in helping teachers grow and become more effective. They must consider and hopefully accept these basic assumptions (32, 1976, p. 20):

1. Teaching is a set of identifiable patterns of behavior.
2. When selected patterns of teacher behavior are changed, improvement of instruction can be achieved.
3. The supervisor-teacher relationship must be built on mutual trust if change is to take place.

The need for inservice experiences to help building-level administrators become more effective instructional leaders is great, and yet less than one half of one percent of the federal and state monies available for staff development has been used in the area of developing skills of administrators who work directly with teachers (402, 1977, p. 2).
Inservice Training Program Guidelines

A study was done as part of a doctoral program at the University of California, Los Angeles to develop guidelines for an administrator staff development program for elementary school administrators in Los Angeles. Those involved in the surveys included school administrators, area superintendents, and school superintendents in New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, Detroit, San Diego, and San Francisco. On the basis of the findings of the study, the following guidelines were recommended for the planning and implementation of an inservice program for elementary administrators in Los Angeles. These same guidelines should be considered by educators who are in the process of establishing an administrator inservice program (16, 1973, pp. 100-102):

1. The inservice education program for administrators should have the financial support and the backing of all levels of the education system.

2. Participation in an administrator staff development program should be on a voluntary basis.

3. In order to meet the needs and interests of as many administrators as possible, inservice education activities should be presented on more than one topic or problem at a time in an on-going administrator staff development program.

4. The content of the inservice education activities for administrators should be based on the expressed high priority needs and interests of the participants.

5. The content of the administrator staff development program should be comprehensive and include long-range goals.

6. The philosophy and goals of the administrator staff development program should be determined by the participants and sponsors.

7. Inservice education should be conducted in an atmosphere of support, openness, and creativity, where concern for the individual, appreciation of mutual worth, and awareness that people are at different levels are encouraged.

8. The most appropriate type of meeting for the effective presentation of particular kinds of information should be selected.
9. The development of the awareness and skillful use of group processes should be built into the administrator staff development program.

10. Expertise which is shared in inservice education programs should come within as well as from outside the organization.

11. The administrator staff development program should be continuous, and it should be composed of subunits whose duration is limited by both content and interest of the participants.

12. Orientation to a position should be given any new administrator before he takes over his duties, and that orientation should be the beginning of his continuous inservice education.

13. Varying levels of opportunity (credential programs, doctoral programs, etc.) should be included in administrator staff programs.

14. There should be incentives for greater involvement in administrator staff development programs.

15. A goal of developing practical "take home" solutions to problems should be included as one of the objectives of inservice education programs for administrators.

16. Evaluation and adaptation of the inservice education activities engaged in should be an integral part of the administrator staff development program.

17. Follow-up investigations as to whether changes have taken place in administrators as a consequence of their participation in the inservice education program should be made.

18. Rich and multiple resources should be made available to the participants in the program so that they have the latest information and assistance in problem-solving techniques.

19. Most of the administrator staff development meetings should be scheduled during released time in the school day.

20. The site of the inservice education meetings should be readily accessible to as many administrators as possible.

21. In the selection of a site for the administrator staff development program, consideration should be given to the educational needs of the participants as well as to those that fulfill the physical requirements for the meetings.

22. A system of informing administrators of forthcoming inservice education activities should be put into written form and distributed to each of them.

23. Arrangements for the retrieval (for those who must miss a meeting) of inservice education information should be made.

The objectives of the program should be derived from a continuing assessment of the principals' needs and those of their schools. There are general objectives which should be given serious consideration (77, 1975, p. 74):
1. To become aware of themselves as educational leaders.
2. To develop and define goals, objectives, and strategies for their schools and for themselves.
3. To develop a program of assessment of staff, students, programs, and themselves.
4. To understand how adults learn and how to conduct staff development programs.
5. To understand the learning and growth of children.
6. To become competent in curriculum and curriculum development.
7. To develop their schools as total learning environments.
8. To become more competent in school management.
9. To be more effective with parents and the school community.

Specific Content to be Covered through Inservice

**Self-awareness.** The administrator who is committed to bringing about change and improvement in his building must also have a personal philosophy oriented to self-renewal (32, 1976, p. 11). Included in this self-renewal orientation of the school leader must be an attitude renewal. He must believe he can improve and become someone better in his job than he is. He must know how he is perceived by others, how accurate his self-perceptions are, how well he really knows himself (32, 1976, p. 11). He should look at his own commitment to the improvement of instruction in his school and compare it to the things effective instructional leaders have in common (396, 1979, p. 405):

1. They believe that instruction is important. Otherwise they would immerse themselves in administrative duties that could be capably performed by others.
2. They analyze their own commitment, asking themselves: When did I last attend a curriculum conference? How many curriculum journals do I read? How frequently do instructional items appear on staff meeting agendas?
3. They act. Instructional leadership requires ideas, plans, techniques—that must be diverse enough to match the needs of teachers who differ in their backgrounds, abilities and motives.
4. They persist in setting realistic expectancies and communicating them clearly.
He should compare his own behaviors with those that are associated with positive outcomes according to recent research (see Table 1).

The administrator who is committed to being an effective instructional supervisor must be willing to improve or even develop interpersonal skills (32, 1976, p. 13).

Communications. "In the area of leadership there is no talent more essential than one's ability to communicate" (214, 1974, p. 4). Peter Drucker in his book, The Practice of Management, says (138, 1954, p. 346): "The supervisor has a specific tool--information. He does not control people; he guides, he organizes, and motivates people to do their own work. His tool, his only tool, to do all this, is the spoken or written word." No matter how positive the intentions, how powerful the concepts, and how potentially productive the ideas, if a person cannot communicate he will never be a leader (except perhaps a formal leader). There are five basic reasons why we communicate (214, 1974, p. 4):

1. Coordinate--Bring all functions, activities, and individuals together as a team effort
2. Evaluate--Measure controls, standards, and progress
3. Innovate--Create and maintain a competitive advantage
4. Motivate--Prompt employees to perform
5. Organize--Divide the work among the people.

These reasons apply to managers who work through people to reach organizational goals including the instructional supervisor. There are basic things the supervisor must do before he can communicate his true message. He must (214, 1974, p. 29):

1. Know his communication goals
2. Know his audience
3. Know the facts--give the receiver the who, what, where, when, and why of the message
4. Determine the medium
5. Determine the timing.
Table 1. Leadership Behavior Positively Associated with School Outcomes (517, 1982, p. 350)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supervisory Behavior</th>
<th>New York State Performance</th>
<th>School Improvement Project</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Weber</td>
<td>Review</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coordinates</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional Programs</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emphasizes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Achievement</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequently</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluates</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pupil Progress</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Provides</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Orderly Atmosphere</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sets</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Instructional Strategies</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supports</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>x</td>
<td>x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. Anticipate the response.
7. Keep channels open—in all directions and as directly as possible
8. Measure the results.

Supervisors should be well aware of the anticipatory nature of human interaction. While communicating, each participant momentarily assumes the role of the other person. He judges how what he says will be interpreted by the other party, interprets for himself what he thinks will be the reaction of the other person, and bases his own behavior on this anticipation (2, 1978, p. 441). Communication is indeed a complex matter.

In a study of communications, Paul Rankin of Ohio State University was able to determine that white collar workers spend in the different areas of communication (214, 1974, p. 45):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Activity</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>16%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Listening</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is obvious that the supervisor who hopes to be effective must concern himself with improving his listening skills.

**Human Relations.** Human relations skill is another of the interpersonal skills which an effective instructional supervisor should strive to improve or develop. Unless an adult sees and feels a need for change and wants to improve, no amount of supervision is going to make any lasting difference; nor will a teacher be receptive to help if the help offered or the person offering the help is seen as threatening (306, 1974, p. 26). Morris Cogan conducted several studies on the basis of which he concluded that "psychologically (supervision) is almost inevitably viewed as an active threat to the teacher, possibly endangering his professional standing and under-
mining his confidence" (513, 1979, p. 586).

Thomas J. Serviovanni has found that if a supervisor has a well organized plan of action, has set high performance goals, and is personally well qualified for his job, his success or failure is still dependent to a large extent on how he works with his staff (494, 1971, p. 9).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>If A Supervisor:</th>
<th>or If A Supervisor:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Has negative and distrustful assumptions about teachers and their willingness to work</td>
<td>a. Has positive and trustful assumptions about his teachers and their willingness to work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Relies heavily on external control and position authority</td>
<td>b. Relies heavily on intrinsic control and ability authority</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Uses mostly man to man supervisory techniques</td>
<td>c. Uses group supervisory techniques</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Decides the goals and objectives</td>
<td>d. Works to build identity and commitment to school goals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Relies heavily on rules, regulations and status system</td>
<td>e. Relies heavily on developing people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. Assumes major responsibility for exerting direct instructional leadership</td>
<td>f. Helps to facilitate the emergence of leadership in the teaching staff</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

His Faculty Will Display

| 1. Less group and school loyalty | 1. Greater group and school loyalty |
| 2. Lower performance goals | 2. Higher performance goals |
| 3. Less identification and commitment | 3. Greater identification and commitment |
| 4. An undue interest in the conditions of work and other extrinsic factors | 4. More interest in the work itself and other intrinsic factors |
| 5. Feelings of unreasonable pressure | 5. Less feelings of unreasonable pressure |
6. Less favorable attitudes toward supervisors  

7. Lower motivation to work hard on behalf of kids

and His School Will Attain

a. Less performance from teachers  
b. Less performance from students  
c. Higher absence and turnover rates for teachers

a. Greater performance from teachers  
b. Greater performance from students  
c. Lower absence and turnover rates for teachers

For years the idea has been accepted that students have different abilities and personalities and should have as individualized a program as is possible. It must be noted as well that teachers also have different abilities and personalities. The supervisory help offered to teachers should reflect the recognition of these differences. "Supervisors should view teachers as highly competent professionals who seek assistance for the improved fulfillment of their professional potential" (32, 1976, p. 5). Only on this type of foundation can real change and meaningful improvement begin to take place in the instructional program.

It is evident that both human relations and communications are vital interpersonal skills that the effective instructional supervisor must have. The following are guidelines that offer the potential for improving supervisor capability in these two critical areas while creating the all-important atmosphere of mutual trust and respect which is required for change (2, 1978, pp. 442-443):

1. Supervisors should regard each individual teacher as having a unique self rather than just a group member
mechanically reacting to organizational forces and environmental stimuli.

2. Supervisors need to understand that each teacher's unique personality is developing and being reaffirmed each day and that their behavior is either facilitating or retarding teacher growth. Supervision, like interaction, is a process of shared influence and dependence.

3. Supervisors must be aware of the various roles which teachers are to play, take these roles into account, be able to take the role of teachers with whom they work, and be empathetic to the needs of their teaching colleagues. Supervisors will need to ask themselves such questions as "What is the teacher's role, how does he perceive his role, and how does he perceive the supervisor's role?"

4. Supervisors need to be able to recognize, assess, define, evaluate, restructure, and reassess the situations in which they are working with teachers. Supervisors must take into account, act by act, minute by minute, and step by step, the teacher's behavior as it unfolds.

5. Supervisors should refrain from stereotyping teachers as this practice is unfair, unsound, and counterproductive to cordial and healthy supervisor-teacher relations.

6. Supervisors should make every attempt to communicate high work expectations and personal, professional acceptance of the teachers with whom they interact.

7. Supervisors need to be aware that the minimum acceptable behaviors are known to all teachers. A supervisor who looks at his staff as a group, and only superficially involves himself with individual teachers must be aware that teachers can "play the role of teacher" during supervisor-teacher interactions without "getting the job done" in the classroom.

8. Supervisors must develop more skill in taking the perspective of the teachers with whom they work. By showing more genuine concern and appreciation for the beliefs, opinions, and values of their teaching colleagues, supervisors will be setting a climate or tone from which productive relationships may develop.

Respect can also be generated by demonstrating to the staff that the supervisor is well prepared for what he is doing and that he is competent. This competency can be communicated to the staff in many ways, including the following (32, 1976, p. 16):
1. Show staff he is well acquainted with current instructional and curriculum trends.
2. Must be in a position to conduct inservice programs which focus on current instructional approaches.
3. Must help staff plan and evaluate any new curricular ideas.
4. Must help establish goals and objectives for change.
5. Be able to involve others in development of new programs and processes.

Included in the self-renewal orientation of the effective instructional supervisor must be the willingness to refine or even to learn specific theories and concepts which are pertinent to teaching.

"To observe effectively a supervisor must have an understanding of educational philosophy, the psychology of learning, methods of teaching, curriculum objectives, and materials of instruction."

(210, 1973, p. 4).

Principles of learning. The supervisor must be familiar with the principles of learning. He must be able to (431, 1979, p. 4):

1. Define objectives clearly (in observable and measurable ways).
2. Set up criteria for correct and incorrect responses.
3. Determine appropriate reinforcement.
4. Arrange the learning environment in order to elicit correct responses.
5. Provide for transfer of learning--generalizability.
6. Provide opportunity for practice and review.

As the supervisor works with teachers, he must present a model of the type of behavior he is asking the teachers to demonstrate. His preparation must be just as thoughtful, just as theory-based, as that of a classroom teacher. The same planning procedures in which the teacher engages are also necessary in one type of supervision process--the clinical model (295, 1977, p. 10):
### Steps of Inquiry

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Clinical Supervisor</th>
<th>Classroom Teacher</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>1.</strong> The goal is to improve classroom instruction</td>
<td><strong>1.</strong> The goal is to improve pupil growth and development</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>2.</strong> Identify the professional activities you would like your teachers to carry out</td>
<td><strong>2.</strong> Identify patterns of pupil behavior you would like your pupils to exhibit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>3.</strong> Identify at least two different patterns of supervisory behavior you think will support the desired teacher activities</td>
<td><strong>3.</strong> Identify at least two different patterns of teacher behavior that you think will support the desired pupil behaviors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>4.</strong> Practice these supervisory patterns in order to learn them and to develop observation schemes for analyzing them</td>
<td><strong>4.</strong> Practice these teaching patterns in microteaching and train an associate to observe these patterns systematically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>5.</strong> Try out both supervisory patterns in comparable circumstances and collect data to evaluate and compare the two patterns</td>
<td><strong>5.</strong> Teach with each pattern in comparable situations and collect observation data to show that the patterns were performed, together with data which show pupil reactions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>6.</strong> Analyze the data and decide which pattern of supervision tends to help teachers improve instruction more effectively</td>
<td><strong>6.</strong> Analyze the data and decide which teaching pattern promotes pupil learning more effectively</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The general conditions of learning can be stated briefly (181, 1976, p. 115):

The learners know what the objectives are; they attend to the learning task; they have learned and can recall any information or skills prerequisite to the learning task; they know whether or not their responses are adequate and their correct responses gain reinforcement.

There are several basic things that the principal working in a staff development orientation can do to create the conditions
(those which he can influence) in which adults will probably be more ready to learn (306, 1974, p. 30).

1. Begin with problems real to the learner involved but which contain challenge (this will reduce initial tension)
2. Begin with problems which will likely yield success; failure on a self-selected problem is not so devastating as a failure on an imposed task
3. Allow time for development of understanding and for achievement of new skills and behaviors
4. Develop a strong group feeling, but with full respect for the individuals within the group
5. Provide an atmosphere of freedom and spontaneity—an emotional climate free from tensions contribute to confidence and security
6. Provide support in the form of recognition for contributions and praise for results
7. Provide assurance that individual learners may contribute freely, may differ with the majority, and may suggest new leads
8. Recognize and build upon differences in interests and abilities within the group. A favorable effect results from aid given to learners in understanding themselves, both their capabilities and limitations, and in understanding their relationship with others and with the group.
9. Adjust the pace carefully to the individuals and the group; slow acceptance and development are natural.

The following guidelines for planning learning experiences for school administrators were derived from recent research on the nature of adulthood and adult learning and should be considered by administrators as they work with teachers (431, 1979, p. 2):

1. More committed learning will occur if adults are treated as co-designers of their learning goals and experiences.
2. Adults have a great deal of first-hand experience that can be tapped as a valuable resource for learning.
3. Most adults learn best that which they can use immediately.
4. Adults have definite opinions regarding authority; some want it, others don't.
5. Adults need the opportunity to apply and try out new knowledge as it is learned.
6. Adults need to know where they stand. The use of feedback in learning situation is critical, not only for reinforcement but for helping them in reference to desired learning outcomes.
7. Adults have individual needs in terms of goals, activities, learning style preferences, and time lines.
8. Adults are supposed to appear in control. Thus, they often restrict their responses, especially emotional ones, to
safe, acceptable areas.

9. Adults have many preoccupations besides their professional development.

10. Many participants come to a conference solely for opportunities it provides to socialize, discuss current issues and problems, or strengthen and enlarge networks with their professional peers.

11. Adults have set habits and strong tastes.

A working knowledge of the principles of learning, then, is vital to the effective instructional supervisor as he assumes the role of teacher-educator and helps his staff to understand and to apply these principles.

**Methods and techniques.** Supervisors should be most attentive not to the teacher activity or teaching method but to what happens to the learners as a result of what the teacher does (386, 1981, p. 47). The reason the teacher is in the classroom is to effect predetermined changes in the learner. The teacher is an instructional failure no matter how polished his presentation if the students are not learning, other conditions being stable. If the supervisor realizes that his ultimate responsibility is to assure that learning takes place in that classroom, his approach will be to (386, 1981, p. 48):

1. Help teachers select defensible educational objectives
   A. Identify any curricular constraints (such as regulations)
   B. State all objectives operationally (in terms of observable learner behavior)
   C. Consider alternate objectives
   D. Evaluate individually potential objectives

2. Assist the teacher in achieving instructional objectives (supervisor should be ends not means oriented; only if instructional objectives have not been achieved should the supervisor consider the instructional means employed by the teacher).

3. Use (the results of) commonly employed measures of teacher
effectiveness to assess the results (systematic observation, criterion-referenced tests, etc).

To be prepared to help the teacher in suggesting ways of achieving the instructional objectives if there is a problem in that area, the instructional supervisor should comprehend and appreciate approximately 15 teaching skills; be able to demonstrate 6 to 8 of these skills; and know where the teacher and he can get help to assist with the development of others (423, 1979, p. 9).

Those involved would be able to gain a better perspective of the supervisory process if, as J. Marin Cook suggests (113, 1971, p. 10): "The effectiveness of a supervisor (was) measured by the increased achievement levels of the students."

Supervisory model. Once the instructional supervisor has the necessary attitudes, skills, and understandings that he needs to work effectively with teachers, he must plan the supervisory program which he can successfully use as a means for reaching his objectives. The general instructional supervisory program should promote the awareness of strengths and weaknesses of the teacher, provide experiences for growth and improvement, and encourage beneficial changes in the school. The supervision experience should provide the following outcomes (144, 1978, p. 17).

1. A clear definition of the qualities and characteristics of an excellent teacher in light of district and school objectives and goals.
2. A means whereby teacher and administrator can analyze the professional growth and development of the teacher.
3. A constructive approach to self analysis and improvement.
4. A provision for understanding and establishing better relationships with pupils, other teachers, parents, and the community.
5. Improved teaching ability and classroom techniques.
6. Provision of a means for identification of teachers'
interests, aptitudes, and special abilities.

7. Improvement in general school morale.

It should include the following general guidelines (400, 1974, p. 13):

1. Evaluation should be a continuous process.
2. No one technique or instrument is sufficient to do the total job.
3. By using a combination of techniques, a helpful data bank of a teacher's competencies can be accumulated.
4. The evaluation of teachers' needs should take place in light of specific teaching and supervision objectives.
5. The teaching act must be broken down into specific skills which can be evaluated and an appropriate instrument and technique to measure each skill must be used.
6. Evaluators must have adequate training and time to do the job.
7. Evaluation program should have broad teacher involvement in their formulation and application.
8. All data collected by evaluators should be made available to the teachers so that improvement of instruction can be facilitated.

Before choosing the model of supervision he prefers, the instructional supervisor should consider as many as he can, weighing each against his own philosophy, educational goals and objectives, and talents and skills. According to Paul A. Pohland, in a paper presented at the 1976 annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, the instructional supervisor will not be able to draw upon the conclusions based upon scientific research in the field (433, 1976, p. 3):

Significant advances in any field are dependent upon the cumulative contributions of scholars working in that field. Supervision fares badly in this respect. There is no substantial body of research to draw upon. Even the clinicians are reluctantly compelled to rest their case on personal conviction and experience.

Table 2 shows seven models of supervision that the instructional supervisor might consider (433, 1976, pp. 7-9).

As the professional educator begins to understand more about the methods by which teachers can effect changes in learners
Table 2. Models of Supervision (433, 1976, pp. 7-9)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Administrative</th>
<th>Clinical</th>
<th>Counseling</th>
<th>Curriculum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Conception of teaching</td>
<td>Organizational activity enacted by teachers in conformity with role expectations; a coordinated processing of students through the production sub-system.</td>
<td>An intellectual and social act characterized by patterned teacher-student interaction; a teacher behavior.</td>
<td>Enactment of a teacher's personal role definition in an instructional setting.</td>
<td>Transmission of knowledge organized by disciplines; may or may not include a value dimension.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Basic assumptions undergirding model</td>
<td>Supervision is an element of administration and is therefore executed by administrators; teachers are subordinate (if professional) members of an organization.</td>
<td>What the teacher does is the basic determinant of what students learn; teaching is behavior, therefore improvement is secured by altering teacher behavior.</td>
<td>What the teacher is or feels about himself personally is the basic determinant of his behavior and subsequently of what students learn.</td>
<td>The content of what is taught largely determines instructional processes; hence improvement of instruction begins with curriculum reform.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Focus of supervision</td>
<td>Typically on maintenance and control; exemplified in formal teacher evaluation as personnel decision-making mechanisms.</td>
<td>Analysis of teaching.</td>
<td>Person of the teacher, particularly the affective structural pro-orientation to role; cessess may focus on secondary processes.</td>
<td>Curriculum reform and associated in-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Administrative</th>
<th>Clinical</th>
<th>Counseling</th>
<th>Curriculum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4. Supervisory</td>
<td>Primarily administrative or quasi-administrative; teacher evaluation a major function; may be utilized as a linkage mechanism.</td>
<td>Designed to provide teacher in-service training (&quot;teacher educator&quot;) with emphasis on the analysis of teaching.</td>
<td>Essentially a counseling role instituted to aid in the development in the teacher's professional identity.</td>
<td>Curriculum consultant (or specialist) delegated leadership in the identification of instructional objectives, determination of curriculum priorities, and R and D processes.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>role and function</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Structure of</td>
<td>No clearly articulated structure; characteristically dependent upon secondary sources of information, infrequent and unscheduled classroom visitations, and utilization of formal evaluation instruments.</td>
<td>1. Pre-observation conference</td>
<td>2. Interpretation</td>
<td>1. Self-analysis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Administrative</th>
<th>Clinical</th>
<th>Counseling</th>
<th>Curriculum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7. Specialized supervisor training</td>
<td>Background in administration (theory and practice).</td>
<td>Broad background in the behavioral sciences and in-depth knowledge of instructional processes.</td>
<td>Extensive professional and clinical training in counseling psychology.</td>
<td>Extensive background in curriculum theory and R&amp;D processes; specific discipline mastery a probable necessity.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Intended outcome</td>
<td>Increased teacher compliance; increased probabilities of achieving organizational maintenance goals.</td>
<td>Teacher mastery of teaching craft; teacher as clinical analyst of his own teaching.</td>
<td>Establishment of personal role definition.</td>
<td>Curriculum reform.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Administrative</th>
<th>Clinical</th>
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<th>Curriculum</th>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Motivation</th>
<th>Human Relations</th>
<th>Micro-Teaching</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Conception of teaching</td>
<td>An instrumental act energized by teacher needs and drives.</td>
<td>A face-to-face interactive process encompassing teacher and student personality variables within an instructional environment.</td>
<td>Execution of an identifiable set of pedagogical roles or acts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Basic assumptions undergirding model</td>
<td>Teacher performance is a function of teacher motivation. Stress is an effective motivator.</td>
<td>Teachers are internally motivated; improvement of instruction occurs through emerging latent abilities.</td>
<td>Teaching is behavior. Improvement occurs as sets of discreet skills are mastered and integrated.</td>
</tr>
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Table 2 (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Motivation</th>
<th>Human Relations</th>
<th>Micro-Teaching</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4. Supervisory role and function</td>
<td>Quasi-administrative; responsible for generating cognitive dissonance (inducing stress) as a means of raising teacher motivation levels.</td>
<td>Administrative or quasi-administrative given the broad scope of expectations; major thrust on enhancing social integration within the context of a formal organization.</td>
<td>Technical specialist designed to provide teacher training in instruction technologies.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Structure of model</td>
<td>No singular model; typically includes observation followed by providing negative feedback either implicitly or explicitly.</td>
<td>No singular model; typically includes face-to-face interaction; may utilize formal sensitivity</td>
<td>1. Identification of skill to be learned 2. Modeling 3. Practice 4. Demonstration 5. Feedback 6. (Re-cycle as group interaction. necessary).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Variables</td>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>Human Relations</td>
<td>Micro-Teaching</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Conceptual base</td>
<td>Motivation psychology.</td>
<td>Group dynamics.</td>
<td>Instructional processes</td>
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<td>(technology).</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Specialized supervisor training</td>
<td>Background in clinical psychology.</td>
<td>Major specialty in group</td>
<td>Primarily in the instructional</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>dynamics and interpersonal</td>
<td>process domain, especially the</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>relations.</td>
<td>technologies of teaching.</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. Intended outcome</td>
<td>Heightened level of teacher motivation</td>
<td>Reduction in potential</td>
<td>Teacher mastery of the</td>
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<td></td>
<td>to perform.</td>
<td>dissonance among organizational</td>
<td>technologies of teaching.</td>
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<tr>
<td>9. Organizational position of supervisor</td>
<td>Line office.</td>
<td>expectations and individual</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>and group needs.</td>
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<tr>
<td>10. Power base of supervisor</td>
<td>Legitimate, reward coercive and expert</td>
<td>Referent and expert power.</td>
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<td>power.</td>
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and how the instructional supervisor can make a positive difference in the teacher's classroom performance, it becomes evident that the task now is to redefine the principal's role in ways that reflect its importance to growth and change, and then to provide opportunities for professional growth that match role expectations.

**Teacher Effectiveness**

Until the early 1970's research on teacher effectiveness produced very disappointing (for the professional educator) results. As the Committee on Criteria of Teacher Effectiveness of the American Educational Research Association commented in 1953 (141, 1974, p. 13):

> The simple fact of the matter is that after 40 years of research on teacher effectiveness during which a vast number of studies have been carried out, one can point to few outcomes that a superintendent of schools can safely employ in hiring a teacher or granting tenure, that an agency can employ in certifying teachers, or a teacher-education faculty can employ in planning or improving teacher education programs.

The Coleman Report in 1966 (107, 1966, p. 733) and its reinterpretations by Mosteller and Moynihan in 1972 (379, 1972, p. 733) and by Jencks, et al. in 1972 (256, 1972, p. 733) seemed to indicate that schools and teachers in those schools had very little effect on the academic progress made by students. Popham in 1971 (438, 1971, p. 733) reported no systematic differences in the teaching behavior between trained instructors and comparison groups without special training. One of the conclusions drawn in the study was that experienced teachers are not particularly skilled in bringing about prescribed behavior changes in learners. Teachers were rarely found who established clearly stated instructional objectives in terms of learner behavior prior to teaching and then
set out to achieve those objectives (437, 1971, p. 115). Rosenshine in 1970 (462, 1970, p. 77) concluded that teaching acts themselves may be unstable. Moon in 1971 (372, 1971, p. 177) indicated that most teaching acts are unrelated to student outcomes. Rosenshine and Furst in 1971 (465, 1971, p. 77) suggested that the "generalizability of behavioral measurements has not been adequately examined or established to conclusions about the relationship between measures of teacher behavior and student outcomes are premature." Heath and Nielson in 1974 (228, 1974, p. 5) analyzed 50 process-product studies examined by Rosenshine and Furst and on the basis of that examination concluded:

1. An empirical basis for performance-based teacher education does not exist
2. Operational definitions of teaching do not in many instances correspond to the teaching variables cited
3. Operational definitions of student achievement are inadequate
4. Research designs of most studies are weak
5. Statistical analysis is undependable in many of the studies.

Shavelson and Dempsey-Atwood in 1976 (497, 1976, p. 77) summarized the knowledge in the area of teacher effectiveness, indicating that "consistent conclusions from research on teaching are that teacher effects on pupil outcomes are unstable." The partial results of the comprehensive study reported by Dunkin and Biddle in 1974 (141, 1974, pp. 363-406) and shown in Tables 3, 4, 5 and 6 summarize the problems inherent in attempting to rely on the pre-1970's research in the area of teacher effectiveness as guides to action in the improvement of education.

Possible Causes of Poor Research Results

Why did these studies fail to produce definitive results
Table 3. Findings for Teacher "Indirectness." (Numbers in parenthesis indicate number of studies on which finding is based. Braces group together findings that are in conflict) (141, 1974, p. 363)

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<td>Teacher &quot;Indirectness&quot;</td>
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<tr>
<td>Higher social class of pupils (11)</td>
<td>Higher intelligence of pupils (1)</td>
<td>Unrelated to ratings by supervisor (1)</td>
<td>Higher scores on NTE history and philosophy examinations (1)</td>
<td>Unrelated to use of computer-assisted instruction (1)</td>
<td>Reading lessons (1)</td>
<td>&quot;indirect&quot; (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ratings by supervisors as &quot;superior&quot; (1)</td>
<td>More pupil talk (3)</td>
<td>Greater pupil achievement (10)</td>
<td>Unrelated to pupil achievement (5)</td>
<td>More positive pupil attitudes (1)</td>
<td>MTAI (2)</td>
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Table 3 (continued)

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<td>Process variable</td>
<td>induced:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Higher scores on ego strength (MMPI) (1)</td>
<td>Greater pupil creativity (1)</td>
<td>Lower pupil anxiety (1)</td>
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<td>Lower scores on authoritarianism (F scale) (1)</td>
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<td>Unrelated to scores on EPPS (1)</td>
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<td>More humanistic (and less custodial) attitudes toward pupils (1)</td>
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<td>Unrelated to humanistic and custodial attitudes toward pupils (1)</td>
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<td>associated with:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Higher teacher expectations for pupil achievement (1)</td>
<td>Unrelated to teacher expectations for pupil achievement (4)</td>
<td>Experimental training using PIAC or other such instruments (9)</td>
<td>Experimental training produced no difference (1)</td>
<td>Experimental training produced short-term increase, long-term decrease (1)</td>
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Table 4. Findings for Climate Variables (141, 1974, pp. 365-366)

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sex of pupil (boys receive more praise) (5)</td>
<td>Unrelated to sex of pupils (4) toward class (1)</td>
<td>Greater pupil achievement (3)</td>
<td>Curvilinear or complex relationships with pupil achievement (1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Positive attitudes toward pupil (3)</td>
<td>Unrelated to sex of pupils (4) toward class (1)</td>
<td>More positive pupil attitudes (1)</td>
<td>Unrelated to pupil attitudes (4)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lower-class schools (1)</td>
<td>Unrelated to dogmatism (2)</td>
<td>More positive pupil attitudes (1)</td>
<td>Unrelated to pupil attitudes (4)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Unrelated to social class of school (1)</td>
<td>Higher teacher expectations for pupil achievement (4)</td>
<td>More positive pupil self-concept (1)</td>
<td>Lower pupil non-verbal creativity (1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>White pupils (1)</td>
<td>Unrelated to teacher expectations for pupil achievement (5)</td>
<td>Lower teacher expectations for pupil achievement (2)</td>
<td>Curvilinear or complex relationships with expectations for pupil achievement (1)</td>
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<td>Prior pupil achievement (1)</td>
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Table 4 (continued)

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<tr>
<td>Most teaching is: Process variable associated with:</td>
<td>associated with:</td>
<td>associated with:</td>
<td>associated with:</td>
<td>induced:</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Unrelated to teacher expectations for pupil behavior (1)
- Higher teacher expectations for pupil's future occupational status (1)

(Box 5.3)

- Experimental training using FIAC or other such instruments (1)
- Experimental training produced no difference (1)
- Experimental training produced short-term increase, long-term decrease (1)
Table 4 (continued)

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<td></td>
<td>Higher concern</td>
<td>Higher scores on</td>
<td>More pupil</td>
<td>Greater pupil</td>
<td>Curvilinear or</td>
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<td></td>
<td>for pupils (1)</td>
<td>MTAI (1) initiations (1)</td>
<td>achievement (1)</td>
<td>complex</td>
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<td>Unrelated to</td>
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<td>pupil relationships</td>
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<td>with pupil</td>
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<td>achievement (6)</td>
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<td>achievement (1)</td>
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<td>Humanistic rather than custodial than</td>
<td>More positive pupil attitudes (3)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>attitudes toward pupils (1)</td>
<td>Unrelated to pupil attitudes (3)</td>
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<td>(Box 5.4)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Experimental training in FIAC, etc (7)</td>
<td>Lower pupil anxiety (1)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experimental training produced no difference (2)</td>
<td>Greater pupil creativity (1)</td>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Short on criticism</td>
<td>Sex of pupil (boys receive more criticism)</td>
<td>Unrelated to sex of pupils (1)</td>
<td>Higher scores on NTE English A and Literature examinations (1)</td>
<td>Unrelated to pupils' ideas (2)</td>
<td>Lower pupil achievement (6)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>(10)</td>
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<td>Unrelated to pupil achievement (7)</td>
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<td>Curvilinear or complex relationships with pupil achievement (1)</td>
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<td>Greater anxiety and hypochondriasis (1)</td>
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<td>More negative pupil attitudes (2)</td>
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<td>Unrelated to pupil attitudes (3)</td>
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<td>Subjects other than social studies (2)</td>
<td>Greater dogmatism (Rokeach scale) (1)</td>
<td>Unrelated to dogmatism (Rokeach scale) (1)</td>
<td>Lower pupil achievement motivation (1)</td>
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<td>Higher pupil fear of failure (1)</td>
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<td>Lower-class schools (1)</td>
<td>Unrelated to social class of school (1)</td>
<td>Greater rejection of pupils (2)</td>
<td>Lower indifference of pupils (1)</td>
<td>Lower pupil self-concept (1)</td>
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</table>

- Lower teacher expectations for pupil achievement (4)
- Unrelated to teacher expectations for pupil achievement (7)
- Curvilinear or complex relationships with expectations for pupil achievement (1)
- Lower teacher expectations for pupils' future occupational status (1)
- Lower expectations for female pupils' obedience and cooperativeness (1)

- Greater pupil dependency (1)
- Lower pupil anxiety (1)
Table 4 (continued)

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Higher expectations for female pupils' destructiveness
(1)

- Experimental training in FIAC, etc. (lowers criticism)
  (2)
- Experimental training produced no difference (3)
- Experimental training produced no short-term change but decreased criticism in the long run (1)

(Box 5.5)
Table 5. Findings for Directiveness Variables (141, 1974, pp. 370-371)

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Talk</td>
<td>Long on teacher</td>
<td>Lack of experience in student teaching (1)</td>
<td>Rating of &quot;less than superior&quot; in teaching (1)</td>
<td>Unrelated to pupil achievement (7)</td>
<td>More positive pupil attitudes (1)</td>
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<td>talk (3)</td>
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<td>Unrelated to pupil attitudes (4)</td>
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<td>Less positive pupil attitudes (1)</td>
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<td>Experimental training in FIAC, etc., (lowers teacher talk) (1)</td>
<td>Experimental training produced no difference (1)</td>
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**Teacher Questions**
- Involves teacher questions about 1/5 of the time (3)
- Lower grade levels (1)
- Sex of pupil (boys receive more teacher questions) (3)
  - Unrelated to sex of pupils (1)
- Unrelated to teacher expectations for pupil achievement (1)
- Experimental training in FIAC, etc., (2)
  - Experimental training produced no difference (2)
  - Greater pupil achievement (1)
  - More positive pupil attitudes (1)
  - Unrelated to pupil attitudes (5)

**Teacher Lecturing**
- Involves teacher lecturing about 1/4 of the time (3)
- Upper Grade levels
- Greater experience in student teaching (1)
  - Ratings of "superior" in teaching (shorter lecturing segments) (1)
  - Greater pupil achievement (1)
Table 5 (continued)

|-----------------------------|--------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|--------------|--------------|

Lowers teachers'  
humanistic attitudes toward  
pupils (1)

Experimental training in FIAC, etc.  
(lowers teacher lecturing) (1)

Experimental training produced no  
difference (3)

---

Teacher Giving Direct-  
Short on  
teacher levels  
giving directions (3)  
Ratings of "less  
than superior" in  
teaching (2)  
Experimental training in FIAC, etc.  
(lowers teacher giving directions) (4)  
Experimental training produced no  
difference (1)
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<tr>
<td>Pupil Talk</td>
<td>Involves pupil talk about 1/4 of the time (3)</td>
<td>Lower grade levels</td>
<td>Greater experience in student teaching (1)</td>
<td>Ratings of &quot;superior&quot; in teaching (1)</td>
<td>Unrelated to teachers' humanistic and custodial attitudes toward pupils (1)</td>
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<td>Experimental training in FIAC, etc. (2)</td>
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Table 5 (continued)
Table 5 (continued)

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<td>lowers pupil responses (3)</td>
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<td>Pupil Initiation</td>
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<td>Higher teacher expectations for pupil achievement (1)</td>
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<td>Most teaching is:</td>
<td>Process variable</td>
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<td>induced:</td>
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<td>Experimental training in</td>
<td>PIAC, etc. (3)</td>
<td>Experimental training produced no difference (1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Silence and Confusion</td>
<td>Involves Upper grade than superior in teaching (2)</td>
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<td>silence and levels</td>
<td>confusion</td>
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<td>about 1/5 of the time</td>
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Experimental training produced a difference (1)
Table 6. Process-Process Findings for Discipline and Group Management (Box 6.2) (141, 1974, p. 376)

### Pupil Behavior Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher Behavior Variable</th>
<th>Work Involvement in Recitation</th>
<th>Work Involvement in Seatwork</th>
<th>Deviancy in Recitation</th>
<th>Deviancy in Seatwork</th>
<th>Desist Success</th>
<th>Subsequent Pupil Conformity</th>
<th>Subsequent Pupil Nonconformity</th>
<th>Disruption of Pupil Activities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Desist Clarity</td>
<td>0(1)*</td>
<td>0(1)*</td>
<td>0(1)*</td>
<td></td>
<td>+ (1)*</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Desist Firmness</td>
<td>0(1)*</td>
<td>0(1)*</td>
<td>0(1)*</td>
<td></td>
<td>+ (1)*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Desist Roughness</td>
<td>0(1)*</td>
<td>0(1)*</td>
<td>0(1)*</td>
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<tr>
<td>Desist Child Treatment</td>
<td>0(1)</td>
<td>0(1)</td>
<td>0(1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Desist Intensity</td>
<td>0(1)</td>
<td>0(1)</td>
<td>0(1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Desist Focus</td>
<td>0(1)</td>
<td>0(1)</td>
<td>0(1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Desist Withitness</td>
<td>++ (1)</td>
<td>+(2)</td>
<td>-- (1)</td>
<td>-- (2)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Desist Overlappingness</td>
<td>+ (1)</td>
<td>0(1)</td>
<td>- (1)</td>
<td>- (1)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smoothness</td>
<td>++ (2)</td>
<td>+(2)</td>
<td>- (2)</td>
<td>- (1)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Momentum</td>
<td>++ (1)</td>
<td>0(1)</td>
<td>-- (1)</td>
<td>-- (1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Group Alerting</td>
<td>++ (1)</td>
<td>0(1)</td>
<td>- (1)</td>
<td>- (1)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Accountability</td>
<td>+ (1)</td>
<td>0(1)</td>
<td>- (1)</td>
<td>0(1)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Valence and Challenge Arousal</td>
<td>+ (1)</td>
<td>+(1)</td>
<td>- (1)</td>
<td>- (1)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Seatwork Variety and Challenge</td>
<td>0(2)</td>
<td>++(2)</td>
<td>0(2)</td>
<td>- (2)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Duration of Seatwork Activities</td>
<td>0(2)</td>
<td>0(2)</td>
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Key:  
++ = strong positive relationship reported  
+ = positive relationship reported  
0 = weak relationship reported  
- = negative relationship reported  
-- = strong negative relationship reported  
* = These findings reported for the first day of kindergarten only  
(1) = Finding reported in one study  
(2) = Finding reported in two studies.
concerning effective teaching? There are many probable causes cited in the literature. One of the major causes of the poor results was that the researchers were not able to define what was meant by the term "effective teacher." This problem was recognized by Kratz as early as 1896 (359, 1978, p. 16) when he set out to describe the characteristics which differentiated more effective teachers from less effective ones. Since techniques for the measurement of mental abilities, personality traits, and the like were virtually nonexistent then, early researchers simply asked students to describe effective teachers they knew. The research process consisted essentially of collating and comparing these descriptions, and the results were a list of traits which were attributed to effective teachers. In most cases, there was no scientific justification for even suspecting a relationship between particular items (teacher's eye color, voice quality, clothing style, musical talent) and a teacher's ability to promote student achievement of any of the goals of education (141, 1974, p. 14).

Another problem of this early research, which continues somewhat today, was consideration of the factors contributing to "teacher effectiveness" over extended periods. Rosenshine, in his review of stability in teacher effectiveness in 1971 (462, 1970, p. 19), could locate only five studies containing information on teacher stability over long periods (one semester or more) and only two of those five reflected teaching by a typical teacher working in a normal classroom setting.

Commonly held beliefs or ideological commitments concerning teaching have hampered meaningful research efforts:
1. Teaching is an art (141, 1974, p. 18).
This has been found to be true but "A person's own
artistry comes into play at its most effective level
after the teacher has mastered the basic fundamentals"
(319, 1976, p. 5).

2. Teaching is obvious and does not require research (141,
1974, p. 20):
   a. More intelligent children tend to receive less
      social acceptance from peers in the classroom
   b. If a group is given considerable amount of
      practice and instruction in developing a skill,
      the students will become more alike in the skill
   c. If teachers want to know how much a student has
      learned he should subtract pretest scores from
      post-test scores
   d. If you want to strengthen a kind of behavior,
      you should reward it and if you want to eliminate
      an erroneous kind of behavior you should punish it
   e. The only way for transfer of learning from one
      situation to another is to increase similarity or
      number of so called identical elements between
      learning situation and application situation.

3. Teaching is ineffective (141, 1974, p. 20).

4. Teaching is a reflection of learning (141, 1974, p. 21).
   However learning theorists have developed much of
their knowledge of learning in nonclassroom
settings. The theories of learning, according to
N. L. Gage, do not make explicit the process by
which teachers might provide optimal conditions for
learning in the classroom.

   Dunkin and Biddle reported (141, 1974, p. 15) that the
biggest single problem in all of the research studies they reviewed
was the failure to take into account context variables in designing
and reporting research findings and in speculating and generalizing
about those findings. What is effective teaching can vary from
context to context--from the rural school to one in an inner city.

   As mentioned earlier, another problem in the early
research (prior to 1970's efforts) was inadequate criteria of
effectiveness (141, 1974, p. 15). Early studies of teacher
effectiveness seldom employed pupil learning as a criterion, even
though it is a rather obvious truth, according to the recent
literature, that a teacher is effective to the extent that he
causes students to learn what has been set as the objective of
the educational experiences provided. These early studies focused
almost exclusively on the instructional means used by the teacher
or his personal characteristics.

Another problem which will never change is that the
measurement of teaching effectiveness is a difficult area of study,
because it involves a wide range of human phenomena, qualities, and
skills, and because the results of teaching must be observed in a
delayed and an inferential fashion (160, 1978, p. 3).

There has been a problem with having the necessary
funding for research in education. Research consumes up to 10 to
25 percent of the available funds in the automotive and drug
industries and billions are available for federal-sponsored
research on arms development or space exploration. However,
less than one-tenth of one percent of the money being spent on
U. S. education is spent for research (141, 1974, p. 420). "We
would not dream of constructing a bridge, distributing a new drug, or
placing a man in a rocket to fly to the moon without careful
research. However, we daily subject 30 million school children
to instructional methods whose effects are largely unresearched"
(141, 1974, p. 420).

Another factor to be reviewed when considering the
possible causes of the lack of early definitive research results
is that most of these investigations relied on the use of
standardized achievement tests which rarely took into account
the instructor's expectations regarding the outcomes to be measured
"Further, the standardized measures employed were typically based on
norm-referenced rather than criterion-referenced approaches to test
construction and as a consequence were often inappropriate to
measure group progress toward specified instructional goals."

One of the most serious shortcomings of these pre-1970's
studies was the lack of scientific soundness in the research methods
used (54, 1979, p. 6):

1. (Most were) done under circumstances that make the
findings specific to that one research population
2. Some used instruments of questionable reliability
or validity
3. Studies were reported without adequate descriptive or
definitive information regarding research population,
procedures, methodologies and the variables under study.

In a recent review of current research literature in the area of
teacher effectiveness covering 289 studies (361, 1977, p. 17),
only 14 survived the application of the four criteria that
authorities considered essential to the formation of a sound
research base:

1. The study from which relationship came had to be
designed so that the relationship was generalizable
to some population of teachers larger than the sample
studied.
2. The relationship had to be both reliable enough to be
statistically significant and large enough to be
practically significant
3. The measure of teacher effectiveness had to be based
on long term pupil gains in achievement areas
recognized as important goals of education
4. The process measure had to specify the behaviors
exhibited in such a way that they could be reproduced
as desired.
Changes in Teacher Effectiveness Research Techniques

The situation in teacher effectiveness research began to change in the early 1970's for a number of reasons. The reviews of previous research endeavors by Rosenshine and Furst in 1971 and 1973 and by Dunkin and Biddle in 1974 helped to identify the shortcomings which existed. The public concern about declining student achievement, teacher accountability, and related issues led to an increased stress on student outcomes as a criterion for teacher effectiveness (65, 1979, p. 734). The National Institute of Education began not only to fund research directed at these issues, but also to facilitate communication among researchers in the field and to develop a planned agenda which could ultimately yield cumulative research findings (65, 1979, p. 734). At the same time, important research design improvements began to appear (63, 1979, p. 3):

1. Rational rather than random or convenience sampling of teachers
2. Inclusion of enough teachers to allow for meaningful statistical analysis.
3. Increased time allowance to provide for the collection of large quantities of data per classroom.
4. Development of multifaceted and sophisticated classroom coding instruments that take into account context and sequence of interaction rather than just behavioral frequencies.
5. Concentration on the individual class and teacher as the unit of analysis.

Are all of the studies which have been done since 1970 reliable and valid? The answer is discouraging. In one recently reported study (114, 1978, p. 741) no useful information was produced at all because "data was reported only as a combination score made up of a great many individual variables. These
combination scores had little face validity—variables that seem to have little to do with classroom management were included in a classroom management combination score and other variables that do seem to be part of classroom management were omitted from this score but placed on other scores presumably measuring, for example, instructional methods. Also many variables were weighed and then summed together in the same direction when other data indicate that these variables correlate in opposite directions with student learning (65, 1979, p. 741).

Dunkin and Biddle have made some definite recommendations which, if followed by researchers in the area of teacher effectiveness, should produce research findings on which educators can rely and which should (according to recent findings to be discussed) produce improvements in student achievement (taken from 141, 1974, pp. 420-426):

1. Support for research on the processes, causes, and effects of teaching should be sharply increased from federal, state, and local sources.

2. Programmatic support should be made available for research on the causes and effects of teaching to promising teams of investigators.

3. Innovative programs that are likely to affect teaching should not be instigated or funded without research on the effects of these programs on the processes of teaching.

4. Standards for scientific publication in education should be specified for the most prestigious journals in education, perhaps under the sponsorship of national educational research organizations.

5. A center should be set up concerned with accumulating and disseminating information from research on the processes, causes, and effects of teaching.

6. Regular reviews of research on the processes, causes, and effects of teaching should be commissioned.
7. New observational instruments for research on teaching should not be developed in the absence of clear theoretical justifications.

8. A catalog should be developed of simple instruments for live observation which represent concepts for the improvement of teaching that have been well-validated through exploratory research.

9. Investigators should utilize designs for research on teaching that pair process information with presage, context, or product variables—thus generating information of further practical use to educators.

10. Research should be pursued on the low-inference components of high-inference, concepts that express classroom events known to work.

11. Instruments for research on teaching processes should deal where possible with the objective characteristics of classroom events.

12. Instruments for research on teaching processes should not be used unless operational descriptions are available for their categories and data are available—showing them to be reliable.

13. Descriptive statistics should be reported for all findings from research on the processes of teaching.

14. Data from research on the processes of teaching should be presented with the simplest of appropriate statistics.

15. Investigators concerned with research on teaching processes should report and publish their complete findings.

16. Investigators concerned with research on teaching should take pains to interpret their major findings for practical and theoretical significance.

17. Programs for the improvement of teaching should be validated with process-product research; validations against process criteria should be labeled as plausible speculations.

18. Research designs should be encouraged that provide measurement of various process variables.

19. Research designs should be encouraged that provide measurement of the differential treatment and behaviors of individual pupils.
20. Research designs should be encouraged that provide independent measures of teacher behavior, classroom environmental states, and individual pupil behavior.

21. Research should be encouraged that constitutes replications of strong studies in alternative contexts.

22. Research should be encouraged that involves comparative designs wherein classrooms are contrasted for nationality, social class, ethnicity, curriculum, or educational media.

23. Research should be encouraged that involves the collection of data concerning formative and training experiences of teachers.

24. Research should be encouraged that involves development of paper-and-pencil instruments for measuring teacher properties from variables representing significant teacher classroom behaviors.

25. Research should be encouraged that involves development of product tests matched to lesson content.

26. Process-product research should be encouraged that involves standardization of lesson content and matched product instruments, but findings from such studies should be validated with different types of contents and contexts.

27. Effective, programmatic research on the processes, causes, and effects of teaching should involve complementary field surveys and experiments.

28. Context-process experiments concerned with the processes, causes, and effects of teaching should be encouraged.

29. Presage-process experiments concerned with teaching should be encouraged, but variables chosen for such experiments should have been validated for their effects through prior field surveys.

30. Process-process and process-product experiments concerning teaching should be encouraged, but preferably for the validating of crucial relationships previously discovered in field surveys or with strong theoretical justification.

31. Context-process and presage-process experiments should be conducted in which process-process and process-product information are also sought as effects of the experimental treatments.

32. Research concerning the impact of innovations on teaching
and its effects should be conducted in such a manner as to equalize enthusiasm for the innovation and its alternatives.

The Effective Teacher

Current research is now being focused on identifying satisfactory measures of student achievement and the complicated procedures by which this achievement is obtained (437, 1971, p. 106). Educators must realize that research on teaching will never yield simple answers about what "kind of teaching" is optimal, even for a particular group of students within a particular context. Research can provide information about the link between processes and outcomes, but it cannot order outcomes in priority (65, 1979, p. 743). Only recently have many educators come to accept the possibility that there are diverse instructional means which can be used to reach the specified instructional goal; and that on the basis of this proposition, teacher effectiveness research should focus on the results achieved by the teacher rather than on the means he uses (437, 1971, p. 106).

Exciting results are beginning to be produced by recent studies which are more scientifically oriented than those of the pre-1970 period. Taken together, these studies support the generalization that teachers make a difference. These studies which were done at the teacher level in classroom settings make it clear that certain teachers produce much more student learning than others and that their success is tied to consistent differences in teacher behavior (262, 1979, p. 10). Results from a number of studies began to fit into a general pattern which has several aspects (441, 1978, p. 28):
1. Difference in student learning could be related to
differences in behaviors of teachers.
2. Teacher behaviors occurred in clusters or patterns.
   Some types of teacher questions are typically followed
   by certain types of student responses which in turn
   are followed by certain types of teacher responses.
3. It is patterns of practice rather than single teaching
   skills which account for effectiveness.
4. Teaching is not a series of discrete unrelated behaviors.

**Direct instruction.** This concept involves teacher selection of
the instructional goals, instruction tasks, setting for the learning
activity, time allocated, and frequently the pace at which the
students work (441, 1978, p. 29).

1. In general, students taught with a structured curriculum
do better than those taught with more individualized or
discovery learning approaches. Students who receive much
of their instruction directly from the teacher do better
than those expected to learn on their own or from one
another (65, 1979, p. 735).

2. Learning gains are best in classrooms in which students
are given the opportunity to have a great deal of
interaction with and instruction from the teacher. This
appears to be especially true in class lessons and
recitations that are carried on at a difficulty level
which allows for success and which is briskly paced (65,
1979, p. 737).

3. The Texas Junior High Study (157, 1978, p. 737) revealed
that student talk, use of student ideas, and praise of
student contributions correlated positively with learning
gains. In similar studies (511, 1974, p. 737) in the
elementary levels these same factors produced no
significant correlations with learning gains.

4. The data from correlational studies completed by Rosenshine
in 1977 (461, 1977, p.4) seem to support his contention
that direct instruction is effective for producing student
learning of basic skills. Rosenshine describes the
critical aspects of direct instruction as (460, 1979, p. 4):

   a. Teachers focus on academic goals.
   b. Teachers promote extensive content
      coverage and high levels of student
      involvement.
   c. Teachers select instructional goals
      and materials and actively monitor
student progress.

d. Teachers structure learning activities and include immediate, academically oriented feedback.

e. Teachers create an environment that is task oriented but relaxed.

5. McConnell in 1977 (63, 1979, p. 11) reported the following correlates of student learning in high school algebra classes: task orientation, clarity, frequent probing to improve student response, enthusiasm, and frequent teacher talk.

6. Evertson, Anderson, and Brophy in 1978 (157, 1978, p. 11) reported the following correlates of learning in 7th and 8th grade math classes:

   a. Considerable class time spent in discussion, lecture, and drill and not just individualized instruction or individual seatwork.
   b. Task oriented, businesslike instruction.
   c. Much teacher time actively instructing and interacting with students.
   d. Greater praise of good contributions.
   e. Good classroom management especially "withitness".

7. More successful teachers tend to be those who are task oriented and businesslike in moving the class along at a brisk pace, assuming that the materials and activities being used are at an appropriate level of difficulty (65, 1979, p. 736).

8. Teacher talk in the form of lectures and demonstrations is as important as recitation, drill, and practice. This is indexed both by the time allotted for instruction and by the time engaged in learning activities (65, 1979, p. 735).

9. The instruction which seems most efficient involves the teacher working with the whole class (or with small groups in the early grades), presenting information in lectures and demonstrations, then following up with recitation and practice activities in which students have an opportunity to receive corrective feedback.

10. Teacher clarity is positively related with student academic achievement (54, 1979, p. 54).

11. Recent findings (63, 1979, p. 12) do generalize to higher grades but only in the basic skill areas.

12. Individualized instruction, if it takes too much of the teacher's time for organizing, planning and recordkeeping,
leaves less time for teacher instruction and interaction with students, which imparts negatively on student learning (44, 1978, p. 31).

**Classroom management.** Recent studies suggest that classroom management skills correlate with student learning gains not only because the teacher who is skilled in this area is able to maximize the student time on task, but also because good managers tend to be good instructors (155, 1978, p. 10; 156, 1978, p. 735). These skilled managers know how to organize and maintain a learning environment that maximizes the time spent engaged on productive activities and minimizes the time lost during transitions, periods of confusion, or disruptions that require disciplinary action. Teachers who produce substantial achievement gains in their students tend to have most of the characteristics identified by Kounin (291, 1970, p. 735) as keys to effective classroom management (65, 1979, p. 734):

1. "Withitness"—monitors the entire class continuously
2. Overlapping—can do two or more things simultaneously without having to break the flow of classroom events.
3. Signal continuity, smoothness, and momentum—moves activities along at a good pace, without confusion or loss of focus.
4. Variety and challenge in seatwork—provides seatwork that is at the right level of difficulty for students and is interesting enough to hold their attention.

The following is a summary of the findings in the area of teacher controlling behaviors:

1. Teacher belittling of pupils is negatively correlated with pupil achievement across socio-economic-status groups, grade levels and student content (54, 1979, p. 52).

2. Teacher's treatment of the class as a unit--pressuring for peer control is negatively correlated with pupil achievement across socio-economic-status groups,
grade levels, and subject content (54, 1979, p. 52).

3. Establishing reasonable rules for class department and following through with the application of the indicated is positively correlated with pupil achievement (54, 1979, p. 52).

Expectations and success. More successful teachers have a "can do" attitude, perceiving their students as capable of learning the material and themselves as capable of teaching the students effectively. They tend to set higher goals than less effective teachers and are more persistent in laboring to meet those goals and overcoming obstacles when necessary (65, 1979, p. 736). Teachers who believe that instructing students in the curriculum is basic to their role, who expect to conduct such instruction, and who organize their classes in order to accomplish that goal are more successful than those who do not (63, 1979, p. 50). The following are a few related conclusions from recent studies.

1. Brophy and Evertson (69, 1974, p. 736) found that during recitations when the teacher is providing feedback and help the questions of the more successful teacher are answered correctly 75 percent of the time (the percentage is slightly higher in low-ability classes). For seatwork assignments when teacher feedback and help are not continually given, success rate must approach 100 percent if students are to be expected to continue working until the assignment is completed.

2. When teachers have low expectations for certain students, they may skip over them during classroom recitations or discussions and address themselves more to controlling conduct than to academic instruction (65, 1979, p. 736).

3. Students who experience more than average time in high success learning activities had higher achievement scores at the end of the school year, better retention of learning over the summer, and more positive attitudes toward school (65, 1979, p. 736).
4. Teachers working with high SES/high ability students are generally more effective when they move at a rapid pace, continually communicating high expectations and enforcing high standards. They attempt to keep the students challenged and refuse to accept inferior work, criticizing or punishing students for such work when it becomes necessary (65, 1979, p. 738).

5. Effective teachers of the low SES/Low ability students are just as determined to get the best work possible from their students, but they usually do so by being warm and encouraging. They are more personal with the students, taking more time to motivate to listen to their concerns. They also praise more and criticize less. They move through the course of study at a slower rate allowing time for overlapping. They call on students during recitation—allowing more time for answers and providing more prompting help (65, 1979, p. 738).

**Questioning Strategies.** The following are important conclusions which have been drawn as the result of recent studies:

1. Asking difficult or complex questions will not stimulate greater learning, although it might affect types of learning (505, 1972; 179, 1978, p. 736).

2. Probing and redirecting does not facilitate students' acquisition of knowledge, higher cognitive responsibility or question generating ability more than discussions in general nor does the technique promote more positive student attitudes toward curriculum related topics (178, 1976, p. 151).

3. Questions in written exercises are as effective as questions in discussions facilitating knowledge acquisition and question generating ability (180, 1976, p. 152).

4. Written exercises can be substituted for discussions to promote learning except when the teacher's goal is to stimulate students' ability to give high cognitive responses. This learning objective requires discussion and probing and redirection questions.

5. More effective teachers of high socio-economic-status (SES) students permit them to take the initiative when asking for help (54, 1979, p. 45).

6. More effective teachers of low SES students persist in questioning students and help them to respond (54, 1979, p. 45).
7. More effective teachers of high and low SES students gauge questions at an appropriate level of difficulty (54, 1979, p. 45).

8. More effective teachers of low SES students ask more questions classifiable in the lower levels of Bloom's Taxonomy than ineffective ones do. They also ask fewer choice questions—which offer a limited choice of answers (361, 1977, p. 29).

9. Effective teachers of low SES students are less likely to amplify, discuss or use pupils' answers than the less effective ones. Instead, they either acknowledge it and go on to something else or give feedback and then go on to something else (361, 1977, p. 30).

10. Effective teachers of low SES students treat pupil initiatives differently than ineffective teachers. They are less likely to listen and provide feedback to pupils or to solicit questions from them than the ineffective teachers are (361, 1977, p. 30).

11. Effective teachers of high SES/high ability students are more likely to use one of the following questioning patterns (361, 1977, p. 32):
   a. Identify a student who is to answer a question before asking the question.
   b. Ask a question then call on a volunteer.

12. Effective teachers of low SES/low ability classes ask the question first and then choose a student to answer—probably a non-volunteer (361, 1977, p. 32).

13. Once a high SES/high ability student answers a question, the effective teacher is more likely to discuss the answer given and to criticize if the answer is incorrect than the less effective teacher (361, 1977, p. 32).

14. If a high SES/high ability student fails to answer a question, the effective teacher is less likely to give him another chance to answer by restating or rephrasing the question than is the effective teacher in a low SES/low ability class (361, 1977, p. 32).

**Appropriate materials.** Results of recent studies in this area seem empirically obvious. Students' opportunity to learn materials is a major determinant of their learning (511, 1974; 329 1975, p. 735). The extensiveness of content coverage is related to student learning; students learn those things they have an opportunity
to learn and to a large extent do not learn what is not covered in class (441, 1978, p. 33).

Feedback. The teacher's use of evaluative feedback that directly relates to student performance is positively related to increased academic performance by both high and low ability students (54, 1979, p. 49).

Pupil self-concept. The following conclusions were drawn in studies which were concerned with looking at the relationship between teacher practices and pupil self-concept:

1. Teacher attitudes and beliefs expressed in classroom behaviors can positively or negatively affect pupil performance and the opportunity to learn (54, 1979, p. 60).
2. Pupil roles which include opportunities for pupil initiative and exploration with access to a wide variety of activities and materials are positively correlated with measures of pupil independence (54, 1979, p. 60).
3. The pattern of teacher behavior which maximizes pupils' achievement gains tends to have a positive impact on student achievement (54, 1979, p. 60).

Time. The following conclusions were drawn in studies which considered the relationship of time to student achievement:

1. Time spent actively engaged in learning is positively correlated with student achievement (54, 1979, p. 35).
2. Amount of time allocated for academic subjects is positively correlated with pupil achievement (54, 1979, p. 35).
3. The length of the school day or school year is positively correlated with pupil achievement if it is a factor in allotting time for each subject (54, 1979, p. 35).

Different Teacher Strategies with Different Performance Levels. Research done at the University of Texas, Austin, with high- and low-achieving junior high classes produced the following
results (154, 1980, p. 8). Teachers of high-achieving students tended to:

1. Describe objectives more clearly
2. Introduce materials more clearly
3. Provide content related to students' interests and backgrounds
4. Provide reasonable work standards
5. Be consistent in dealing with behavior
6. Be receptive to student input
7. Nurture affective skills
8. Maintain a task-oriented focus
9. Have more transitions within a class period.

Teachers of low-achieving students tended to:

1. Fail to adapt their presentations to different ability levels
2. Have more inappropriate and disruptive behavior [Evidence from five studies indicates that there is less deviant or disruptive pupil behavior in classes taught by effective teachers than in classes taught by ineffective ones (361, 1977, p. 29)].
3. Reinforce inattentive student behavior and have more personal conferences to stop misbehaviors.
4. Have more students off task without teacher permission
5. Have more students who complete their work without being assigned any other work to do
6. Take longer to make transitions from one activity to another.

The results of the Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study (BTES) completed in California (involved 2nd grade and 5th grade students) have some interesting findings which are new and which should be considered for research replication in the secondary schools. A number of these conclusions are as follows (252, 1980, p. 24):

1. The proportion of time that a reading or math task is performed with low success is negatively associated with student learning.
2. Increases in academic learning time are not associated with more negative attitudes toward math, reading, or
school.

3. Teacher's accuracy in diagnosing student skill level is related to student achievement and academic learning time (predicting score on achievement test). The better diagnosticians generally had students who showed higher rates of engagement. The evidence (not always consistent however) suggests that improving the teacher's ability to make an accurate assessment of student performance would have positive effects on student learning.

4. Teacher prescription of appropriate tasks is related to student achievement and student success rate.

5. Percentage of instructional time during which student received feedback was positively related to student engagement rate and to achievement.

6. Structuring lessons and giving directions on task procedures were positively related with a high rate of student success.

7. Explanations specifically in response to student need is negatively associated with high student success. If such explanations are necessary this may be a signal that changes are needed in the instructional program.

The following summarized findings of recent scientifically based studies indicate the behavior patterns of effective teachers.

---is well organized and thus prevents problems from occurring.
---gives students more time on academic tasks because classroom routines do not require as much time.
---tends to teach the class as a whole or in large groups, giving less independent seat work.
---emphasizes academic achievement and expects that all students will achieve.
---selects and directs classroom activities.
---makes sure that students master one unit before moving on to the next.
---involves students in learning activities whenever possible.
---assigns tasks for which students have a high likelihood of succeeding.
---has a good grasp of the subject matter.
---has excellent presentation skills (can explain well,
demonstrate, and lead a good discussion).
---monitors student progress by asking questions and circulating around the room.
---gives adequate feedback so students know what they have learned and what still needs to be learned.
---finds ways to get students to cooperate with one another and take responsibility for their work.
---directs questions to specific students rather than to those who volunteer.
---uses guides and probing questions when students don't know answers.
---encourages positive behavior and controls negative behavior.
---does not grade papers during the class period.
---does not socialize or allow students to socialize in class.
---does not permit interruptions of class activities or negative behavior.

II. As a result of the BTES, the following model of required teacher behavior was developed (252, 1980, p. 25):
A. Diagnosis The instructor finds out about the knowledge and skill levels, interest learning styles, strengths and weaknesses of individual students in the class.
B. Prescription The instructor decides specifically what to do in the classroom including appropriate instructional goals and activities for students: grouping, scheduling, etc., as related to individual students.
C. Presentation The instructor provided information to the student(s) either explaining concepts or telling students what to do.
D. Monitoring The instructor finds out how individual students are doing on the classroom tasks previously prescribed, either by watching, checking work, or asking questions.
E. Feedback The instructor gives students feedback on how they specifically are doing, including feedback on the correctness of their answers and feedback on their behavior.

III. In the studies initiated by the California Commission for Teacher Preparation and Licensing and the Far West Laboratory Studies, it was found that method is not the significant variable in classroom learning. Teaching practices are what can make the difference in student achievement gains. The San Diego City Schools are attempting to bring the following vital teaching practices to the attention of teachers and administrators (34, 1978,
Goal Setting—Stating the specific objective of the lesson is especially effective when the goal statement links content to be learned with learning from previous lessons.

Use of Time—Longer school days, longer allotted time periods for basic skills instruction, and fewer teacher and pupil absences are all associated with increased achievement. Lessons should not be rushed; they should be as continuous and sustained as possible without becoming disjointed by abrupt shifts within the lesson. Pupils should be actively involved in the lessons. Teachers must reduce time devoted to waiting, transitions, and management.

Academic Content—Material covered must be focused on the academic objectives which have been set. Students can learn only what is taught and in general the more content covered the more content learned.

Monitoring Pupil Activities—Generally the grouping size does not matter if students receive the kind of direct teacher attention which keeps them on task. Students can benefit from individual seat work if the following conditions are met:
1. The activity is related to direct instruction that immediately precedes it
2. The difficulty level is not too easy or too hard
3. The objective of the task is clear to both the teacher and the pupil
4. The pupil understands clearly what to do during the activity
5. The activity is monitored by an adult to provide needed assistance
6. The pupil pays attention to the task with no outside distractions
7. A subsequent academic task can be begun by the pupil without waiting for others to complete their seatwork
8. The pupil receives immediate feedback on the work completed

Questioning—Questions about the academic content to be learned can produce a high degree of learning. Drill can be an effective teaching practice. High-achieving students tend to profit more from questions that can produce a high percentage of divergent response; however, low achieving students benefit more from questions that produce correct student responses.

Classroom Atmosphere—The atmosphere most conducive to achievement is one in which there is warmth,
conviviality and democratic practices. The most beneficial style of teaching for the learning of basic skills is a direct one, as this one seems most effective in keeping students on task.

IV. Brophy and Evertson in 1974 in three studies (455, 1980, p. 6) replicated Kounin's 1970 research (455; 1980, p. 6) and were in agreement with his original conclusions that successful teachers are able to:
A. Demonstrate more alertness and awareness
B. Sustain one activity while monitoring another
C. Pace lessons in order to maintain group momentum
D. Create group alertness through the use of suspense, creating questions and presentation of novel materials
E. Monitor verbal and written response
F. Generate enthusiasm
G. Provide variety in classroom activities.

V. Studies by Dr. Madeline Hunter at the University of California, Los Angeles Laboratory School have produced the following findings on the techniques and characteristics of effective teachers (245, 1979):
A. They have research-based knowledge of what they are doing and do it on purpose.
B. What they do is consonant with what is known about the regularities and cause-effect relationships in human learning.
C. They express their own individuality in style of teaching but meet the specific learning needs of students.
D. They observe analytically and interpret their own and other's teaching, either live or using video tape.
E. They keep growing professionally through self-evaluation, clinical supervision and inservice.
F. They continue to question teaching decisions and actions on bases of their own observations and new ideas and knowledge.

VI. Dr. Gordon Cawelti after analyzing the findings of three major types of educational research (studies on effects of schooling, teacher effectiveness, and psychology of learning) concluded the following characteristics can and should be relied upon in developing the tools of effective instructional leadership for teachers (89, 1980, pp. 34-35):
A. Teachers have high expectations for students.
B. There is more frequent monitoring of student progress.
C. Teachers have learned how to routinize classroom management tasks; they have business-like
D. There is a favorable climate for learning with greater reliance on praise than criticism, high self-concepts in students are important.

E. There is an appropriate level of difficulty of materials.

F. Students have the opportunity to learn criterion materials.

G. Students spend larger amounts of time on task in basic skill instruction and provision is made for corrective instruction.

VII. According to F. William Luehe and Richard H. Ehrgott in their book, Clinical Teaching, Clinical Supervision, the teacher must master four basic competencies in order to be able to make systematic instructional decisions which can lead to student learning (319, 1976, p. 13):

A. To teach to an objective.

B. To diagnose and prescribe appropriate learning experiences.

C. To monitor pupil performance and to make appropriate corrections in lesson plans.

D. To use appropriately the psychological principles of learning to facilitate instruction.

Effective teaching involves the professional educator having available a variety of patterns or clusters of teaching behaviors which he can use after he has assessed the curriculum to be taught, the diagnosed needs of his students, the maturity level and experiential backgrounds of his students, the materials available, and his own teaching talents and skills. At the moment research findings may provide some direction, but no firm answers about what patterns of teacher behaviors are most effective for specific teaching situations. There is a great deal of room for the exercise of professional judgment on the part of the teacher.

The Change Process

Planned change is a very slow process in American education. Paul Mort found through his studies that it takes approximately 50 years "for the complete diffusion of an educational
innovation which is destined to be fully accepted" (91, 1965, p. 3).
There is a tendency for all institutions and organizations to
achieve, maintain, and return if necessary to a state of
equilibrium where their members are comfortable and where identity,
character, and culture are preserved (375, 1976, p. 55). Any major
innovations or changes in curriculum or instruction within the
system imply resulting changes throughout the system, including
changes in relationship between the teachers and the principal, and
may even involve a change in the teachers' relationships with the
nonprofessional staff. Change does take effort, and that is
another reason permanent systems find it difficult to change
according to M. B. Miles (325, 1976, p. 55):

The major portion of available energy goes into
carrying out routine operations and maintenance of
existing relations within the system. Thus the fraction
of energy left over for matters of diagnosis, planning,
innovation, deliberate change and growth is ordinarily
very small.

Some behavioral scientists claim that educational
institutions are by their very nature stable and unable to innovate
and change within a reasonable time frame. There are also input
factors which prevent change from being initiated from outside the
school (375, 1976, pp. 56-60):

1. Resistance to change from the environment. The
   community at large does not generally encourage
   change unless there appears to be some kind of
   crisis within the system.
2. Incompetence of outside agents. Generally parents
   and officials do not have the knowledge to judge
   the need for innovation or a proposed innovation.
3. Overcentralization. Layers of line administrators
   and decisions being made far from where they will
   be implemented creates a slow moving organization.
4. Teacher defensiveness.
5. Absence of change agent or "linking pin". There is
no recognized person responsible for bringing in or demonstrating new ideas like there is in private industry.

6. Incomplete linkage between theory and practice. Much of the research work done at the university level is unrelated to a normal classroom environment.

7. Underdeveloped scientific base in education.

8. Conservatism.

9. Professional invisibility. Generally teachers are unaware of what other teachers are doing; principals are unaware of what is going on in other schools.

There are just as many factors within the school system itself which prevent long-lasting innovative change from taking place (375, 1976, pp. 60-66):

1. Confused goals.
2. No reward for innovating. Generally there are no differences in the salaries, or the promotion chances of those who adopt meaningful change.
3. Uniformity of approach. The school still seeks to adopt methods and modes of procedures which are applicable to the greatest number.
4. School is a monopoly. Lack of competition can encourage stagnation.
5. Low knowledge component—low investment in research and development.
6. Low technological and financial investment. Normally up to 90 percent of school expenditures is for salaries.
7. Difficulty in diagnosing weaknesses. Generally schools as a unit nor their personnel as individuals are rewarded for admitting their weaknesses.
8. Product measurement problems.
10. Low personnel development investment.
11. Lack of enterpreneurial models.

In 1972 B. Othanel Smith and Donald E. Orlosky did a survey of 75 years of educational change which they had carried out for the United States Office of Education. Some of the conclusions they were able to draw included the following (407, 1976, pp. 44-47):

1. It is easier to change curriculum or administration in a school than it is to change methods of instruction.
2. Curricular and instructional changes tend to originate within the school, not from some external source. Legislation and social pressure have little effect on this process, whereas the professional insight of
teachers has considerable influence.

3. If the change requires extensive retraining of teachers (such as the introduction of team teaching) it is not likely to succeed.

4. Curricular changes that call for updating content or broadening an existing subject have a good chance for success, whereas those that require a major overhaul (such as adding new subjects or eliminating existing subjects) do not.

5. Curriculum change that receives wide social support is likely to succeed. Curriculum change that is subject to wide social opposition will probably fail.

6. Attempts to change the administrative structure of the schools in any significant way are likely to fail.

7. Changes that extend the school system (such as community college or preschool programs) are likely to succeed, whereas internal administrative modifications (such as flexible modular class scheduling) are less likely to do so.

8. Change in one school has little effect; a diffusion system is needed to spread it.

9. Broad support helps to spread the change. For example, in the case of compulsory education, broad legal, social, and educational support assures its success. It is not likely that educators alone could have secured adoption of the change.

10. Changes that require people in established positions to relinquish power are not likely to be implemented.

11. The less people have to learn in order to make the change operational, the more likely it is to succeed.

12. The more energy the change demands from the school staff, the less probable is its success. Thus, creative education—which requires enormous amounts of teacher time and effort to implement—is not as likely to succeed as some new "packaged" curriculum.

Individual Change

When working with an individual to bring about change, the change agent must take into consideration the person's personality; how the individual perceives, learns, thinks, feels, and acts (316, 1973, p. 157). Research indicates that the environment in which the change is to take place is also an important factor. Resistance to change by the individual will generally exist under the following circumstances (316, 1973, pp. 157-161):

1. When the purpose of the change is not made clear. Mystery and ambiguity cause suspense and anxiety.
2. When persons affected by the change are not involved in the planning. A number of studies have shown that when people or their representatives have a say in planning a change acceptance is more likely.
3. When an appeal for change is based on personal reasons.
4. When habit patterns of the individual are ignored.
5. When there is poor communication regarding the change.
6. When there is fear of failure.
   Time and good training can reassure individuals as they adjust to changes being made.
7. When excess pressure is involved.
8. When the cost is too high or the reward inadequate.
9. When anxiety over personal security is not relieved.
10. When there is a lack of respect and trust in the initiator.
11. When there is satisfaction with the status quo.

Helping is never very useful unless it is perceived by the "receiver" as helpful.

Kurt Lewin, who approaches the individual change situation through the "field theory," sees the individual's behavior as the result of the intensity of the various forces that come to bear on him in his psychological field. If the change agent looks at the field of forces of the individual, his behavior becomes understandable in terms of (316, 1973, pp. 165-166):

Motives
1. Human behavior is directed toward goals.
2. As need or desire of an individual is linked to a specific goal which he sees as a means of satisfying the need, there are generated to him specific forces to move toward that goal.
3. This combination of need within the individual and the perceived goal is what we shall call a motive.

Goals
4. Behavior takes place only after an individual sees a path leading to a goal he is motivated to attain.
5. There is often more than 1 path apparent to the individual that represents some degree of goal attainment for him.
6. Several paths available to the individual may differ in the extent to which they will satisfy his goals.
7. Which one of the several possible paths an individual selects will depend on the amount or degree of goal attainment that each appears to offer and upon the
difficulties or barriers that the individual perceives in traversing a given path.

Perception
8. Perceptions are individual; that is people see things differently, and what a person sees depends in part upon himself, his personality, and his past experience.
9. Individual differences in perception can be understood largely in terms of the psychological field of the individual and especially in terms of his needs and goals.
10. When we receive an object or situation we must somehow relate it to things already in our experience. The process of perception involves the systematic modification and distortion of a situation in a way which makes it more understandable to us and more congruent with our experience and expectations.

Table 7 shows the Warren Bennes' Model for Understanding an Individual's Response to Change (314, 1973, p. 168).

Organizational Change

Any planned organizational change effort will be affected by the state of the system within which it takes place. "It is time for us to recognize that successful efforts at planned change must take as a primary target the improvement of organizational health--the ability not only to function effectively but to develop and grow into a more fully functioning system" (91, 1965, p. 6). There are basically ten dimensions of organizational health (91, 1965, p. 6):

1. Goal Focus
   Goals must be reasonably close to the numbers of the organization and generally accepted by them. They must be achievable in terms of resources available and appropriate within the existing environment.

2. Communication Adequacy

3. Optimal Power Equalization - Exercise of influence should rest on the competency of the person who is attempting to make a change rather than his formal position, personal charisma or other factors unrelated to the problem.
Table 7. Model for Understanding an Individual's Response to Change (314, 1973, p. 168)

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<td>A major change is proposed</td>
<td>The individual's perception of the change</td>
<td>The individual initiates search</td>
<td>The individual's evaluation of the impact of the change on him</td>
<td>The individual's response to the change</td>
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<td>Hi</td>
<td>Lo</td>
<td>Oppose</td>
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<td>Ambiguity of meaning of change</td>
<td>Trust in change initiators</td>
<td>Intensity of search behavior</td>
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<td>Threatening</td>
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<td>Control of environment and change</td>
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As affected by

a. Extent of information about change

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b. Extent of psychological participation in the change

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c. Other factors such as the individual's acceptance of organizational folklore and his past experience with change

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4. Resource Utilization — The organization's resources including the human ones are being used effectively. People feel good in their jobs—they have a sense of learning, growing, and being self actualized.

5. Cohesiveness — Organization has a purpose and the individual members feel good about being part of it.

6. Morale — There is a general feeling of well being in the organization.

7. Innovativeness — Organization is developing and changing rather than remaining routinized.

8. Autonomy — Has independence from the environment; determines its own behavior to the extent possible.

9. Adaptation — The system is able to bring about a corrective change in itself quicker than its surrounding environment.

10. Problem Solving Adequacy — Organization has the structures and procedures for determining that a problem exists, for developing possible solutions for choosing and then implementing a solution and then for evaluating its effectiveness.

How might the "healthy" organization as opposed to the "unhealthy"
work in day-to-day operations (167, 1971 p. 11, adapted slightly)?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Unhealthy</th>
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<tr>
<td>1. Little personal investment in organizational objectives except at top levels.</td>
<td>1. Objectives are widely shared by the members and there is a strong and consistent flow of energy toward those objectives.</td>
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<td>2. People in the organization see things going wrong and do nothing about it. Nobody volunteers. Mistakes and problems are habitually hidden or shelved. People talk about school troubles at home or in the halls, not with those involved.</td>
<td>2. People feel free to signal their awareness of difficulties because they expect the problems to be dealt with and they are optimistic that they can be solved.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Extraneous factors complicate problem-solving. Status and boxes on the organization chart are more important than solving the problem. There is an</td>
<td>3. Problem-solving is highly pragmatic. In attacking problems, people work informally and are not pre-</td>
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excessive concern with administration as a customer, instead of the real customer—the students. People treat each other in a formal and polite manner that masks issues—especially with the superintendent/principal. Non-conformity is frowned upon.

4. People at the top try to control as many decisions as possible. They become bottlenecks, and make decisions with inadequate information and advice. People complain about superintendent's or principal's irrational decisions.

5. Superintendent/Principals feel alone in trying to get things done. Somehow orders, policies and procedures don't get carried out as intended.

6. The judgment of people lower down in the organization including teachers is not respected outside the narrow limits of their jobs.

7. Personal needs and feelings are side issues.

8. People compete when they need to collaborate. They are very jealous of their area of responsibility. Seeking or accepting help is felt to be a sign of weakness. Offering help is unthought of. They distrust each other's motives and speak poorly of one another; the manager tolerates this.

occupied with status, territory, or second-guessing "what the superintendent or principal will think." The boss is frequently challenged. A great deal of nonconforming behavior is tolerated.

4. The points of decision-making are determined by such factors as ability, sense of responsibility, availability of information, work load, timing, and requirements for professional and management development. Organizational level as such is not considered a factor.

5. There is a noticeable sense of team play in planning, in performance, and in discipline—in short, a sharing of responsibility.

6. The judgment of people lower down in the organization is respected.

7. The range of problems tackled includes personal needs and human relationships.

8. Collaboration is freely entered into. People readily request the help of others and are willing to give in turn. Ways of helping one another are highly developed. Individuals and
9. When there is a crisis, people withdraw or start blaming one another.

9. When there is a crisis, the people quickly band together in work until the crisis departs.

10. Conflict is mostly covert and managed by district/school politics and other games, or there are interminable and irreconcilable arguments.

10. Conflicts are considered important to decision-making and personal growth. They are dealt with effectively, in the open. People say what they want and expect others to do the same.

11. Learning is difficult. People don't approach their peers to learn from them, but have to learn by their own mistakes; they reject the experience of others. They get little feedback on performance, and much of that is not helpful.

11. There is a great deal of on-the-job learning based on a willingness to give, seek, and use feedback and advice. People see themselves and others as capable of significant personal development and growth.

12. Feedback is avoided.

12. Joint critique of progress is routine.

13. Relationships are contaminated by masksmanship and image building. People feel alone and lack concern for one another. There is an undercurrent of fear.

13. Relationships are honest. People do care about one another and do not feel alone.

14. People feel locked into their jobs. They feel stale and bored but constrained by the need for security. Their behavior, for example in staff meetings, is listless and docile. It's not much fun. They get their kicks elsewhere.

14. People are "turned on" and highly involved by choice. They are optimistic. The work place is important and fun (why not?)

15. The superintendent/principal

15. There is a high degree
tightly controls small expenditures and demands excessive justification.

16. The superintendent/principal is a prescribing father to the organization.

16. Leadership is flexible, shifting in style and person to suit the situation.

17. Minimizing risk has a very high value.

17. Risk is accepted as a condition of growth and change.

18. One mistake and your opinion will never be accepted again.

18. What can we learn from each mistake?

19. Poor performance is glossed over or handled arbitrarily.

19. Poor performance is confronted and a joint resolution sought.

20. Organization structure, policies, and procedures encumber the organization. People take refuge in policies and procedures, and play games with organization structure.

20. Organization structure, procedures and policies are fashioned to help people get the job done and to protect the long-term health of the organization, not to give each bureaucrat his due. They are also readily changed.

21. Tradition!

21. There is a sense of order, and yet a high rate of innovation. Old methods are questioned and often give way.

22. Innovation is not widespread but in the hands of a few.

22. The organization itself adapts swiftly to opportunities or other changes in its marketplace because every pair of eyes is watching and every head is anticipating the future.
23. People swallow their frustrations: "I can do nothing. It's their responsibility to save the ship."

23. Frustrations are the call to action. "It's my/our responsibility to save the ship."

Table 8, Educational Innovations Probability Chart by Jon Wiles (550, 1976, p. 30), provides an interesting way of predicting if an innovation would seem to have a chance at being successfully implemented.

The goal of any change effort in a school system should be improved effectiveness in performance and improved organizational health which will give the system the ability to adapt to changing expectations and conditions. School districts must begin to use their human resources more effectively. The people who are part of the district must feel that they are members of the team—the team working together toward the common goal of improving society by helping each child realize and develop his/her own potential. Society cannot afford to waste resources, time, know-how, and commitment because school systems are unable or unwilling to develop the type of formal and informal structure that can get the job done under the conditions which exist.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Higher Risk</th>
<th>Lower Risk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Source of Innovation</td>
<td>Superimposed from outside</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impact of Innovation</td>
<td>Challenges sacrosanct beliefs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Official Support</td>
<td>Officials on record as opposing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning of Innovation</td>
<td>Completely external</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Means of Adoption</td>
<td>By superiors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History of Change</td>
<td>History of failures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possibility of Revision</td>
<td>No turning back</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 8  (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Higher Risk</th>
<th>Lower Risk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Role of Teachers</td>
<td>Largely bypassed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher Expectation</td>
<td>Fatalistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Load Measure</td>
<td>Substantially increased</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Threat Measure</td>
<td>Definitely threatens some clients</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Sector</td>
<td>Hostile to innovations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The response in each category which most accurately reflects the condition surrounding the implementation of the middle school. If the role of your school is predominately in the high risk side of the matrix, substantial work must be done to prepare your school for change.

Chapter 3

RESEARCH CONCLUSIONS

Based on the findings in the areas of teacher effectiveness, instructional supervision, and the change process discussed in Chapter 2, Chapter 3 will include conclusions drawn in each of these areas. The conclusions drawn in the area of instructional supervision, combined with those general principles recognized as being essential for optimum adult learning, will form the basis for a theory on instructional supervision. This theory (or set of assumptions) will, in turn, serve as a foundation for selecting and presenting an appropriate supervision model. Based upon the conclusions drawn in the area of change process, an appropriate change model will be chosen and presented.

Conclusions--Instructional Supervision

The studies which have been done indicate that the site administrator is the person who has the greatest opportunity to work with teachers to improve classroom instruction. The direct observation of classroom interactions and the providing of related feedback to the teacher can be the most relevant and continuous inservice that the teacher can have. Madeline Hunter's studies have shown that effective teachers generally have principals who accept the role of instructional leader as a central function--in fact, in these studies the principal's method of working with teachers proves to
be key to what can be accomplished in the school in the improvement of instruction.

However, school administrators do not generally receive the specific education and training needed to be effective instructional supervisors. In fact, it has been very difficult to discover any semblance of agreement in the educational community as to what is an effective instructional supervisor, not to mention what education and training is necessary to be one. The fact that there is a need for additional study and professional commitment in this area has not been generally acknowledged. This point is quite evident when considering that less than one-half of one per cent of the federal and state monies which are available for staff development have been directed toward administrators.

There are basic attitudes and skills needed by the site administrator before he can work with teachers and build the feeling of mutual trust and respect necessary in a growth-promoting supervisory relationship—a feeling tarnished by years of unsatisfactory, unsatisfying inservice and direct instructional supervision experiences. The supervisor must first have an awareness of the potential importance of his instructional supervisory responsibilities. He must understand and then communicate his own comprehension through word and deed that instruction is important and that the improvement of the quality (in terms of reaching learning objectives which have been set) of classroom instruction is his most important function.

The site administrator must show those teachers with whom he works that he is committed to improving his own skills
and increasing his own professional knowledge—that he has a self-
renewing attitude. Research indicates that the environment in a
school in which student achievement is increasing is one in which
every one there is involved in learning and growing. The supervisor
must realistically examine his own commitment by considering the
books and journals he reads, the conferences or seminars he attends,
and the manner in which he actually uses tested new ideas, plans,
and techniques to match the individual needs of the teachers in his
building.

The site administrator who is going to be able to help
teachers grow professionally must believe and demonstrate the belief
that each teacher is a unique personality with a special background
of experiences and education, with special beliefs, opinions, and
values, and with special needs to be met. He must consider whether
or not his attitudes and actions indicate that he perceives teachers
in general to be highly competent professionals who are interested in
meaningful assistance in fulfilling their professional potentials.
He must acknowledge the fact that in general the supervisory
relationship has not been a satisfactory one in terms of producing
increased student achievement.

The effective instructional supervisor has an educational
philosophy which he has consciously developed, educational objectives
and goals for which he is striving, and a well-developed plan for
attaining those objectives and goals. Those with whom he works
should be acutely aware of his philosophy, his objectives, and his
implementation plan. (These should be in concert with community
expectations and district philosophy and goals). Since the plans
for implementation of his instructional improvement program will
obviously have a better chance of success if those affected have been
involved in the plan development, it is important that the final plans
and minimum expectations be communicated to those involved.

There are basic interpersonal skills that the instructional
supervisor should have. He should consciously evaluate how
effectively he makes use of these skills. He must be able to
communicate the ideas that he has in order to coordinate, evaluate,
innovate, motivate, and organize. The specific communication skills
a growth-promoting supervisor needs include speaking, writing, and
active listening.

Another group of skills to be considered are in the human
relations area. Supervision carried out by an administrator
without consideration of the human feelings involved can be seen by
the teacher as a threat which is endangering his professional standing
and undermining his confidence in himself and his abilities. The
supervisor who is skilled in the human relations area knows:

1. The importance in building a climate of mutual respect
   and trust.
2. That teachers must see a need for change and have a
desire to change before any real change will take place.
3. His own positive attitude about teachers and their
   willingness to change is an important part of the
   possible change.
4. That he must rely heavily on intrinsic control and
   "ability authority."
5. That his main emphasis must be on helping people develop
   and grow.

Because the effective instructional supervisor will be
working with teachers to identify strategies and methods which are
bringing about desired results and those which are not, and to propose
alternatives when needed, he must have a repertoire of instructional
strategies and skills himself. He must have a thorough knowledge of instructional theory and the necessary skills for its practical applications in the classroom. In fact, he should be able to help a teacher understand the connection between an instructional pattern of behavior and the quality of the instructional program or the students' success in reaching the learning objectives which have been set. It has been suggested that he should be able to comprehend and appreciate approximately 15 teaching skills, be able to demonstrate 6 to 8 of these same skills, and know of sources of help in developing others (423, 1979, p. 9). He must be willing and able to help his teachers become acquainted with current instructional and curriculum trends to help them plan and then to evaluate new curriculum ideas they plan to implement.

The effective instructional supervisor must have the same skills needed by the teacher in planning and teaching a lesson. His implementation of that plan must be just as thoughtful and theory based as that of the classroom teacher—tied to set objectives which have been developed after diagnosing the needs that exist and which are evaluated regularly by predetermined evaluative criteria. The instructional supervisor must be one of the most effective "teachers" in the building.

The following guidelines summarize basic ideas which should be incorporated into a supervision program which has as one of its most important objectives—change (182, 180, pp. 2-4):

1. The administrator must be personally committed to the idea that teacher evaluation [word "evaluation" being used by author of reference to indicate supervision as it has been used in this paper] should be a shared process.

2. Teacher evaluation must be considered a formative process.
3. Evaluation must be implemented as a mutual process between teaching staff and evaluator. (If evaluation is to result in desired educational growth, the individual teacher must participate actively in the analysis of collected data.) Teachers need to be valued and to have input concerning their professional development.

4. The evaluation process should offer teachers the opportunity to reflect, in depth, upon their personal educational tenents and to compare them with their actual classroom practices.

5. Never underestimate the power of positive reinforcement.

6. Growth is a necessary ingredient of all educational programs and staff members must be aided in recognizing its ongoing importance.

7. The administrator must be thoroughly prepared to carry out the evaluative process.

8. The evaluation process should be clearly conveyed to the teacher along with expectations.

9. Do not expect miracles.

Conclusions—Teacher Effectiveness

The instructional supervisor must be aware of the connection between an instructional skill or behavior and the quality of the program. He then must be prepared to help the teachers with whom he works to understand that connection if he is to be helpful to the classroom teacher in reaching instructional goals which have been set. He must be willing and able, on the basis of valid and reliable teacher effectiveness research, to help the teacher analyze and improve his planning process to the point that he is satisfied with the quality of interaction between himself and his students, between the students and the materials and activities used, and among the students themselves.

The following patterns of teaching behaviors summarize the conclusions drawn (discussed in greater detail in Chapter 2) in relatively recent teacher effectiveness research. Knowledge of these patterns can be useful to the professional educator in setting
and reaching educational goals after he has assessed the curriculum to be covered, the diagnosed needs of his students, the maturity level and experiential backgrounds of his students, the materials and facilities available, and his own teaching talents and skills.

The planning/teaching process should be designed to include the following teacher behaviors.

**Determination of the Instructional Objective.**

The teacher must decide what content is to be covered, exactly what is to be accomplished. This decision may be made by those on the district level. In order to be useful in latter parts of the planning/teaching process, the objectives must be stated in terms of observable minimal levels of student behavior.

**Diagnosis**

When the teacher knows what is to be accomplished (the objectives) he must then determine the knowledge and skill levels, interests, learning styles, and the strengths and weaknesses of the students in his class in relationship to the learning objectives which have been set. The process of assessing the "gap" between what is to be accomplished and the current performance level of the student is extremely important if the subsequent steps of the planning/teaching process are to produce the desired results (satisfaction of the learning objectives). A teacher's accuracy in diagnosing student skill levels is related to student achievement and academic learning time.

**Prescription**

The teacher's next step in the planning/teacher process
involves the determination of more specific unit or lesson objectives, the choosing of specific activities and materials which are appropriate according to specific objectives and the current assessed student skill levels, the grouping to be used, and the scheduling of time—the teacher decides specifically what to do in the classroom. The effective teacher is able to prescribe appropriate learning experiences based on what he has learned in the diagnosis step. He has research-based knowledge of what he is doing and does it on purpose. He is aware of the psychological principles of learning and the cause and effect relationships in human learning; he considers these principles and relationships as he develops his lesson plans. Prescription of appropriate tasks by the teacher has been found through research to be directly related to student achievement and student success.

Presentation

This most important step involves what is normally thought of as "teaching the lesson." During this phase of the planning/teaching process, the strategies to provide for successful interaction between the students and the teacher and between the students and the materials and activities are planned (during planning) and implemented (during teaching)—these strategies include choosing and appropriately using the proper (in the teacher's professional judgment) methods, materials, activities, learning principles, grouping designs, and time schedules.

Research has given the teacher a good foundation for making decisions in this phase. It is patterns of practice rather specific isolated teaching skills or teacher characteristics which account
for effectiveness. General attitudes of behaviors of the teacher
during presentation of a planned lesson should include:

1. Has a good grasp of subject matter to be covered.
2. Is well organized.
3. Is able to teach to a specific objective.
4. Has a variety of patterns or clusters of teaching behaviors which he can use after the situation has been diagnosed and the prescription for the lesson has been determined.
5. Selects and directs classroom activities himself (structures the lesson).
6. Has good presentation skills; i.e., can explain well, demonstrate a point, lead a discussion in which students actively participate.
7. Paces the lesson in order to maintain group momentum and interest, but knows that lessons should be as continuous and sustained as possible without being rushed nor becoming disjoined by abrupt shifts within the lesson.
8. Provides variety in classroom activities.
9. Adapts presentation to different ability levels.
10. Is able to express individuality in his style of teaching while at the same time providing for the specific learning needs of the students.
11. Understands (and acts accordingly) that students can make the greatest learning gains when taught with a structured curriculum.
12. Is able to create an environment that is task-oriented but relaxed.
13. Understands (and acts accordingly) that teacher talk in
the form of lectures and demonstrations is as important as recitation, drill and practice.

14. Is able to generate enthusiasm in the classroom.

15. Understands that the atmosphere which is most conducive to learning is one in which there is warmth, conviviality, and democratic practices.

16. Realizes that a high self-concept in students is important and in general, praise of positive actions is more effective than criticism of negative actions.

17. Keeps growing professionally through self-evaluation, supervision, and inservice.

18. Continues to question teaching decisions and actions on the bases of his own observations and new ideas and knowledge.

19. Emphasizes academic achievement and expects that all students will achieve.

20. Tends to set higher goals than less effective teachers and is more persistent in working to overcome obstacles to meet these goals.

21. Has a "can do" attitude, believing that his students are capable of learning the material and that he is capable of teaching them effectively.

Use of Time:

1. Knows how to organize and maintain a learning environment that maximizes time spent engaged in productive activities (those designed to help students reach learning objective) and minimize time lost during transitions periods of confusion or disruptions
that require disciplinary action.

2. Does not socialize or allow students to socialize in class.

3. Does not permit interruptions of class activities or negative behavior.

4. Does not grade papers during class period.

5. Plans to have students spend great amounts of time on task in basic skill instruction and makes provision for corrective instruction.

6. Understands that fewer teacher and student absences result in greater learning gains if the teacher uses effective strategies and techniques while working with students.

7. Understands (and acts accordingly) that the greater the amount of time allotted for a particular content, the greater the amount of time students actually spend successfully engaged in a learning activity the greater the learning gains.

**Student Involvement:**

1. Tends to teach the class as a whole or in large groups, giving less independent seat work.

2. Knows that individual seat work can be beneficial if:

   (a) The difficulty level is appropriate; (b) the activity is related to direct instruction which immediately precedes it and students understand the objective of the activity; (c) students understand what their task is and are monitored and provided help as needed; (d) students can progress to a subsequent academic task without waiting for others to complete their work; (e) students receive "immediate" feedback on their completed work; and (f) students are able to focus on assigned tasks without outside distractions.
3. Provides activities and experiences which actively involve students.

4. Understands that grouping size is not important if students receive direct teacher attention which keeps them involved in the task at hand.

**Materials and Activities:**

1. Chooses materials that are of appropriate difficulty.

2. Chooses criterion materials (those which will help students reach learning objectives).

3. Assigns tasks for which students have a high likelihood of success.

4. Provides content related to students' interests and backgrounds.

5. Promotes extensive content coverage.

6. Understands that written exercises can be substituted for discussion to promote learning except if the learning objective is to improve the students' abilities to give high-level cognitive responses.

**Management:**

1. Has learned how to routinize classroom management tasks.

2. Has a business-like or task-oriented behavior.

3. Is able to monitor entire class continuously.

4. Is able to do two or more things at the same time without having to break the flow of classroom events.

5. Establishes reasonable behavior rules and consistently follows through in rule enforcement.

6. Encourages positive behavior and controls negative
behavior.

7. Finds ways to get students to cooperate with one another and to take responsibility for their work.

**Monitoring and Feedback:**

1. Is able to sustain one activity while monitoring another.

2. Demonstrates alertness and awareness.

3. Frequently monitors student verbal and written responses.

4. Makes sure that students "master" one unit before moving on to the next.

5. Monitors student progress by asking questions and circulating around the room—the effective teacher knows that: (a) questions about content can produce a high degree of learning; (b) drill can be an effective strategy; (c) high-achieving students tend to profit more from questions that allow for divergent responses; (d) low achieving students tend to benefit more from lower-level questions (on Bloom's Taxonomy) that produce correct student responses and from the teacher persisting and helping them to respond when they experience difficulty; (e) questions should be directed to specific students rather than continually to those who volunteer; (f) during recitation when providing feedback and help questions are asked which produce correct responses approximately 75 percent of the time (the percentage should be slightly higher for remedial classes); and (g) questions in written exercises are as effective as questions asked during discussions in facilitating knowledge acquisition.

6. Gives adequate feedback so students know what they have
learned and what they have yet to learn.

7. Structures learning activities to include immediate academically-oriented feedback.

8. Knows that the percentage of instructional time during which students receive evaluative feedback is positively related to student engagement time and to student achievement.

9. Knows that (and acts accordingly) students who experience more than average time in high-success learning activities have higher achievement scores, have a better rate of retention over the summer, and have more positive attitudes toward school.

10. Understands that the use of evaluative feedback that is directly related to student performance in reaching the learning objective is positively correlated with increased academic performance.

Theory of Instructional Supervision

Before a model can be developed for preparing site administrators to be effective instructional supervisors, it is necessary to outline a set of assumptions or generalizations which will serve as a foundation for that model. These assumptions must be supported by philosophical generalizations and scientific principles. The set of assumptions so derived form a theory which "serve as a basis for projecting hypotheses [if-then propositions] which suggest a course of action" (478, 1966, p. 5). It must be remembered that a theory itself is not a law (478, 1966, p. 3), but serves the following purposes (478, 1966, pp. 13-19):

1. Gives direction—having an instructional supervision
theory would put the principal in a position to draw specific hypotheses which would direct the instructional improvement project and would provide for communication and a better understanding of what is being done and why and the evaluation of results.

2. Denotes why—denotes method of thinking, reasoning, and problem solving which is systematic and organized, enabling educational leaders to explain the "why" of their actions.

3. Permits consistency in behavior [concerning itself with purposes and goals].

4. Prevents miscellaneous behavior.

5. Serves as a guide to new knowledge.

According to Arthur Colardarco and Jacob Getzels, the value in having a theoretical framework from which to work is that "assumptions are stated, the antecedent-consequent relationships explicit and the method of arriving at the anticipated outcomes communicable" (106, 1955, p. 4).

The basic phases through which theory development passes are (202, 1966, pp. 18-19):

1. Analytical Phase—Student of administration with some purpose in mind, . . . collects cases of administrative behavior, analyzes them and catalogs them into various types, kinds and categories. This collecting is . . . the gathering together of human experiences and the arrangement of them into comprehensible, manageable forms.

2. Process of Synthesis—Involves trying to make sense out of the information that has been gathered and analyzed. This process brings meaningful concepts and principles from raw experiences and serves to direct future behavior more intelligently.
3. Application to Practice—When an important concept has been formulated, it has little influence unless it is reflected in the practice of the daily affairs of people. It must be remembered as plans for implementation are drawn up, the theory which is developed does not exist separate from and independent of theories which form the foundation for activities in other areas of the involved individuals' lives. "That is, a theory of educational administration cannot be greatly different from the theory of the society of which it is a part" (202, 1966, p. 65).

Basic Assumptions Underlying Theory of Instructional Supervision

Nature of Man

1. Worth and Dignity of the Individual (478, 1966, pp. 42-45, slightly adapted): (a) In a democracy the cornerstone of the society is the individual person; (b) basic criteria for determining the effectiveness of a democratic institution is the extent to which it enables each individual to realize his maximum growth; (c) worth and dignity of the individual, an important concept in a democratic society, cannot be taught in isolation but must be taught as it is practiced throughout the organization; and (d) individuals can have a greater opportunity of achieving the fullest measure of their own individuality only in concert with other individuals.

2. Problem-Solving Ability: (a) "man is increasingly able to order his circumstances and to control the nature of his development" (272, 1952, p. 27); (b) "... all men can and in the long run will voluntarily choose those courses of action that are most advantageous to them, individually and collectively, if all are given full
opportunity to choose and if the consequences of the alternatives are explained in terms the choosers understand" (259, 1953, p. 24);
(c) studies on self-directed decisions according to Carl Rogers can be summarized as follows (454, 1951, pp. 63-64):

If the individual or group is face by a problem
If a catalyst-leader provides a permissive atmosphere
If responsibility is genuinely placed with the individual or group
If there is basic respect for the capacity of the individual or group

Then responsible and adequate analysis of the problem is made; responsible self-direction occurs; the creativity, productivity, quality of product exhibited are superior to results of other comparable methods and individual and group morale and confidence develop.

3. Man's Innate Desire to Improve: (a) "man seeks not merely the maintenance of a self but the development of an adequate self--a self capable of dealing effectively and efficiently with the exigencies of life both now and in the future" (109, 1959, p.18); and (b) "professional people are motivated and capable of improving themselves in reference to the demands of their profession and as individuals."

Persons, institutions, and agencies, then which are directly responsible for providing educational leadership and training educational leaders are desirous of improving their competence.

Nature of Decision Making

1. People are basically cooperative and are much more effective in solving problems when they are working cooperatively as a group (478, 1966, p. 75).

2. "... quality of decisions made by the group process far outweighs the individual decision made and may even be more efficient in the long run" (519, 1959, p. 263).
Nature of Leadership

1. Leadership which meets the assumptions stated above must meet the following criteria (478, 1966, p. 92): (a) It must adequately recognize the importance of each individual and the contribution he can make; (b) it must be effective in accomplishing the task; and (c) it must provide for the realization of the contributions of the individuals through group activity.

2. "The manner in which decisions are made and policies developed has a very direct bearing on professional relationships in the school. If teachers have a voice in matters affecting them, they are more likely to accept decisions and work wholeheartedly for the effective implementation of these decisions" (237, 1960, p. 88).

3. People are more likely to implement their own decisions and thus function more efficiently in terms of set objectives than when decisions are submitted to them (478, 1966, p. 95).

4. "Persuasion as a determinant of human behavior is superior to coercion in securing cooperation and that common goals must be understood, valued, and accepted by each member of a group" (202, 1966, p. 52).

Nature of Adult Learning - Conditions of Learning and Related Implications for Instructional Supervisor or Inservice Leader (286, 1973, p. 70, adapted slightly):

1. The learners must feel the need to learn: (a) Supervisor should provide exposure to new possibilities for self-fulfillment; (b) supervisor should help each educator clarify his own aspirations for improved behavior; and (c) supervisor should help each educator
diagnose the gap between his desired level of performance and his present level of performance.

2. The learning environment should provide for physical comfort, mutual trust and respect, mutual helpfulness, freedom of expression, and acceptance of differences: (a) Supervisor should provide physical conditions which are comfortable and conducive to interaction; (b) supervisor should show by attitude and actions that he accepts each of the "learners" as a person of worth and respects his feelings and ideas; (c) supervisor must actively seek to build relationships of mutual trust and helpfulness among the "learners" by encouraging cooperative activities rather than competitive or judgmental ones; and (d) supervisor should expose his own feelings and contribute his resources as a co-learner in the spirit of mutual inquiry.

3. The learners perceive the goal of the learning experiences to be their goals and share in the responsibility for planning and operating the experiences provided and therefore have a commitment to them: (a) The supervisor involves the "learners" in a mutual process of formulating learning objectives which take into account mutually, identified needs; and (b) the supervisor shares his thinking about options available in setting up learning experiences and the materials and methods which are available.

4. The learners participate actively in the learning process. Carl Rogers said, "I have come to feel that the only learning which significantly influences behavior is self-discovered, self-appropriated learning. Such self-discovered learning, truth that has been personally appropriated and assimilated in experience, cannot
be directly communicated to another" (453, 1953, p. 58): (a) supervisor must make an opportunity to create their own responses in situations (151, 1941, p. 192); and (b) supervisor must understand that the learning process is "one of experiencing, doing, reacting, undergoing" (544, 1971, p. 243) and provide appropriate experience opportunities.

5. The learning process is related to and makes use of the previous experiences of the learners: (a) The supervisor helps the "learners" exploit their own experiences as resources for learning through the use of such techniques as discussion, role playing, and case method; (b) the supervisor gears the presentation of the resources he is able to make available to the level of experience of the people with whom he is working; and (c) the supervisor helps the "learners" to apply new learning to their previous experiences and thus makes the new learning more meaningful and helps to integrate it into learners' backgrounds of experiences.

6. The learners have a sense of progress toward their goals: (a) The supervisor involves the "learners" in developing criteria and methods for measuring progress in reaching the objectives which have been set; and (b) the supervisor helps the learners develop and apply these methods and criteria in a self-evaluation of progress being made.

These assumptions are valid regardless of whether an educator has the responsibility of establishing an inservice project for training effective instructional supervisors or is himself an instructional supervisor working directly with teachers on the local school level.
The Clinical Supervision Model of Morris Cogan (103, 1976) and Robert Goldhammer (191, 1969) has been chosen for use in the instructional supervisors' training model which will be presented in Chapter 4. The Clinical Supervision Model has been selected over other models because it seemed to best incorporate the assumptions which underlie the theory of instructional supervision which was enunciated earlier. Richard Weller has offered the following definition of clinical supervision (544, 1971, pp. 19-20):

Clinical Supervision may be defined as supervision focused upon the improvement of instruction by means of systematic cycles of planning, observation and intense intellectual analysis of actual teaching performances in the interest of rational modification.

Clinical Supervision Model

Table 9 shows a schematic representation of the clinical supervision model (32, 1976, p. 22). The specific features of the clinical supervision model which make it appropriate for this work are:

Worth and dignity of man. According to Morris Cogan, one of the basic values and rationales for the clinical supervision model is respect for the teacher as a human being (373, 1970, p. 6). It focuses the attention of those involved in the process on the strengths of the teacher and assumes that each teacher has a large reservoir of talent which has not yet been tapped. It is built on the assumption that if a climate of mutual respect and trust exists, one in which professional growth and development is expected of every one in the organization, then teachers will
Table 9. Clinical Supervision Model (32, 1976, P. 22)
be willing and able (with appropriate help) to improve (493, 1976, p. 21). The clinical supervision model is designed on the assumption "that teachers want to increase competencies and want to be successful for they seek and derive satisfaction from accomplishing challenging and important work" (493, 1976, p. 21).

**Decision making.** The processes used to implement this model recognize the problem-solving and decision-making abilities of the teacher. The teacher helps define and identify skills, performances, and areas for instructional improvement. The responsibility of the supervisor is to present what he observes to the teacher, make resources available, and suggest possible alternative methods and materials; but ultimately "the teacher must make decisions about changes in classroom teaching/learning procedures not the supervisor" (373, 1970, p. 6).

**Nature of leadership.** The clinical supervision model is built on the assumption that the supervisor is competent to work with teachers to improve classroom instruction. It is assumed that this improvement requires that teachers understand and use specific intellectual and behavioral skills and that one of the primary responsibilities of the supervisor is to teach the following skills (as necessary) to the teacher (4, 1980, p. 11):

1. Skills of complex analytic perception of the instructional process.
2. Skills of rational analysis of the instructional process based on explicit observational evidence.
3. Skills of curriculum innovation, implementation and experimentation.

The supervisor using the clinical supervision model accepts
the concept that the teacher is more likely to implement lasting improvements if he has had a significant part to play in initiating those changes. "Anything connected with a person (i.e., caused by him, created by him, owned by him) is seen as 'forming a unit' with him and tends to be evaluated as he is" (451, 1975, p. 473). The effective clinical supervisor knows that his role is to secure the commitment for change from the teacher not to coerce (373, 1970, p. 6). The best way this commitment can be secured is to help the teacher see through objective data the difference between what he believes he is doing or accomplishing and what is actually happening in the classroom—"absence of such consistency is psychologically uncomfortable or tension producing and people are motivated to try to relieve this discomfort by restoring cognitive consistency in some way" (451, 1975, p. 473).

The part clinical supervision plays in the process might be depicted graphically as shown in Table 10 (493, 1976, p. 27): The clinical supervisor also knows that "if the teacher as interpreter wishes to ignore what data show, only skill on the part of the supervisor will bring the actual situation to light" (100, 1980, p.240). Effective instructional supervisors using this model "tend to be personalities who are among other things able to stimulate, challenge, and free the persons around them to perform at their highest level of competence" (452, 1977, p. 15).

Nature of learning. The clinical supervisor knows that before learning can take place the learner must feel the need to learn and that to assume change can take place without an interest, desire,
Table 10. Educational Platform (493, 1976), p. 27

Educational Platform

Espoused theory (generally known)

Theory in use (generally not known)

Compatible with school philosophy?

No

Modify espoused theory

Possible personnel action

Prepare for next cycle

Provide support and reinforcement

Yes

Congruent with espoused theory?

Yes

Concurrent with clinical supervision

Surface dilemmas

No

Construct theory in use

Yes

Clinical Supervision

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or effort on the part of the person expected to change is unrealistic (100, 1980, p. 239). As previously indicated, this supervisor understands that one of the most effective ways to help a teacher see a need for change in his instructional processes is to use objective data to show him the differences between what he believes is happening as a result of instruction and what is actually happening. "Through a series of conferences based on data gathered in instructional interactions, strengths and weaknesses of instruction are jointly diagnosed, decisions made about priority plans for changes . . ." in the clinical supervision model (539, 1976, p. 164).

The clinical supervisor realizes the importance of a positive, open supervisory relationship. He knows those involved must understand the responsibilities and objectives within the relationship (539, 1976, p. 166). He knows that he should operate consistently within the established guides, making sure that there are no hidden agendas or values evident in manner in which the program is operated (539, 1976, p. 166). He is aware that if learning and growth are to take place, all those involved must be willing to listen and to respond to feedback not only about what is happening in the classroom but also about what is happening between the teacher and the supervisor (539, 1976, p. 166), realizing that supervision should be a dynamic process of give and take (4, 1980, p. 12).

In order for beneficial change to take place, the goals or targets which are set during the interaction between supervisor and teacher must be seen by the teacher as his own goals.

We are willing indeed eager to assume or at least attempt new behaviors if we perceive the need for them, if they appear to be viable solutions to problems we
identify and wish to solve ourselves and if they appear to be in accord with our own personal and/or professional values (18, 1973, p. 3).

In fact "the supervisor's role is to help increase the teacher's freedom to act self-sufficiently in the classroom" (373, 1970, p. 6). The clinical supervisor must be as careful in planning his work with a teacher as he expects that teacher to be in planning for the classroom.

**Conclusions--Change**

If significant improvement is to be possible in a school or in an entire school district, the necessary changes must involve people throughout the system. It takes deliberate action in diagnosing, analyzing, planning, innovating, implementing, and evaluating, if meaningful, goal-oriented change. It must be remembered that the change process is slow and takes a great deal of planned effort to be successful.

The nature of school organizations as they exist today account for many of the problems the people concerned with change must face. The organizations are bureaucratic with hard and fast rules and procedures and many layers of authority between the level on which important decisions are often made and the level on which they are to be implemented.

Few of those in positions of formal power have any training in the change process. Confused goals, uniformity of approach regardless of the needs or personalities of the people, no reward for being innovative, and low personnel development investment are the results of this lack of properly prepared leadership and of
What is needed are school organizations which have a climate in which the "cooperative interaction of various elements in the system work together in such a way that the whole is more than the sum of its parts" (312, 1972, p. 68)—a synergetic organization. There are four basic characteristics of a school or a system which has a synergetic organization (312, 1972, p. 80):

1. A synergetic school is clear as to its purposes.
2. A synergetic school provides for effective interaction between individuals and between subsystems.
3. A synergetic school is capable of adapting to change.
4. A synergetic school exhibits a drive for self renewal.

Organizational change, then, depends on a positive climate in which human motivations and behaviors are understood and in which its human resources are seen as being its most valuable assets.

It is not formal rules or procedures but rather the quality of the human involvement, commitment, and understanding exercised by professionals, parents, students, and others that make a school effective in meeting the change of a pluralistic and changing society (312, 1972, p. 81).

It is in this type of positive, self-renewing climate where each unique person (with different personalities, past experiences, and goals) is recognized as a possible resource that people will grow and develop professionally and that mutually accepted goals of the organization will be met.

The Organizational Development Change Model

The organizational development model has been chosen for inclusion in the instructional supervisors' training model which will be presented in Chapter 4. It is necessary for those involved in
trying to bring about meaningful change, whether in the attitudes of administrators concerning instructional supervision or in an individual teacher's efforts in the classroom, to recognize that change does not happen automatically but must be carefully planned for and nurtured.

Organizational development is at once a conceptual framework and a strategy aimed at helping schools to become self correcting, self renewing systems of people who are receptive to evidence that change is required and are able to respond with innovative programs and arrangements. . . . Organizational development attempts to facilitate that release of energy by helping school people learn productive ways of working on their problems, improving their instructional capabilities, achieving new ways of interacting despite frustration, and become confident in their own ability to understand themselves, assess their own circumstances, identify their goals, and perform the functions to which they have committed themselves (485, 1977, p. 3).

The goals of an organization development program could be stated as (411, 1973, p. 2):

1. To develop a fully functioning organization that optimizes its human and material resources in accomplishing its specific goals and objectives.
2. To develop a work climate built on openness, trust, and respect for individual members.
3. To develop a proactive organization that anticipates problems (where possible) before they occur and plans for them as soon as it is realistically possible to do so.
4. To affix appropriate authorities and responsibilities for organization members and facilitate the development of a work climate that encourages individual initiative and personal fulfillment.
5. To create, develop, and maintain effective management systems that are designed to facilitate optimal organization performance.

The general procedures which would be followed in an organizational development project in a school environment would include:

1. Ascertain the objectives of the project to be undertaken with the key administrators (or educators) involved. What do they see as being the problems that exist in the school or district?
2. Gather data that will clarify the extent of the problems that exist and will perhaps shed light on other problems of which the key people are not aware. It should include a look at the total system.

3. Analyze data (in light of school's or district's objectives) and present these preliminary findings to the key administrators for clarification and direction.

4. Develop and implement a specific plan of action (intervention) that will:
   a. Clearly identify problems to those involved
   b. Identify a feasible problem-solving model
   c. Implement proposed solutions which are in the form of experienced-based learning activities
   d. Evaluate the results of the plan.

5. Terminate the formal project when it is accepted by those involved that the solutions for the diagnosed problems are being successfully (meeting objectives which were set) put into effect and according to indications will be long lasting.

The goal of an organization development effort is the improved effectiveness in performance and improved organizational health which will give the entity the ability to adapt to changing demands and conditions in order to remain effective. Individual schools and entire districts must begin to use their human resources more effectively. The people in the organization must feel that they are part of a professional team—a team working together toward the common goal of improving society by helping each child realize and develop her/his own potential. No longer can society afford to waste resources, time, know-how, and commitment because schools and school districts are unable or unwilling to develop the type of formal and informal structure that can get the job done under the conditions which exist. Organizational development skills and attitudes should be tools in the hands of each administrator.
Chapter 4

THE MODEL

The purpose of this study was to develop a model for training inservice administrators to become effective instructional supervisors. Effective instructional supervisors as used in this project are those who are willing and who are prepared to help teachers make better planning decisions, diagnose students' knowledge and skills, prescribe appropriate learning experiences, monitor student learning and on the basis of this monitoring modify instruction, and use properly the principles of instruction.

To develop this model, it was determined that the necessary experiences, proficiencies, and skills an instructional supervisor should have would have to be identified. In order to identify these experiences, proficiencies, and skills, an extensive review of the literature was conducted in the areas of effective teaching and instructional supervision. The findings of this review were reported in Chapter 2 and were used as a basis for the theory of instructional supervision which was formulated and then reported in Chapter 3 of this paper. This theory will now provide the foundation for the training model to be developed and reported in Chapter 4.

Since it was accepted from the beginning of the study that change would not automatically occur in the behavior of inservice administrators as a result of being provided another inservice
opportunity, various change models designed to bring about planned change were researched and studied. The findings of this study were reported in Chapter 2. The Organizational Development Change Model, which was chosen along with the justification for its selection, was described in Chapter 3.

In this current chapter, the training model designed to provide the experiences which are intended to reinforce or develop the research-identified proficiencies and skills needed to be an effective building-level secondary instructional supervisor will be prepared for a hypothetical school district. The model will include the principles of the organizational development model in order to insure as much as possible that the desired administrator behavior changes will not be expected to happen automatically but will be carefully planned for and nurtured. Also, the model will be compatible with the theory of instructional supervision which was summarized in Chapter 3. It is assumed that a group of administrators from various line positions will be responsible for coordinating the development, implementation, and evaluation of the inservice project.

Change

Research has shown it cannot be assumed that because one section of the educational community desires change and provides inservice experiences and opportunities that change will automatically take place. In order for long-lasting, meaningful change which is directed toward the accomplishment of specific goals to take place,
the school district must first obtain a valid picture of where it stands in relationship to goals which have been set or which are assumed. The district must evaluate its approaches to people and to the processes it has initiated which focus on the organization's people and their task-oriented interactions. The organization must consider its approaches to technology and the methods or procedures it uses to channel people and technology to accomplish tasks.

To provide the organizational unit with a clear image of itself, data must be collected, analyzed, and then used to improve on-going processes. As the person or group which has responsibility for the planning of the project determines what information is needed and how it will be collected, it must be aware of the fact that the data-collection process itself must be carefully planned. Research has shown that the method by which data are collected can influence the feelings and motivations of the people in the organization and can affect not only the validity of the information given, but also attitudes of the people toward subsequent project activities (382, 1977, p. 50). Studies have also indicated that those from whom data are collected during this phase of the project tend to concentrate their later energies and resources in the areas upon which attention has been focused (382, 1977, p.50). By implication, the employees feel that the activity being measured must be of great importance to those in authority.

Table 11 shows a model representing the effects of data collection on organizational behavior (382, 1977, p.66). As seen
Table 11. Effects of Data Collection on Organizational Behavior
(382, 1977, p. 66)
in this model, information can play an important role in motivating change if employees consider that information as valid, accurate, and unbiased and as presenting a new and different picture of the organization.

**Gathering the Data**

There are many methods of data collection. The following are among those which should be considered (382, 1977, p. 1):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>METHOD</th>
<th>MAJOR ADVANTAGE</th>
<th>MAJOR POTENTIAL PROBLEMS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interviews</td>
<td>1. Adaptive--allows data collection on a range of possible subjects</td>
<td>1. Can be expensive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Source of &quot;rich&quot; data</td>
<td>2. Interviewer can bias responses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Empathic</td>
<td>3. Coding/interpretation problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questionnaires</td>
<td>1. Responses can be quantified and easily summarized</td>
<td>1. Nonempathic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Easy to use with large samples</td>
<td>2. Predetermined questions may miss issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Relatively inexpensive</td>
<td>3. Data may be over interpreted</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Can obtain large volume of data</td>
<td>4. Response bias</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Observations</td>
<td>1. Collects data on behavior rather than reports of behavior</td>
<td>1. Interpretation and coding problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Real-time, not retrospective</td>
<td>2. Sampling is a problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Adaptive</td>
<td>3. Observer bias/ reliability</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4. Costly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secondary</td>
<td>1. Nonreactive--no-response bias</td>
<td>1. Access/retrieval possibly a problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>data/unob-trusive measures</td>
<td>2. High face validity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Easily quantified</td>
<td>2. Potential validity problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3. Coding/interpretations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The change agent must establish the goals and objectives of the data...
gathering activities in order to be sure that the specific data required for analysis and later activities are actually collected. Table 12 indicates the various methods which could be employed to obtain the necessary information, depending on the diagnostic focus of the project (172, 1978, pp.54-59, adapted slightly in order to be appropriate for school organizations).

After the data have been collected and analyzed, the feedback process begins. This process involves giving data to those involved for the purpose of bringing about change. The first step in making sure the feedback process is effective is to assure the data are specific enough that goal setting and subsequent behavior will be directed toward organizational objectives. The following are criteria for an effective method of feedback which must be considered (382, 1977, p. 147):

1. Relevant—Information can only create energy if it relates to issues that are meaningful to the recipients.

2. Understandable—The form, language, and symbols used in feedback must be familiar and understandable to the people in the organization.

3. Descriptive—The receiver must be able to relate the data to real-life events in her/his work.

4. Verifiable—Information might be presented on how the data were collected (people will respond more to data that they believe to be valid and accurate).

5. Limited—Limited data organized to prevent overload are more effective at creating and directing energy.

6. Impactable—Presenting information that relates to the areas of activity that can be influenced by the receiver can create energy to make changes that are truly possible to make.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Diagnostic Focus</th>
<th>Explanation</th>
<th>Typical Information Sought</th>
<th>Common Methods of Diagnosis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The entire organization</td>
<td>The total system is to be assessed. The diagnosis might consider environmental organizations, federal regulations, legislative programs and attitudes</td>
<td>What is the culture of the organization? What are the attitudes, opinions and feelings of the classified and certificated employees toward compensation, organizational goals, supervision, the superintendent/principal, etc.? What is the organization climate—open vs. closed, authoritarian vs democratic, repressive vs. developmental, trusting vs. suspicious, cooperative vs. competitive? How do top-level administrators view the climate? Middle administrators? Teachers?</td>
<td>1. Interviews (group and individual) are useful particularly if based on effective sampling techniques</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Large subsystems which are by nature complex and heterogeneous</td>
<td>The target group may be any operationally independent &quot;slice&quot; of the organization. Examples could be the instructional area or the business services area</td>
<td>All of the above, plus: How does the subsystem view the whole and how does the whole view it? What are the unique demands on this subsystem? Are the subsystem's goals compatible with organizational goals?</td>
<td>2. A panel of representative organization members who are surveyed or interviewed periodically</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3. Questionnaires</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4. Diagnostic meetings (which will be discussed in the intervention section)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12. Data Collection (172, 1978, pp. 54-59)
Table 12 (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DIAGNOSTIC FOCUS</th>
<th>EXPLANATION</th>
<th>TYPICAL INFORMATION SOUGHT</th>
<th>COMMON METHODS OF DIAGNOSIS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Small subsystems that are simple and relatively homogeneous</td>
<td>These are typically formal work groups or teams that have frequent interaction. Examples are superintendent and cabinet, principals, administrative team, teachers in a department</td>
<td>The questions discussed above on culture, climate, attitudes and feelings are also relevant here, plus: What are the major problems of the team? How can team effectiveness be improved? What do people do that gets in the way of others? Are member-leader relations those that are desired? Is good use made of group and individual resources?</td>
<td>Typical methods include: individual interviews followed by a group meeting to review the interview data, short questionnaires, observations of staff meetings and other day-to-day operations; and a family group meeting for self-diagnosis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interface or inter-group subsystems</td>
<td>These consist of subsets of the total system that contain members of two subsystems, such as a matrix organizational structure requiring an individual or a group to have two reporting lines. But more often this target consists of members of one subsystem having common problems and responsibilities with members of another subsystem--The staff of a secondary school and members of the Curriculum Department</td>
<td>How does each subsystem see the other? What problems do the two groups have in working together? In what ways do the groups get in each other's way? How can they collaborate to improve the performance of both groups? What is the nature of the climate between the groups? What do the members want it to be?</td>
<td>Confrontation meetings between both groups are often the method for data gathering and planning corrective actions Organization mirroring meetings are used when 3 or more groups are involved. Interviews of each subsystem followed by &quot;a sharing of the data&quot; meeting or observation of interactions can be used. (These methods will be discussed later)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIAGNOSTIC FOCUS</td>
<td>EXPLANATION</td>
<td>TYPICAL INFORMATION SOUGHT</td>
<td>COMMON METHODS OF DIAGNOSIS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dyads and/or</td>
<td>Superior/subordinate pairs interdependent peers, persons who have multiple</td>
<td>What is the quality of the relationship? Do the parties have the necessary skills for task</td>
<td>Separate interviews followed by a meeting of the parties to view any discrepancies in the</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Triads</td>
<td>groups memberships are all examples</td>
<td>accomplishment? Are they collaborative or competitive? Are they effective as a subsystem?</td>
<td>interview data are often used. Checking their perceptions of each other through confrontation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Are they supportive of each other?</td>
<td>situations may be useful. Observation is an important way to assess the dynamic quality of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individuals</td>
<td>Any individual within the organization, i.e., students, teachers,</td>
<td>Does the person perform according to the organization's expectations? How does s/he view</td>
<td>Interviews, information derived from diagnostic work team meetings, or problems identified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>administrators, support personnel, etc.</td>
<td>his/her place and performance? Do certain kinds of problems typically arise? Does s/he</td>
<td>by personnel department are sources of information. Self-assessment growing out of other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>need particular knowledge, skills, or abilities?</td>
<td>interventions is another source</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
7. **Comparative**—At least part of the data should include data that can serve as comparison points or benchmarks.

8. **Unfinalized**—For feedback to be effective, the formal data should serve only as a starting point for more in-depth data collection, problem identification and problem solving.

The second factor to be considered in the effective use of feedback is the way the data are presented. The input should emphasize participation in using it in a nonpunitive manner, as a basis for goal-setting activities. The feedback process itself can serve as a change motivator (382. 1977, p.72):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FEEDBACK FUNCTION</th>
<th>HOW THE MECHANISM WORKS</th>
<th>NECESSARY CONDITIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Disconfirmation</td>
<td>Feedback motivates behavior by providing information that presents inconsistent perceptions</td>
<td>Data must be perceived as accurate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Feedback motivates behavior by setting up expectations that behavior will lead to feedback which in itself generates positive feelings in the individual or group</td>
<td>Conditions must be present to prevent defensive behavior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>In addition, it provides a standard against which goals can be set</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal-reward expectancies</td>
<td>Feedback motivates behavior by setting up expectations that behavior will lead to feedback which in itself generates positive feelings in the individual or group</td>
<td>Level of behavior to obtain favorable feedback must be attainable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Task must be challenging so that attainment is desirable</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Feedback must include some comparison data as a standard</td>
<td>Conditions must be present to facilitate goal-setting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External-reward expectancies</td>
<td>Feedback motivates behavior by setting up expectations that behavior will lead to feedback which will lead to the attainment of other valued rewards from the environment</td>
<td>Level of behavior to obtain rewards must be attainable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Instrumentality of feedback for rewards must be high</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEEDBACK FUNCTION</td>
<td>HOW THE MECHANISM WORKS</td>
<td>NECESSARY CONDITIONS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>External-reward expectancies (Cont.)</td>
<td>Feedback calls attention to errors which can be corrected through known and established routines of behavior</td>
<td>Feedback must be specific</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Correction routines must be clear and understood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cueing</td>
<td>Feedback calls attention to errors where correction behavior has not yet been identified and thus must be discovered</td>
<td>Feedback should be on process as well as outcome variables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning</td>
<td>Feedback should include models of effective behavior</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since this model is being designed for a hypothetical school district, it is accepted that at this point the following steps in the change model have been accomplished:

1. The objectives of the project have been ascertained from the key educators involved—to improve the skills of instructional supervisors. The problems that exist in the district according to these educators have been determined.

2. Data have been collected which can clarify the extent of the problems that actually exist in this area and which brought to light concerns of which the "key people" were not aware.

3. The data have been analyzed in light of the district's goals and objectives. The preliminary findings have been presented to the "key" administrators for clarification and direction.
Interventions

The project is now at the point where it is necessary for the change agent to develop his strategy to bring about the needed changes which could be used for developing the change model is called the force-field analysis (Alv, 1973, p.11):

1. Identify the problem you want to work on
2. What are the driving and restraining forces that affect the problem?
3. Identify the 2 or 3 most significant forces that drive or restrain the problem situation
4. List possible action steps that would reduce the effects of the restraining forces and increase the power of the driving forces
5. Review the feasibility of each proposed action step and decide which ones to implement
6. Identify the resources (people, material, finances) available for carrying out each action step
7. Develop a comprehensive action plan, sequence activities, assign responsibilities for implementation
8. Implement as planned
9. Evaluate.

The change agent is now at the point where he can work with the educators involved, including a number of inservice, secondary-level administrators, to develop a specific plan of action, an intervention to solve an identified gap between the goal of effective instructional supervision and the actual supervision which is provided in the schools according to collected data.
The purpose, then, of Chapter 4 is to develop an inservice training model, the chosen intervention, which will provide the opportunities and experiences necessary to develop the research-supported proficiencies and skills needed to be an effective instructional supervisor. Graphically, the model at this point would be represented as:

Hypothetically, the following events have occurred to this point:

1. An important objective or goal for the district or school is providing instructional supervision on the secondary school level which is seen by those involved and through objective data as being a major resource in the professional growth and development of teachers and with the ultimate result of increased student achievement on criteria-referenced tests.

2. A need for such an intensive inservice has been identified through appropriate diagnostic data collection and analysis including questionnaires given to and interviews conducted
with on-site administrators and teachers.

3. Those involved (on-site administrators and district resource people) have identified the on-going inservice format as being the best method to reach the objectives which have been set.

4. The following are the objectives which have been established for the project:
   
a. To make instructional supervisors aware of the impact they can have on the instructional program and on student achievement

b. To help them consider their present level of commitment to helping others grow and develop professionally

c. To review with them the necessary human relations and communication skills they need to work effectively with teachers

d. To review with them the principles of instruction, including teaching strategies and models of teaching

e. To review with them the clinical supervision model and to give them the skills and experiences necessary to use the model in an actual situation

f. To give them occasions to use the model in their own schools with meaningful feedback and coaching opportunities.

**Necessary Climate of Sessions**

The model being developed is based on the assumptions underlying the Theory of Instructional Supervision which was outlined in Chapter 3. The ethos of the inservice must be one in which the worth and dignity of the individual is accepted. The evaluation of the program must be based on the extent to which it enables each participant to realize his maximum growth.
The program must be developed upon the premise that the participants are professionals who can be productive instructional supervisors if, as a major part of the inservice, they are faced with a genuine problem, such as the gap between what effective instructional supervisors can accomplish and what they are accomplishing as individuals, are helped to develop necessary skills, are given an atmosphere in which they can try and can be successful or even fail, and are respected as individuals who desire to improve and to grow.

Adult Learners—Must Feed Need to Learn

The nature of adult learners must be carefully studied by those charged with the responsibility for planning the program. The adult learner must feel the need to learn. He must be exposed to the new possibilities for self-fulfillment which exist in his function as instructional supervisor. He must have an opportunity to clarify in his own mind his feelings and his own aspirations for becoming a more effective instructional supervisor. The participant in the inservice sessions will feel a need to learn if he can be helped to see the extent of the gap between his desired level of performance, what he could be as an instructional leader, and his present level of performance.

Therefore, the first part of the inservice must be devoted to providing each participant with an opportunity to assess his own performance in terms of:
1. What research indicates about the impact a skillful instructional leader can have on the achievement levels of students.

2. What the literature says about teachers' feelings about instructional supervision as "normally" practiced.

3. What the teachers with whom he works feel about his skills of instructional supervision.

4. What gap exists in own perception of "what is" as compared to "what could be."

If the participant feels that he is already doing a superior job as an instructional supervisor, he should not continue with the inservice because without a felt need to learn, nothing will be learned!

Graphically the model at this point would appear as shown on the following page.
Development of a Needed Knowledge and Skill Base

Based on the conclusions which have been drawn in Chapter 3, the person(s) who is charged with the responsibility of planning in-service experiences for the building-level, secondary administrators must provide opportunities for them to acquire a needed knowledge base and skill development in the areas identified through the literature and reported in Chapters 2 and 3 as being critical to an effective instructional supervisor.

Interpersonal skills. The participant must realize the importance of the interpersonal skills of communication—not only the messages he sends through his writing and his verbal exchanges but also the way he listens. Activities should be provided which will make each participant aware of the importance of these skills and which will give each an opportunity to evaluate his present skills and to improve those areas in which he is dissatisfied.

The inservice leader must share with the participants the assumptions concerning human relations underlying their own inservice experiences. It is upon these same assumptions that the participants should develop their individual plans for working with teachers in their own building. These, which were discussed in Chapters 2 and 3, can be summarized as follows:

1. The importance of building a climate of mutual respect and trust
2. The belief that people must see a need for change and have
a desire to change before any real change will take place

3. The position that the supervisor's own positive attitude about teachers and their willingness to change is an important part of the possible change

4. The belief that the supervisor must rely heavily on intrinsic control and "ability authority"

5. The premise that the supervisor's main emphasis must be on helping people grow and develop

According to the research discussed in Chapters 2 and 3, the environment in a school in which student achievement is increasing is one in which every one there is involved in learning and growing. The teachers should see the supervisor as a person committed to improving his own skills and increasing his own professional knowledge. The supervisor should be viewed by his teachers as a person who has set high performance goals for himself and is personally well qualified for his job.

**Instructional Strategies and Skills.** If the instructional supervisor is going to be a resource person for the teachers with whom he works, he must be able to recognize effective teaching strategies and techniques as well as be able to propose alternatives when desired results are not being achieved. Therefore, the supervisor must have a repertoire of instructional strategies and skills himself. The inservice activities provided for the secondary administration must review for many participants and introduce for others a knowledge of instructional theory and the necessary skills for its practical
application. Included in this study would be the fundamentals of developing a lesson plan: determination of the instructional objective, diagnosis of the strengths and weaknesses of the students in relationship to the learning objectives which have been set, prescription of specific activities and materials which are appropriate, presentation methods, and evaluation techniques.

The instructional supervisor must be aware of the latest conclusions drawn in teacher effectiveness research. He must be able to be a resource not only to the teacher who is having difficulties in helping his students achieve the desired results, but also to the effective teacher to help him understand why his students are achieving so that he will be able to utilize consciously these strategies and techniques again.

In order to help teachers who are experiencing problems in achieving instructional objectives, the effective supervisor should comprehend approximately 15 teaching skills and should be able to demonstrate 6 to 8 of these skills (423, 1979, p.9). The inservice experiences provided must therefore include a review (or an introduction for some) of these teaching skills for the participants as well as an opportunity to become as comfortable as possible with them through practice and application.

In the area of instructional theory the supervisor should understand, be able to apply, and be able to help his teachers understand the principles of motivation, reinforcement, effective practice and review, and transfer of learning. Exposure to these principles
as well as an opportunity to apply them must be provided as part of the inservice.

Development of Skills Needed to Use Clinical Supervision Model

The inservice experiences of the involved secondary administrators will include an introduction to the Clinical Supervision Model. They will become familiar with the model and the ways it can be used. They will be given opportunities to experience, as a supervisor and as a teacher, its various stages, including:

The Pre-Observation Conference:
- Defining an area of concern
- Discussing lesson plan and teacher's expectations
- Establishing a base rate or criterion as appropriate
- Designing the data-collection instrument

The Observation—Including Data Collection

The Analysis of the Data

The Preparation for the Post-Observation Conference

The Post-Observation Conference.

Methods to be Considered for the Inservice

The hypothetical coordinating group which has been given the responsibility to plan such an inservice has considered the advantages and disadvantages of a great many methods of presenting ideas and materials to participants, involving them to the greatest extent possible. They have selected the following methods as the ones they will incorporate most heavily into the training model (95, 1977, selected from pp. 6-37):
The Case Study

The case study is a detailed account of an incident—real or fictional—presented to an audience for in-depth study and discussion. Usually, the case involves a problem for which the group must devise a solution. Large groups may be divided into subgroups to facilitate analysis; subgroups may then study different aspects of the same case or separate cases.

**HOW IT CAN BE USED**

1. To present and solve problems which typically confront supervisors and managers on a day-to-day basis.

2. To provoke thoughtful discussion of factors which might contribute to particular problems.

**WHO CAN BENEFIT FROM IT**

With carefully chosen cases, this technique can be used for all levels of supervisors and for mid-level managers.

**Advantages:**

1. The case can be designed to focus on a problem or situation common to group members.

2. Use of this technique helps the learner to see that a problem has more than one solution.

3. It helps develop supervisors' and managers' analytical and problem-solving skills.

4. Most people find the technique interesting and challenging.

**Disadvantages:**

1. Some individuals may consider it a useless exercise if the case is not relevant to their own situations.

2. It takes time and skill to develop a good, complex case study.

3. It may not be possible to use a case more than once. The second group of participants may not judge the case on its own merits but
according to whether the first group was able to apply to the real world what they learned from the case.

**Materials:**

1. Case studies may be either long enough to require considerable study prior to discussion (5 to 10 pages) or short enough to be read and studied on the spot. Specific questions about the case help direct the discussion.

2. The case may be presented to the class orally or in written materials, through dramatization, or by audiovisual media. Regardless of form, the cases must be clear, interesting, and relevant to the interests of participants.

3. Trainers can write cases themselves or obtain prepared cases from library materials.

**Procedures:**

1. Give the case to group members far enough ahead of time for them to read and study it individually.

2. If necessary, divide the group into discussion units. Have each unit select one person who will report the discussion results to the whole group.

3. Determine how much time to allow (your experience and the complexity of the case will guide you).

4. If subgroups are used, have each report to the entire audience at the end of the discussion period. Open the discussion to the main group at that time.

5. Guide the discussion so as to make sure that it helps the group achieve the intended learning objectives.

**Related Approaches:** Similar to the case study is the Incident Process. Skits or Role Playing may be used to introduce the case.
Brainstorming

In brainstorming, a question or problem is posed to a group, and then a brief period is devoted to listing all possible solutions as they are rapidly suggested. No attempt is made during this time to assess the value of any idea or to arrange the suggestions in any order. Participants are urged to suggest any idea that comes to them without regard to its practicality. Each contribution is considered and evaluated in a group discussion that follows the brainstorming.

HOW IT CAN BE USED

1. To get the group to consider many facets of a common problem in trying to solve it.

2. To encourage learners to think creatively.

3. To stimulate the participation of persons who are reticent in more formal situations.

WHO CAN BENEFIT FROM IT

1. Brainstorming can be used in groups of supervisors or managers at any level.

2. Brainstorming is especially useful for persons whose jobs require the ability to think creatively.

Advantages

1. Participants practice not only creativity but a different approach to problem solving.

2. Solutions to genuine problems facing the group may be found.

3. Brainstorming usually stimulates participants' interest.

4. A great many workable ideas may be suggested within a short time.

Disadvantages

1. Although participants are urged to be spontaneous during discussion, they may have to defend their ideas from the group's criticism.

2. Many of the suggestions may be of little worth.
3. The size of the group must be limited so that all have a chance to participate.

Materials

This technique requires no materials aside from a chalkboard, flip chart, or other surface on which to write the suggestions.

Procedures

1. A time limit for the brainstorming is decided upon (usually 15 minutes or less).
2. As ideas are presented they are recorded where all can see them.
3. Each idea is discussed briefly to determine if it has practical application to the problem at hand. The best ideas are then discussed at length.

Related Approaches

Brainstorming is also called the idea inventory. It can be used with small groups in any group-discussion based training.

The In-Basket Technique

The in-basket technique is a simulation exercise in which the participant deals with written correspondence. The participant assumes the role of a supervisor or manager who must decide what action to take on each item in a set of letters, notes, memos, etc. (The role is usually that of a new supervisor or manager so as to do away with the need for background information.) Usually, the situation is made somewhat stressful by the addition of three limitations: The supervisor or manager is under stringent time constraints, has no help in doing the work, and must use only the materials at hand.

HOW IT CAN BE USED

1. To teach decision making, handling of written correspondence, report writing, employee
relations, budgeting of time, setting priorities, and other basic supervisory and managerial skills.

2. To expose the learner to some common problems faced by managers and supervisors.

**WHO CAN BENEFIT FROM IT**

1. Supervisors and managers at all levels can benefit from practicing the in-basket technique.

2. The technique is most commonly used for training entry-level managers.

**Advantages**

1. The participant must solve realistic problems.

2. In-basket items stimulate the interest and involvement of participants in dealing with problems that may occur on their jobs.

3. Most exercises take little time and are inexpensive and easy to administer.

**Disadvantages**

1. Problem solutions sometimes look good on paper but are not feasible.

2. As a training method it is usually not used alone but in combination with other techniques. This requires more preparation on the part of the instructor.

3. Formulating the original in-basket materials can be very time consuming.

**Materials**

1. It is best to use material pertinent to the position for which the participant is being trained.

2. If correspondence from a fictional organization is used, enough information should be given to allow participants to understand their own roles and the general layout of the organization.

3. Items should be designed so that the participants realize that many management problems have more than one solution.
Procedures

1. Explain the objectives of the exercise and give any background information necessary.

2. Give participants written instructions which explain what they are to do and the limitations which are placed on them.

3. Instruct participants to write down every action they would take on each item.

4. After the exercise, discuss how the participants approached the in-basket items (whether in sequence, by grouping them in some order, etc.) as well as what actions they took on the items.

Related Approaches

Managerial games, case studies, and other simulation exercises.

Role Playing

Role playing is a simulation exercise in which members act out a real-life situation in front of the group. Usually, participants are given roles that have some bearing on their jobs. There is normally no script and they make up their parts, often using general guidelines, as they go along. The group then discusses the implications of what took place.

HOW CAN IT BE USED

1. To examine a problem in human relations

2. To provide insight into the attitudes and feelings of one's self and of others.

3. To change or modify attitudes.

4. To develop skills in interpersonal relations

5. To provide an opportunity to practice "new" or alternative behaviors.

WHO CAN BENEFIT FROM IT

Managers and supervisors at all levels.
Advantages

1. Role playing is an effective and motivating way to present a problem and to stimulate discussion.

2. It provides clues to possible solutions and allows the player to explore them without running the risks inherent in a real life trial and error approach.

3. It gives the player the chance to assume the position of another, to think and act in a way atypical of his own.

4. It allows the instructor to see how well participants have grasped principles and can put them into practice.

Disadvantages

1. Some people may be unable to role play successfully.

2. Even if the exercise is properly critiqued, the learner may not be able to use what he has learned. When he tries to apply what he has learned to the real world, he will confront circumstances that are beyond his control.

3. Since the content of the role play is determined by the players, it may be difficult for the instructor to direct the exercise so that it accomplishes the learning objectives.

Procedures

1. The problem or situation is clearly defined by the group before role playing begins, and the scene is set by the group leader with the assistance of the group.

2. Usually players are selected just before role playing begins and are not warned in advance, although a brief warm-up period may be necessary to get the players into the right spirit.

3. The leader should allow the action to proceed only so long as it contributes for understanding (usually 5 to 10 minutes).

4. Following the role play, the players and the audience discuss what went on in it.
5. After the discussion, a second set of participants may be chosen and the scene replayed.

Managerial Games

When playing a managerial game, participants are presented with a situation that is similar to real life. They are asked to assume the roles of managers and supervisors who must deal with the situations. Thus, they learn to cope with problems that may confront them on the jobs. Games may be either purchased ready to use or designed to meet the needs of a specific group. The games can be simple or complex and can involve manual computation or data-processing equipment. If the group of participants is large, it can be broken into smaller groups. The smaller groups can compete with each other.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HOW THEY CAN BE USED</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. To help participants learn about themselves, how they relate to others, how groups operate, and the &quot;human side&quot; of organizations.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. To allow participants an opportunity to observe and practice many forms of social interaction.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. To allow participants to practice their leadership and decision making skills.</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WHO CAN BENEFIT FROM THEM</th>
<th>Supervisors and managers at all levels.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Advantages</td>
<td>1. A situation that might take months to develop in real life can be compressed into a short training period (particularly if the game is computerized).</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Participants become deeply involved.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. The personality of the trainer or facilitator is de-emphasized; the leader is less central to the learning situation.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
4. Although conflict may be inherent in the game, the game situation is structured enough that players will be under severe stress.

5. There are many games from which to select. They vary in goals, recommended group size, time required, materials used, process, and instructions.

Disadvantages
1. Most games have not been validated empirically, so there is little information available on their effectiveness.

2. The market is inundated with games and how-to-do-it manuals, but many trainers do not understand the design and application of experienced-based learning. Therefore, they do not take full advantage of the technique.

3. Sometimes the game creates a degree of competitiveness that obstructs the achievement of the learning goals.

4. Unless it is computerized, administration of a complex game may be difficult.

5. Games may cost more than other types of training.

Materials
1. Scenarios, including backup information such as correspondence, reports, organization charts, etc.

2. Whatever props and equipment are necessary, desk calculators, for example, or a computer for complex games.

Procedures
1. The structured situation is set in motion by the trainer, who introduces the scenario and the conditions or rules that govern the same.

2. Interaction proceeds within the group(s) until the game is completed or the time limit is reached.

3. Decisions of the groups may be analyzed by computer or by a group of judges. The outcomes and consequences of the decisions are
fed back to the groups during and at the end of the game.

Lecture-Lecturette

The lecture, an oral presentation prepared and delivered by a subject-matter expert, is probably the oldest and most basic form of instruction. It is used to supply the greatest amount of information in the least time. Like other types of information presentation, it does not allow for feedback from the learners; thus, it should be combined with participative techniques whenever possible.

**HOW IT CAN BE USED**

1. To introduce concepts, identify and analyze problems, or clarify issues related to supervisory and managerial functions.

2. To deliver training content which is best presented all at once in an orderly manner and does not require practice.

**WHO CAN BENEFIT FROM IT**

1. Trainees who have similar needs and similar capabilities to learn the material.

2. Managers and supervisors who are highly motivated to learn the material.

**Advantages**

1. Lectures are efficient in terms of time, facilities needed, and the number of participants who can be trained at one time.

2. The lecturer retains control over the learning content.

3. This technique may be more acceptable than others are to participants who are accustomed to a traditional teaching-learning situation.

4. Lectures can easily be varied to suit trainees' needs and can be used with almost any other training technique.

**Disadvantages**

1. Participants usually have no opportunity to make comments, ask questions, or otherwise
show that they understand the material presented.

2. The lecturer must be qualified both as a subject-matter expert and as a speaker.

3. Long lectures (over 40 minutes) may not be readily learned or remembered. Lecturelettes are shorter and can be highly effective.

4. Listeners might not make the transfer from intellectual understanding to practical application.

Materials

1. Some books dealing with supervisory and managerial training contain outlines for lecturing on pertinent topics.

2. Lectures are often more effective if supplemented by visual materials such as handouts, slides, chalkboard notes, etc.

Procedures

1. Analyze audience needs.

2. Determine objectives.

3. Plan lecture.

4. Present lecture, listing main points and then expounding on them.

5. Summarize main points.

Instructional Television

Instructional television is comparable to film in its uses and advantages. An effective television presentation brings the action to the viewer; trainees have a chance to observe things which would be very difficult to replicate in a classroom. Like other means of audiovisual presentation, television can be used in individual instruction, particularly when the tapes are in video cassette form.
**HOW IT CAN BE USED**

1. To record a role play, discussion, or presentation and replay it for detailed examination.

2. To record a session for viewing by persons unable to attend.

3. To demonstrate desirable performance in a more realistic setting than the classroom.

4. To take the place of the instructor when he cannot be present.

**WHO CAN BENEFIT FROM IT**

Supervisors and managers at all levels.

**Advantages**

1. Television can take management training out of the academic realm and place it in an environment which more closely resembles the real world.

2. Presentations can be taped ahead of time; trainees can replay parts of the tape as often as needed.

3. In the form of video cassettes, television presentations are more convenient and often less costly to produce than films.

4. Video cassettes are more adaptable to small groups than is film.

5. Video cassettes can be set up and operated more easily than film can.

6. Most trainers can handle the mechanics of showing a television presentation; thus it is easy for them to tailor a presentation to the needs of a particular group.

**Disadvantages**

1. The video tape player and monitor are more expensive than a film or a slide projector and screen.

2. The viewing area is limited to the size of the monitor. It may be too small to be seen by large groups.

**Materials**

1. Video cassette tapes for individual instruction are available from training media sources.
Procedures

1. Preview prerecorded tapes as you would a film.

2. Introduce the tape and go over the learning objectives.

Related Approaches
Closed Circuit TV, Audio Cassette Tapes,
Programmed Instruction, Audiovisual Aids.

Individual Development Plans

An individual development plan (IDP) is a recorded, systematic approach to individual training and development based on the needs of the organization and the goals and objectives of the individual. Specific valid training and developmental experiences are identified and scheduled, and the plan is approved by appropriate management personnel. In other words, after the needs are identified, the most suitable training methods or techniques are recorded and scheduled. the IDP "gets it all together," documenting objectives and results.

HOW IT CAN BE USED

1. As a reference tool when planning ways of enhancing an employee's present performance or of preparing the employee for future assignments.

2. As a reference tool when scheduling mobility assignments, details, job rotations, or on-the-job training.

3. As a reference tool for planning ways to cope with mission changes, changes in technology, and other manpower management problems.

4. As a reference tool to plan training in connection with mobility programs and objectives.

5. As a reference tool to ensure that regulatory requirements for training are met.
6. As a reference tool to assist management in organizational development, management by objectives, and budgeting.

7. As a reference tool when planning the implementation of organizational development, management by objectives and budgeting.

WHO CAN BENEFIT FROM THEM

1. The trainee.
2. The supervisor of the trainee.
3. Higher-level management.
4. Staff personnel.

Advantages

1. An IDP documents a systematic, orderly approach to training and development.
2. Referring to IDP's can help a manager improve the allocation and utilization of limited resources.
3. Being involved in the planning and approval of IDP's can cause management to focus on the training and development needs of the organization.
4. The IDP's can facilitate the management of the training function.

Disadvantages

1. Supervisors must develop counseling skills if they are to help employees with their IDP's.
2. The need to follow an IDP can result in a loss of flexibility.
3. Working on IDP's can be time consuming and increase paperwork.
4. Effective implementation of IDP's requires management support and adequate monitoring by the training staff or the employee's supervisor.

Procedures

1. Determine needs of employees.
2. Determine needs of organization.
3. Counsel employee and develop training objectives with the employee.

4. Identify optimum training and development solutions.

5. Follow up at established intervals.

The Reading List

A developmental reading project might begin with a casual comment: "I think this is an excellent book. Why don't you read it and we'll discuss it when you are finished." A list of reading materials (books, articles, etc.) is given to the employee. The items included on the list can be chosen by the training coordinator or by the trainee's supervisor. After reading each item, the trainee may discuss it informally with the person who compiled the list. This approach can be used alone or to prepare the supervisor or manager for further training.

**HOW IT CAN BE USED**

1. To stimulate thinking and introduce new ideas.

2. To initiate a brainstorming or discussion session.

3. As precourse material to reduce classroom training time.

**WHO CAN BENEFIT FROM IT**

1. All managers and supervisors and all trainees for those positions.

2. Trainees who are prevented from participating in other types of training by lack of time, distance from the training center, or other reasons.

**Advantages**

1. The assigned reading material can cover a wide range of subject matter.
2. No special facilities are needed; individuals can read at times and places that suit their own schedules and circumstances.

3. Readers can skim or read in depth, depending on their prior knowledge or level of interest.

4. The supervisor or trainer who compiled the reading list knows exactly what information is being presented to the learner.

**Disadvantages**

1. This training approach requires that the reader be motivated (either by interest in or the need for the information) to learn the material through his or her own efforts.

2. It may be difficult to suit the reading material to the trainee's reading rate and level of comprehension.

3. Reading lists by themselves require no demonstration of learning or change in performance.

4. Some elements of supervisor or manager training may be more effective when presented via other media, i.e., films or television.

**Materials**

1. Suggested reading lists for general supervisory or managerial topics are compiled by many professional organizations, consulting firms, libraries, and companies which publish training literature.

2. Readings must be selected with the following factors in mind: the participants' reading levels, the amount of time they have, the type of information they need, and the availability of the materials.

**Procedures**

1. Develop a list of questions that can be answered by reading the materials.

2. If the reading is required rather than discretionary, have the employee demonstrate that the material has been read and understood.

3. If necessary, ask the reader to take notes on items that can be discussed further.
Coaching

Coaching usually structures a one-to-one relationship between the "coach" (a supervisor or manager who is more experienced or at a higher level than the person being coached) and the understudy, but coaching sessions can be held for groups as well. Besides the obvious benefits to the understudy's professional development, the time spent working closely with a supervisor often makes the participant more confident about his or her own abilities and more comfortable about dealing with other supervisors. Coaching is an ideal form of training for supervisors and managers in that they gain experience in dealing with situations as they arise yet there is constant supervision from a knowledgeable coach.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>HOW IT CAN BE USED</th>
<th>1. To promote the interchange of information between different levels of supervision or management.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. To prepare an understudy to assume a particular position.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. To continue particular managerial philosophies or approaches.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>WHO CAN BENEFIT FROM IT</th>
<th>1. Newly appointed supervisors and managers.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Persons chosen to assume the same position as the coach's but in another location.</td>
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</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Advantages</th>
<th>1. The coaching can be geared specifically to an individual's needs and capabilities.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Contact with the coach is nearly continuous.</td>
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</table>
3. The learner has the benefit of both his/her own experience and that of the coach.

Disadvantages

1. How valuable the training is depends to a large extent on the coach's competence as a coach.

2. It is sometimes difficult to get supervisors or managers as higher levels to devote the large amount of time needed for good coaching.

3. In some instances, the understudy is merely an observer or mimic of the coach's behavior.

Procedures

1. The coach and the understudy agree on what will be required of each during the coaching.

2. The understudy's learning needs are prioritized and the coach is advised of the priorities.

3. If desired, a written training plan can be worked out.

4. The training office assists by planning learning objectives, by supplying developmental materials such as reading lists, and by conducting special developmental activities.

Related Approaches Understudy

As methods are considered, the planning group must realize that any technique or method can fail if it is not used properly and within the context of conducive learning conditions. If, for example, the participants do not see a need to learn the particular technique they are being shown, they will not give it a place in their "skills repertoire" no matter how interesting and enlightening the activity used to "teach" the technique. Another consideration in choosing presentation methods is the level of participant involvement required. For example (404, 1980, p. 74):
Role playing can be a highly effective technique for improving interpersonal skills and understanding of interpersonal relations, when it is used properly. It is not enough, however, for trainees merely to participate in role-playing scenarios or passively watch the role players in action. Genuine learning requires: (1) feedback for role players, coupled with opportunities to replay scenes and thus to practice new behavior based on information received through feedback; and (2) for trainees who do not role play, opportunities for directed observation and testing of observations against those of other observers and the role players. Leadership concepts and skills cannot be learned by osmosis. If conditions are not conducive to active learning, role playing becomes an amusing exercise, usually pleasant, which produces only a minimum of genuine understanding and skill.

The person or group responsible for the inservice must begin planning with specific behavioral objectives in mind just as the effective teacher must begin with an instructional objective:

The most important requisite for intelligent selection of methods is knowledge of ultimate objectives of the training program. Objectives should be explicitly understood in terms both of levels and kinds of learnings to be achieved by end of program and of kinds of behavior to be exhibited after course completion. Any instructor who is given responsibility for designing a course is faced at once with the necessity for resolving these problems. As he goes about selecting terminal learning objectives, a deeper question must be resolved--what kinds of behavior should students exhibit after completing the program? His resolution of these questions has important implications for the decisions that must be made relative to content, methods, and other instructional strategies (404, 1980, p.74).

Table 13 illustrates the importance of identifying the terminal behavioral objectives of the program before attempting to decide which methods to use in achieving them (404, 1980, p.77). According to the Theory of Instructional Supervision presented in Chapter 3, if the adult is to learn he must perceive the goal of the learning experiences
Table 13. General Instruction Goals Accomplished by Training Methods (404, 1980, p. 77)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instructional Goal</th>
<th>Lecture</th>
<th>Conference</th>
<th>Process</th>
<th>Printed</th>
<th>tized</th>
<th>Games</th>
<th>Labora-</th>
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<td>3. Cognitive understanding of uses and problems</td>
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<td>4. Increased awareness and sensitivity to uses and problems</td>
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<td>5. Increased insight into possible problem solutions</td>
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<td>6. Changed attitudes</td>
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<td>7. Improved self-insight</td>
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<td>10. Increased skill in fact finding</td>
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<td>11. Skill in diagnosing interpersonal situations</td>
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<td>12. Skill in acting effectively in interpersonal situations</td>
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<td>13. Increased skill in group decision making</td>
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<td>14. Increased skill in team or group performance</td>
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<td>15. Increased skill in performing job role</td>
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165
to be his goal and share in the responsibility for planning the activities and experiences; he will in this way feel a commitment to them.

As learning experiences and activities are chosen and planned, the change agent must also remember that according to the Theory of Instructional Supervision (developed in this project), the learning process is "one of experiencing, doing, reacting, undergoing" (544, 1971, p.243)—the adult learner must participate actively in the learning process.

The change agent must take into consideration another assumption of the Theory of Instructional Supervision as he plans the inservice program; the learning process should be related to and make use of the previous experiences of the participants, making them a resource (286, 1973, p.70). The change agent must plan activities that will help the adult learner apply the new learning to his previous experiences, therefore making the new learning more meaningful and helping to integrate it into his background of experiences. (Chapter 3.)

The change agent should share the assumptions upon which the Theory of Instruction Supervision is developed with the administrators with whom he is working, as they should realize the importance of these assumptions while working with their own adult learners—the teachers in their buildings.

After the instructional objectives have been chosen and the methods have been tentatively chosen, it is very helpful for the planning group to assemble all of the principal elements involved into a master instructional plan. Once the plan is tentatively assembled,
it would be helpful to test it against the following criteria (404, 1980, pp. 78-79):

1. **Relevance to Student Needs.** The proposed instruction should be aimed at meeting genuine needs of students and should be demonstrably relevant to those needs. If relevance cannot be demonstrated, consideration should be given to modifying or discarding the plan.

2. **Helpfulness in Relating Instruction to Real World.** The proposed activities should help students link events in the training situation to "real-world" requirements, and vice versa. Links between training events and on-the-job problems should be explicit. Further, the proposed activities should encourage and support the use of new learnings on the job. Preplanning, dry runs, and so forth are helpful here.

3. **Location Within the Instructor's Range of Competence.** Instructors should not try methods in which they lack the required proficiency. On the other hand, some insecurity is natural, and much skill can be developed rapidly through practice.

4. **Maximal Motivational Impact.** The instructional procedures should stimulate active interest and participation.

5. **Multiple Learning.** The proposed activity should provide for intellectual, attitudinal, or skill types of learning— or combinations of these. Furthermore, an entire program (a series of sessions) should provide for all types. A single
session should focus rather narrowly; a full sequence of training activities, however, should round out a larger picture and assist the student in many different aspects of his learning endeavors.

6. **Self-Correction.** A good instructional activity should contain provision for continuing evaluation and self-correction. Evaluation of every session by both instructors and students permits rapid identification of instructional problems and prompt correction of defects.

Graphically the completed model could be depicted as shown on the following page.

An additional step was added to the model graphic, that of evaluation. The participants should share with the coordinator their feelings on the value of the experiences immediately upon completion of the inservice and again after several months of application in their individual buildings. The coordinator should analyze this input and make changes in the inservice as appropriate (making use of feedback to revise plans).

The preparation of this inservice model and the related Appendix B is of great importance. Instructional improvement must be accomplished now through existing personnel. Secondary administrators find themselves in the role of instructional supervisors, charged with the responsibility of bringing about improvement in the quality of the staff and the programs and of helping teachers grow and develop while they are on the job at school. These same administrators may find
Identify school district goals

Collect data in reaching goals in instructional supervision

Analyze data - give feedback

Develop appropriate intervention in-service

Expressed satisfaction present with commitment and methods

Awareness of possible impact of instructional supervisor's personal and commitment to being an effective instructional supervisor

Expressed felt need to be more effective instructional supervisor

Inservice experiences

Instructional theory - strategies and skills

Interpersonal skills

Use of clinical supervision model

Evaluation

Stop
themselves without the expertise to carry out this all-important responsi-
bility at a time when they themselves recognize this function as one of their most important and when teachers are beginning to want the help of competent administrators.
Chapter 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The final chapter of this developmental study presents a summary of its purpose, the procedures utilized to collect and analyze the data, and the conclusions drawn. Recommendations are submitted for the purpose of aiding any school district which is interested in narrowing the gap which might exist between what a secondary instructional supervisor can accomplish and what is actually being accomplished in the particular district in question.

An Overview of the Study

The conclusions drawn in recent research studies indicate that the quality of education depends primarily on the quality of the teaching decisions being made and implemented, including the teacher's ability (319, 1976, p. 13):

1. To teach to an objective.
2. To diagnose and prescribe appropriate learning experiences.
3. To monitor pupil performance and to make appropriate corrections in lesson plans.
4. To use appropriately the psychological principle of learning to facilitate instruction.
The literature indicates that "only the classroom teacher can improve the learning of pupils, and only the site administrator is available on a continuous basis to orchestrate the resources required to improve classroom instruction" (34, 1978, p. 22). Principals indicated that although they see the role of instructional supervisor as a necessary one, they are not able to carry it out to their satisfaction (381, 1979, p. 33). These same educators admit that they lack the expertise to be effective instructional supervisors (391, 1977, p. 248)—"The exercise of leadership must be in terms of affecting the learning environments that intimately involve the teacher" (352, 1977, p. 12).

This study was undertaken to determine the necessary experiences, proficiencies, and skills that an instructional supervisor should have in order to help teachers look at their own competence in terms of the quality of the decisions being made (goals, diagnoses, methods, materials, and evaluation) and to help these same teachers increase their effectiveness by improving the quality of the decisions being made.

In Chapter 2, an extensive review of the literature was reported in the areas of teacher effectiveness, instructional supervision, and the change process.

In Chapter 3, the findings concerning effective teaching, instructional supervision, and the change process were summarized, and conclusions were drawn. A theory of instructional supervision was derived, based on the findings reported in Chapter 2. A change model and supervision model were chosen from those discussed in Chapter 2.
These models were consistent with the derived theory of instructional supervision.

In Chapter 4, a training or inservice model was designed to provide building-level secondary administrators with the experiences and knowledge necessary to enable them to develop the proficiencies and skills that the instructional supervisors must have to help teachers improve the quality of the teaching decisions they are making and implementing. The model was based on the summaries drawn in Chapter 3 and supported by the theory developed and the change and supervision models accepted in the same chapter.

**Summary of the Findings and Related Conclusions**

The intent of this study was to provide an answer to the following question:

What are the necessary experiences, proficiencies, and skills that an instructional supervisor should have in order to become the teacher educator his position, as currently perceived by educational leaders in the areas of supervision, educational research, and teaching requires?

The following is a summary of the findings and related conclusions which were drawn as a result of this study:

1. The site administrator is the person who has the greatest opportunity to work with teachers to improve classroom instruction and, as a result, student achievement. **Conclusion:** The site administrator must be professionally prepared to carry out this
responsibility, this opportunity to affect change in student achievement.

2. The direct observation of classroom interactions and the providing of related feedback to the teacher can be the most relevant and continuous inservice that the teacher can have. Conclusion: The site administrator must be professionally prepared to observe in a classroom (gathering relevant data), to analyze the data, and to work with the teacher to understand the connection between teacher actions and student behaviors and to increase the teacher's repertoire of teaching actions.

3. School administrators have generally not received the necessary training to be effective instructional leaders. Conclusion: Inservice training must be provided for administrators who are already on site "working" with teachers.

4. Before a model can be developed for preparing site administrators to be effective instructional supervisors, it is necessary to outline a set of assumptions or generalizations which will serve as a foundation for the model. This should insure that a consistent philosophy will guide the planning and the implementation of all phases of the model. Conclusion: Designing a model for inservice training must begin with an examination of district or school philosophy and objectives and goals.

5. There are basic attitudes needed by the site administrator before he can work with teachers and build the feeling of mutual trust and respect necessary in a growth-promoting supervisory relationship. These include: a self-renewing attitude toward his own professional
development, a belief that each teacher is a unique personality with a special background of experiences with special beliefs, opinions, and values, and with special needs to be met. **Conclusion:** A meaningful inservice experience must include an opportunity for each building administrator to examine his own commitment to personal growth and development of those with whom he works.

6. There are basic interpersonal skills that the instructional supervisor should have, including the communication skills of speaking, writing, and active listening. He must also have an understanding of the importance of skills in the area of human relations. **Conclusion:** Inservice experiences should include opportunities for administrators to evaluate and improve their personal interpersonal skills in the areas of communications and human relations.

7. The effective instructional supervisor must have a repertoire of instructional strategies and skills himself. **Conclusion:** The administrator should have inservice opportunities which will allow him to develop this repertoire of instructional strategies and skills and which will enable him to become a resource for the classroom teacher.

8. The effective instructional supervisor must be able, on the basis of valid and reliable teacher effectiveness research, to help the teacher analyze and improve his planning, teaching, and evaluating processes. **Conclusion:** The building administrator must be familiar with the conclusions drawn in teacher effectiveness research. Inservice experiences should be provided in this area.

9. The building-level instructional supervisory program should be carefully developed and implemented. It should promote the awareness
of strengths and weaknesses of the teacher, provide experiences for
growth and improvement, and encourage beneficial change in the school.

**Conclusion:** The inservice experiences must include giving adminis-
trators a chance to learn to use a supervisory model which is
consistent with the district's philosophy and objectives.

10. Change does take considerable effort; permanent systems, such
as school systems, find it difficult to change. **Conclusion:** The
planners for the inservice training must do everything possible to
insure that the "environment" will be an appropriate one in which change
can take place.

**Recommendations for Further Study**

1. School district administrators should consider using a change
model such as the Organizational Development model as a vehicle to
measure the discrepancy which may exist between their stated or
understood philosophy and objectives and what is actually taking place
on the various levels within the district.

2. School districts should consider offering on-going inservice
experiences for their pre-service and inservice building administrators
to help them develop the identified skills and proficiencies which are
needed by effective instructional supervisors.

3. School districts should provide inservice training for indi-
viduals who are to be consultants for the classroom teacher to insure
as much as possible that they have the knowledge and the professional
skills to be meaningful resources.
4. School district personnel at all levels should be given opportunities to examine their individual commitment to personal professional growth and development.

5. School district personnel at all levels should be given opportunities to share with their peers both the strategies and techniques they have found to be particularly effective and those areas in which they have not experienced as much success—creating, hopefully, an environment in which the desire for self-renewal and growth permeates the entire system.

6. The following projects should be considered for further study:

   a. The differences in achievement on criterion reference tests between comparable schools—one in which administrators have been through inservice experiences such as those described in the model developed in this study and one in which administrators have not taken advantage of inservice opportunities.

   b. The implementation of a complete Organizational Development project in a district in which the project had the support of top central office administrators.
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APPENDIX A
PART I

YOUR JOB SATISFACTION

1. As a school administrator, what three aspects of your work give the most satisfaction during the school year?
   a. ____________________________________________
   b. ______________________________________________________________
   c. ____________________________________________________________

2. What are the three most pressing problems you experience during the school year?
   a. ___________________________________________________________
   b. ___________________________________________________________
   c. ___________________________________________________________

3. What or whom do you find most valuable in dealing with the above problems?
   ____________________________________________________________

PART II

POSSIBLE IN-SERVICE PROGRAMS FOR YOU

This section relates to the way you perceive your own needs for in-service education. Please rate the following items on a scale of one to five or N.A. by circling the appropriate choice. Since you are rating the degree of need, please try to use the entire scale.
SECTION ONE

a. DEVELOPING POLICIES--making standing decisions on important recurring matters.
   1 2 3 4 5 N/A

b. SETTING GOALS--defining and prioritizing desired end results.
   1 2 3 4 5 N/A

c. DEVELOPING STRATEGIES--deciding how and when to achieve goals.
   1 2 3 4 5 N/A

d. PROGRAMMING--establishing priority, sequence, and timing of steps.
   1 2 3 4 5 N/A

e. BUDGETING--allocating resources.
   1 2 3 4 5 N/A

f. SETTING PROCEDURES--standardizing methods.
   1 2 3 4 5 N/A

g. FORECASTING--establishing where present course will lead.
   1 2 3 4 5 N/A

h. INTERPRETATION OF STANDARDIZED TEST DATA--incorporating student test data into planning.
   1 2 3 4 5 N/A

SECTION TWO

a. DIAGNOSIS--the ability to assess institutional climate, staff and program needs in complex situations.
   1 2 3 4 5 N/A
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<td>j. ASSESSING—the ability to design and implement a staff and program evaluation system.</td>
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<td>a. ESTABLISHING ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE--designing organizational chart.</td>
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<td>b. CREATING POSITION DESCRIPTIONS--defining scope, responsibilities, responsibilities and authority.</td>
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<td>c. ESTABLISHING POSITION QUALIFICATIONS--defining qualifications for persons in each position.</td>
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<td>N/A</td>
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<td>d. MAKING DECISIONS--arriving at conclusions and judgments.</td>
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<td>e. COMMUNICATING--ensuring understanding.</td>
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<td>f. GROUP DYNAMICS--understanding group behavior.</td>
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<td>N/A</td>
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<td>g. LABOR RELATIONS--understanding the history role and rights of unions and professional organizations.</td>
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<td>h. TIME MANAGEMENT--using time effectively.</td>
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<td>i.</td>
<td>INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP--assurance of appropriate curriculum and instruction.</td>
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<td>j.</td>
<td>CO-CURRICULAR LEADERSHIP--coordinating inter-scholastic and extracurricular activities.</td>
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<td>k.</td>
<td>INTERPERSONAL DYNAMICS--using the appropriate leadership style in complex changing situations.</td>
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<td>l.</td>
<td>INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS--utilizing available materials.</td>
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m. | GOVERNANCE--working with your school board. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | N/A |

SECTION FOUR

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<th>Very Low</th>
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<tr>
<td>a.</td>
<td>SELECTING--recruiting, placing, and assigning qualified people for each position.</td>
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<td>b.</td>
<td>TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT OF PERSONNEL--improving knowledge, attitudes, and skills.</td>
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<td>c.</td>
<td>MOTIVATING--persuading and inspiring people to take desired action.</td>
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<td>2</td>
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<td>d.</td>
<td>COORDINATING--relating efforts in the most effective combination.</td>
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<td>e.</td>
<td>MANAGING DIFFERENCES—encouraging alternative methods of conflict resolution.</td>
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<td>f.</td>
<td>REINFORCING BEHAVIOR—rewarding and disciplining.</td>
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<td>g.</td>
<td>TEAM BUILDING—having employees work together in harmony.</td>
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SECTION FIVE

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<th>COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT—establishing programs and conditions for active, involved support systems within the community.</th>
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<td>b.</td>
<td>LEGAL RESPONSIBILITIES—ensuring that the individuals and the institution are in compliance with Federal, State and local government legislation and regulations.</td>
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<td>c.</td>
<td>COMMUNITY RELATIONS—develop a network of communication with many publics.</td>
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<td>d.</td>
<td>DECLINING ENROLLMENTS—dealing with the reallocation of resources.</td>
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This space is provided for you to add additional areas of information or skills which you feel might be of benefit to you.
APPENDIX B
APPENDIX B
INSERVICE EXAMPLE

Session I One Full Day

The following are the specific objectives of Session I. At the end of this session the individual participants will:

1. Be able to express in writing the importance of their responsibility of being an instructional supervisor including at least four major points covered during Session I.

2. Be able to list a minimum of four of the specific skills needed by the instructional supervisor which were identified and discussed during the session.

3. Be able to identify their own personal needs relative to the skills required by an effective instructional supervisor.

4. Be able to arrange in proper sequence the 8 steps of the instructional supervision process and to explain the essence of each step with 88 percent accuracy when given a written listing of steps in a random order.

5. Be able to appropriately label segments of a script which illustrate the 8 steps of the instructional supervision process with at least 88 percent accuracy.

I. CREATE A POSITIVE ENVIRONMENT

A. Each participant will be asked to share with the group a
little about himself including his current responsibilities in the area of instructional supervision.

B. Each participant will be asked to complete the sentence:

"In order for the inservice project to be professionally valuable to me, it will have to ____________________.

C. The coordinator will explain:

1. What the participants will be able to do at the end of the project.

2. The format of the project, the necessary time commitment on the part of participants, and the types of activities to be used.

II. AWARENESS

ONE OF THE CONDITIONS OF LEARNING WHICH WAS INCLUDED IN THE THEORY OF INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION DEVELOPED IN CHAPTER 3 OF THIS PAPER WAS THAT THE LEARNER MUST FEEL THE NEED TO LEARN. THE PURPOSE OF THE ACTIVITIES IN THIS SECTION IS TO CREATE IN EACH PERSON AN AWARENESS OF HIS OWN POTENTIAL CONTRIBUTION AS AN INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISOR AND AN AWARENESS OF THE NECESSARY SKILLS WHICH HE ALREADY HAS AND THOSE WHICH HE NEEDS TO DEVELOP.

ACTIVITY FOCUS ATTENTION ON NEED TO IMPROVE SUPERVISORY PRACTICES IF THEY ARE TO HELP TEACHERS GROW PROFESSIONALLY.

A. Write 5 words that come to mind when you hear the word, "supervision." WORDS WILL BE WRITTEN ON THE BOARD AT THE END OF 1 MINUTE, THE CONNOTATION OF THE WORDS WILL BE DISCUSSED.

B. Discussion Questions
1. How do you know if you have done a good job as a supervisor?

2. What would you say if your effectiveness as a supervisor were measured by the increased achievement levels of the students?

3. What is the ultimate purpose of instructional supervision?

POINTS TO BE STRESSED BY THE COORDINATOR:

A. RESEARCH—MOST SIGNIFICANT VARIABLE BETWEEN EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS AND INEFFECTIVE ONES (EFFECTIVE MEANING THERE IS EVIDENCE OF IMPROVEMENT IN STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT) IS THE LEADERSHIP PROVIDED IN THAT SCHOOL.

B. THE PRINCIPAL'S METHOD OF WORKING CONSTITUTES THE KEY TO WHAT CAN BE REALIZED IN THE SCHOOL TOWARD IMPROVING INSTRUCTION, CURRICULUM, MORALE AND ANY OTHER SPECIFIED AREA.

C. RESEARCH—ONLY THE CLASSROOM TEACHER CAN IMPROVE THE LEARNING OF PUPILS AND ONLY THE SITE ADMINISTRATOR IS AVAILABLE TO ORCHESTRATE RESOURCES REQUIRED, INCLUDING HIS OWN EXPERTISE, TO IMPROVE CLASS INSTRUCTION.

D. THE MOST RELEVANT INSERVICE A TEACHER CAN HAVE IS PROVIDED THROUGH DIRECT CLASSROOM OBSERVATION AND RELATED MEANINGFUL FEEDBACK ABOUT HIS PERFORMANCE.

E. GOAL OF INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION MUST BE THE INCREASED TEACHER EFFECTIVENESS WHICH LEADS TO GREATER PUPIL ACHIEVEMENT.
4. Do your observations and follow-up conferences really help your teachers? In what ways?

5. Why aren't supervisors as effective as they might be?

POINTS TO BE STRESSED BY THE COORDINATOR

A. GENERALLY PRINCIPALS HAVE NOT RECEIVED SPECIFIC TRAINING AND EDUCATION TO PREPARE THEM FOR THE ROLE OF INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISOR.

B. THERE HAS BEEN LITTLE AGREEMENT ABOUT WHAT IS INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP (SUPERVISION), WHAT SKILLS ARE NECESSARY TO BE AN EFFECTIVE INSTRUCTIONAL LEADER, OR EVEN WHAT IS AN EFFECTIVE TEACHER.

C. THERE IS NO ABSOLUTE RIGHT WAY INHERENT IN TEACHING. RATHER, THE INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISOR MUST LOOK AT AND HELP TEACHERS TO LOOK AT TEACHING COMPETENCE IN TERMS OF THE QUALITY OF THE DECISIONS MADE CONCERNING GOALS, DIAGNOSIS, METHODS, AND MATERIALS.

D. ONLY ONE-HALF OF ONE PERCENT OF FEDERAL AND STATE MONIES AVAILABLE FOR STAFF DEVELOPMENT HAS BEEN EXTENDED FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF ADMINISTRATIVE SKILLS.

E. DEGREE AND PROFESSIONAL CERTIFICATION REQUIREMENTS OF THE VARIOUS STATES PROVIDE AS HIGH AS A 10 TO 1 RATIO IN BACKGROUND EXPERIENCES IN ADMINISTRATION AND MANAGEMENT TO THE EXCLUSION OF EXPERIENCES PREPARING THEM TO EVALUATE THE ADEQUACY OF INSTRUCTION AND TO EXERCISE INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP.

6. Do most teachers want to be involved in supervision?
POINTS TO BE STRESSED BY THE COORDINATOR

A. RESULTS OF SURVEY DONE BY AMERICAN COLLEGE TESTING PROGRAM INDICATE THAT TEACHERS SEEK EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP FROM PRINCIPALS RATHER THAN JUST CLERICAL SUPERVISION.

B. AFTER EXPERIENCES WITH SUPERVISION: MOST TEACHERS FEEL THAT IT IS A WASTE OF TIME AND AT BEST HARMLESS; RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN TEACHERS AND SUPERVISORS BEST DESCRIBED AS COLD WAR: RELATIONSHIP CHARACTERIZED BY LACK OF TRUST, LITTLE OR NO REAL RESPECT, "CLOSEDNESS" AND DEFENSIVENESS.

7. What are the skills needed by supervisors?

SPECIFIC SKILLS TO BE DISCUSSED:

A. SELF AWARENESS—IMPORTANCE OF ROLE OF INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISOR

NEED TO LEARN AND GROW PROFESSIONALLY IN THIS AREA

HOW HE IS PERCEIVED BY OTHERS AS COMPARED TO HOW HE PERCEIVES HIMSELF

B. INTERPERSONAL SKILLS

EFFECTIVE SUPERVISOR DOES NOT CONTROL PEOPLE: HE GUIDES, ORGANIZES AND MOTIVATES PEOPLE TO ACCOMPLISH COMMON OBJECTIVES

COMMUNICATIONS—ONE OF THE MOST ESSENTIAL TALENTS.

NO MATTER HOW POSITIVE THE INTENTIONS AND HOW POWERFUL THE CONCEPTS AND HOW POTENTIALLY PRODUCTIVE
THE IDEAS, IF A PERSON CANNOT COMMUNICATE THE CONCEPTS AND IDEAS HE WILL NEVER BE A LEADER (EXCEPT PERHAPS A FORMAL LEADER)

MANAGER ACCORDING TO OHIO STATE UNIVERSITY STUDIES OF WHITE COLLAR WORKERS SPENDS HIS TIME IN COMMUNICATING IN THE FOLLOWING WAYS:

- Writing: 9%
- Reading: 16%
- Speaking: 30%
- Listening: 45%

IN YEARS PAST, MANY EDUCATORS FELT THAT IT WAS VERY DIFFICULT IF NOT IMPOSSIBLE TO DEVELOP EFFECTIVE TRAINING ACTIVITIES AND PROGRAMS FOR IMPROVING COMMUNICATION SKILLS. HOWEVER, DR. ROBERT MILTZ OF THE UNIVERSITY OF MASSACHUSETTS INDICATES THAT "IF COMMUNICATION IS DEFINED AS KNOWING HOW TO PUT THOUGHTS AND WORDS TOGETHER SO THAT THEY ARE MEANINGFUL TO SOMEONE ELSE THAN IT BECOMES A CONTINUOUS PROCESS THAT CAN BE IMPROVED. THE PROBLEM NOW BECOMES ONE OF DEFINING THE COMPONENT PARTS OF THE PROCESS SO THAT THEY CAN BE INTERJECTED INTO A TRAINING PROGRAM."

2. HUMAN RELATIONS—TEACHER WILL NOT BE RECEPTIVE TO HELP IF HELP OFFERED OR THE PERSON OFFERING THE HELP IS SEEN AS THREATENING. IF THERE IS TO BE IMPROVEMENT, SUPERVISORS SHOULD VIEW TEACHERS AS HIGHLY COMPETENT PROFESSIONALS WHO SEEK ASSISTANCE
FOR THE IMPROVED FULFILLMENT OF THEIR PROFESSIONAL POTENTIAL.

****SHOW TRANSPARENCY 1****

C. SPECIFIC KNOWLEDGE

1. RESPECT CAN ALSO BE GENERATED BY DEMONSTRATING TO THE STAFF THAT THE SUPERVISOR IS WELL PREPARED FOR WHAT HE IS DOING AND THAT HE IS COMPETENT.
   a. SHOW STAFF HE IS WELL ACQUAINTED WITH CURRENT INSTRUCTIONAL AND CURRICULUM TRENDS.
   b. BE IN A POSITION TO CONDUCT OR PROVIDE INSERVICE PROGRAMS WHICH FOCUS ON CURRENT INSTRUCTIONAL APPROACHES.
   c. HELP STAFF PLAN AND EVALUATE ANY NEW CURRICULUM IDEAS.
   d. HELP ESTABLISH GOALS AND OBJECTIVES FOR CHANGE.
   e. BE ABLE TO INVOLVE OTHERS IN DEVELOPMENT OF NEW PROGRAMS AND PROCESSES.

2. KNOW, UNDERSTAND, BE ABLE TO DEMONSTRATE AND TEACH:
   DEFINING OBJECTIVES CLEARLY
   SETTING UP CRITERIA FOR CORRECT AND INCORRECT RESPONSES
   USING REINFORCEMENT
   PROVIDING FOR TRANSFER OF LEARNING
   PROVIDING FOR MEANINGFUL PRACTICE
   PROVIDING ENVIRONMENT IN WHICH STUDENTS CAN FEEL MOTIVATED
3. IN DEALING WITH TEACHERS, MODEL SAME BEHAVIORS
TEACHERS ARE ASKED TO DEMONSTRATE IN THE CLASSROOM.

****SHOW TRANSPARENCY 2****

LEARNERS (TEACHERS IN THIS CASE) KNOW WHAT THE
OBJECTIVES ARE: THEY ATTEND TO THE LEARNING TASK;
THEY HAVE LEARNED AND CAN RECALL ANY INFORMATION
OR PRE-REQUISITE TO THE LEARNING TASK: THEY KNOW
WHETHER OR NOT THEIR RESPONSES ARE ADEQUATE, AND
THEIR CORRECT RESPONSES GAIN REINFORCEMENT.

4. COMPREHEND AND APPRECIATE APPROXIMATELY 15
TEACHING SKILLS AND BE ABLE TO DEMONSTRATE 6 TO 8
OF THESE SKILLS.

ACTIVITY EACH PARTICIPANT WILL RECEIVE COPIES OF THE QUESTIONNAIRE 1 AND WILL BE ASKED TO FILL IT OUT AS HE BELIEVES HIS TEACHERS WOULD. THESE ARE NOT TO BE COLLECTED OR SHARED. THIS IS JUST AN AWARENESS ACTIVITY FOR PARTICIPANTS. ITS USE IS MEANT TO HELP THEM TO THINK ABOUT HOW THEY ARE PERCEIVED BY OTHERS. PARTICIPANTS WILL BE ENCOURAGED TO ALLOW THEIR TEACHERS TO COMPLETE THIS OR A SIMILAR SURVEY.
If a supervisor:  
A. Has negative and distrustful assumptions about teachers and their willingness to work  
B. Relies heavily on external control and position authority  
C. Uses mostly man to man supervisory techniques  
D. Decides the goals and objectives of the school program  
E. Relies heavily on roles, regulations and status system  
F. Assumes major responsibility for exerting direct instructional leadership  

OR  

If a supervisor:  
A. Has positive and trustful assumptions about his teachers and their willingness to work  
B. Relies heavily on intrinsic control and ability authority  
C. Uses group supervisory techniques  
D. Works to build identity and commitment to school goals  
E. Relies heavily on developing people  
F. Helps to facilitate the emergence of leadership is the teaching staff  

**HIS FACULTY WILL DISPLAY**  

1. Less group and school loyalty  
2. Lower performance goals  
3. Less identification and commitment  
4. An undue interest in the conditions of work and other extrinsic factors  
5. Feelings of unreasonable pressure  
6. Less favorable attitudes toward supervisors  
7. Lower motivation to work hard on behalf of the kids  

1. Greater group and school loyalty  
2. Higher performance goals  
3. Greater identification and commitment  
4. More interest in the work itself and other intrinsic factors  
5. Less feelings of unreasonable pressure  
6. More favorable attitudes toward supervisors  
7. Higher motivation to work hard on behalf of the kids
CLINICAL SUPERVISOR

1. The goal is to improve classroom instruction

2. Identify the professional activities you would like your teachers to carry out

3. Identify at least two different patterns of supervisory behavior you think will support the desired teacher activities

4. Practice these supervisory patterns in order to learn them and to develop observation schemes for analyzing them

5. Try out both supervisory patterns in comparable circumstances and collect data to evaluate and compare the two patterns

6. Analyze the data and decide which pattern of supervision tends to help teachers improve instruction more effectively

CLASSROOM TEACHER

1. The goal is to improve pupil growth and development

2. Identify patterns of pupil behavior you would like your pupils to exhibit

3. Identify at least two different patterns of teacher behavior that you think will support the desired pupil behaviors

4. Practice these teaching patterns in microteaching and train an associate to observe these patterns systematically

5. Teach with each pattern in comparable situations and collect observation data to show that the patterns were performed, together with data that show pupil reactions

6. Analyze the data and decide which teaching pattern promotes pupil learning more effectively
We are concerned with how things get done in your school, who makes decisions and in general how you see your principal's role in regard to the functioning of the school.

INSTRUCTIONS: Below are some questions about how principals and teachers work in a school. Please choose the answer that describes the way things are usually done in this school.

1. DOES THE PRINCIPAL OR ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL TALK ABOUT ADMINISTRATIVE PROCEDURES AT FACULTY MEETINGS OR ABOUT EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS?
   ___a. Talks mostly about administrative procedures.
   ___b. Talks about administrative procedures, but sometimes educational problems.
   ___c. Talks mostly about educational problems.

2. DOES THE PRINCIPAL OR ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL PROVIDE FOR AND MAKE USE OF A PROFESSIONAL LIBRARY WHICH RELATES INSTRUCTION TO NEW IDEAS, PRACTICES AND PROCEDURES?
   ___a. He rarely provides nor makes use of a professional library.
   ___b. He provides a professional library and occasionally makes use of new ideas, practices and procedures.
   ___c. He provides and makes specific use of the professional library for new ideas, practices and procedures.

3. DOES THE PRINCIPAL ARRANGE TIMES FOR YOU TO MEET WITH STAFF MEMBERS ON MUTUAL PROBLEMS?
   ___a. He rarely arranges time.
   ___b. He sometimes arranges time.
   ___c. He almost always arranges time.

4. DOES THE PRINCIPAL OR ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL TAKE OR SEND TEACHERS TO VISIT SCHOOLS WHERE THEY ARE PRACTICING NEW METHODS, PRACTICES, AND PROCEDURES?
   ___a. He rarely takes or sends us.
   ___b. He sometimes takes or sends us.
   ___c. He almost always takes us, when possible.
5. DOES THE PRINCIPAL OR ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL HELP PROVIDE THE NECESSARY RESOURCES YOU NEED TO ACHIEVE YOUR EDUCATIONAL GOALS OR ARE YOU LEFT TO YOUR OWN DEVICES?

_a._ I hardly ever get any help.

_b._ I get some help, but not as much as I need.

_c._ I get all the help I need.

6. DOES THE PRINCIPAL OR ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL INTERVIEW NEW STAFF MEMBERS AND TELL THEM THEY WILL BE WORKING IN A SCHOOL USING NEW IDEAS, METHODS, AND PRACTICES IN KEEPING WITH OUR CHANGING SOCIETY?

_a._ The principal rarely orients new teachers by telling them they are expected to try new approaches.

_b._ The principal sometimes orients new teachers by telling them they are expected to try new approaches.

_c._ The principal almost always orients new teachers by telling them they are expected to try new approaches.

7. DOES THE PRINCIPAL OR ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL ATTEND PROFESSIONAL MEETINGS AND WORKSHOPS AND MAKE USE OF INFORMATION BY INITIATING ACTIVITIES IN THE STAFF?

_a._ He rarely attends nor makes use of the information received.

_b._ He attends and sometimes makes use of the information received.

_c._ He attends and almost always makes use of information received.

8. DOES THE PRINCIPAL OR ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL SHOW THAT HE IS KNOWLEDGEABLE ABOUT CHANGES IN EDUCATIONAL PRACTICES BY HIS PARTICIPATION IN STAFF MEETINGS, TASK GROUPS OR INDIVIDUAL CONFERENCES?

_a._ The principal lacks familiarity with changes in educational practices.

_b._ The principal occasionally shows familiarity with educational practices by references to new developments.

_c._ The principal almost always shows familiarity by references and application of new developments.
9. DOES THE PRINCIPAL OR ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL SHOW INTEREST IN NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN EDUCATION BY HIS SUPPORT FOR TEACHERS USE OF NEW IDEAS, METHODS, OR PROCEDURES?

__a. The principal rarely supports new ideas, methods, or procedures.

__b. The principal sometimes supports new ideas, methods, or procedures.

__c. The principal almost always supports new ideas, methods, or procedures.

10. DOES THE PRINCIPAL OR ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL AID IN THE PROMOTION OF NEW IDEAS, METHODS, AND PROCEDURES BY USING OUTSIDE RESOURCE PEOPLE OR BEING A TEACHER OF TEACHERS HIMSELF?

__a. The principal rarely uses outside resources or takes responsibility for teaching.

__b. The principal sometimes uses outside resources and takes responsibility for teaching.

__c. The principal almost always uses outside resources and takes responsibility by being a teacher of teachers.

11. WHEN THE PRINCIPAL OR ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL HAS MADE UP HIS MIND ABOUT SOMETHINGS, HAS HE EVER CHANGED IT WHEN THE TEACHERS OBJECTED?

__a. Hardly ever.

__b. A few times when the teachers had good reasons.

__c. Quite often, whether the teachers had good reasons or not.

__d. Practically every time anyone objected.

12. WHAT DOES THE PRINCIPAL OR ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL DO WHEN HE AND TEACHERS DISAGREE ABOUT AN IDEA IN THE GROUPING OF STUDENTS?

__a. He doesn't encourage teachers to express their opinions.

__b. He lets teachers express their opinions, but only sees his side.

__c. He lets teachers express their opinions and we look at both sides.
13. HOW MUCH DIRECTION DOES THE PRINCIPAL OR ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL GIVE AT FACULTY MEETINGS?

   a. The principal urges the faculty to accept his point of view.
   b. The principal expresses his point of view, but does not impose it on the faculty.
   c. The principal lets a point of view emerge from the faculty.

14. WHEN THE PRINCIPAL OR ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL ASKS TEACHERS TO DO SOMETHING THEY DO NOT WANT TO DO, DOES HE OR DOES HE NOT EXPLAIN WHY THEY HAVE TO DO IT?

   a. He almost always explains why.
   b. He sometimes explains why.
   c. He hardly ever explains why.

15. AFTER THE FACULTY HAS IDENTIFIED A PROBLEM AREA THEY WANT TO WORK ON, WHO USUALLY DECIDES HOW TO PROCEED?

   a. The principal decides and tells us.
   b. The principal listens to our ideas about it, and then he decides.
   c. The principal talks it over with us and helps us decide.
   d. The principal lets us decide.

16. WHAT KIND OF HELP DOES THE PRINCIPAL OR ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL GIVE A TEAM OR GROUP WORKING ON A PARTICULAR PROBLEM?

   a. The principal tells the group what to do and how to do it.
   b. The principal tells the group what to do, but lets the group decide how to do it.
   c. The principal leaves it all up to the group.

17. DOES THE PRINCIPAL OR ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL ENCOURAGE ORDERLY ROOMS AND ADHERENCE TO TIME SCHEDULES?

   a. The principal cares very much about order and adherences to time schedules.
   b. The principal sometimes cares about order and adherence to time schedules.
   c. The principal rarely concerns himself about order and time schedules.
18. IN A DISCUSSION ABOUT THE USE OF NEW MATERIALS, NEW ORGANIZATIONAL PLANS OR NEW METHODS FOR TEACHERS, WHO MAKES THE DECISIONS?
   _a. We usually do it the way the principal decides.  
   _b. The principal and teachers decide together. 
   _c. The principal expects the teachers to decide. 
   _d. The teachers usually make the decision and tell the principal.

19. DOES THIS PRINCIPAL OR ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL MAKE THE SCHOOL A PLACE WHERE YOU CAN NOT ONLY TEACH EFFECTIVELY, BUT ALSO ENJOY SOME PERSONAL SATISFACTIONS? (SUCH AS FACULTY PARTIES, A PLEASANT FACULTY LOUNGE.)
   _a. Almost always tries to make the school enjoyable. 
   _b. Sometimes tries to make the school enjoyable. 
   _c. Practically never tries to make the school enjoyable.

20. DOES THE PRINCIPAL OR ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL SHOW THAT HE DISLIKES TEACHERS IN THE SCHOOL OR NOT?
   _a. Shows dislike for none of the teachers. 
   _b. Shows dislike for a few teachers. 
   _c. Shows dislike for some teachers. 
   _d. Shows dislike for most teachers.

21. DOES THE PRINCIPAL OR ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL MAKE CONTACT WITH YOU IN A WAY WHICH MAKES YOU NERVOUS AND UNCOMFORTABLE, OR DOES HE MAKE CONTACT IN A HELPFUL MANNER?
   _a. Just about always helpful. 
   _b. Often helpful, but occasionally makes me uncomfortable. 
   _c. Often makes me feel nervous and uncomfortable but not always. 
   _d. Just about always makes me nervous and uncomfortable.

22. DOES THIS PRINCIPAL OR ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL SUPPORT PROMOTION OF THE BASIC SKILLS PRIMARILY OR DOES HE ALSO SUPPORT TEACHER'S IDEAS.
   _a. Supports primarily the basic skills. 
   _b. Supports the basic skills, but sometimes teacher's ideas. 
   _c. Supports teacher's ideas in all areas.
23. IN THIS SCHOOL ARE YOU SUPPOSED TO USE THE PRINCIPAL'S IDEAS, OR YOUR OWN IDEAS?
   __a. The principal makes available primarily his ideas as resources.
   __b. The principal makes available his ideas, but sometimes considers ideas of teachers.
   __c. The principal almost always considers teacher's ideas.

24. DOES THIS PRINCIPAL OR ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL SHOW THAT HE WILL HELP YOU WITH SCHOOL WORK AND OTHER THINGS YOU MIGHT WANT TO TALK TO HIM ABOUT?
   __a. Neither with school work nor anything else.
   __b. With school work, but nothing else.
   __c. More with school work than other things.
   __d. About the same with school work and other things.
   __e. More with other things than school work.

25. DOES THIS PRINCIPAL OR ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL SHOW THAT HE LIKES TEACHERS IN THIS SCHOOL OR NOT?
   __a. Shows that he likes all teachers.
   __b. Shows he likes most teachers.
   __c. Shows he likes some teachers.
   __d. Shows he likes just a few teachers.

26. IS THIS PRINCIPAL OR ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL USUALLY FAIR OR USUALLY UNFAIR WHEN HE DECIDES THINGS ABOUT TEACHERS?
   __a. He is always fair.
   __b. He is usually fair.
   __c. He is fair to most teachers;
       A few are treated better;
       A few are treated worse.
   __d. He is unfair to most teachers.
27. DOES THE PRINCIPAL OR ASSISTANT PRINCIPAL SHOW EVIDENCE OF
MORE INTEREST IN YOUR NEEDS AND SATISFACTIONS AS A TEACHER OR
IS HE MORE INTERESTED IN YOUR SUBJECT MATTER COMPETENCE?

__a. Shows little or no concern about subject matter or the
needs and satisfactions of teachers.

__b. Most interested in subject matter competence.

__c. Most interested in subject matter competence, but
sometimes in the needs and satisfactions of teachers.

__d. More interested in the needs and satisfactions of teachers
than in subject matter competence.
SUMMARY WITH PARTICIPANTS:

The purpose of this inservice is to develop the understandings and skills necessary to become effective instructional supervisors, to learn to be able to promote the professional development of teachers with whom each participant works. There are some general guidelines that the administrator must consider as he develops his program:

****SHOW TRANSPARENCY #3****
1. Evaluation should be a continuous process.
2. No one technique or instrument is sufficient to do the total job.
3. By using a combination of techniques, a helpful data bank of a teacher's competencies can be accumulated.
4. The evaluation of teachers' needs should take place in light of specific teaching and supervision objectives.
5. Teaching act must be broken down into specific skills which can be evaluated and an appropriate instrument and technique to measure each skill must be used.
6. Evaluators must have adequate training and time to do the job.
7. Evaluation program should have broad teacher involvement in their formulation and application.
8. All data collected by evaluators should be made available to the teachers so that improvement of instruction can be facilitated.
The supervisory experience should provide the following outcomes:

****SHOW TRANSPARENCY #4****

Now let's look at the cycle for working with teachers using clerical supervision:

****SHOW TRANSPARENCY #5****
1. A clear definition of the qualities and characteristics of an excellent teacher in light of district and school objectives and goals.

2. A means whereby teacher and administrator can analyze the professional growth and development of the teacher.

3. A constructive approach to self analysis and improvement.

4. A provision for understanding and establishing better relationships with pupils, other teacher, parents, and the community.

5. Improved teaching ability and classroom technique.


7. Improvement in general school morale.
PRE-OBSERVATION CONFERENCE

1  2  3

OBSERVATION

4

POST-OBSERVATION CONFERENCE

8  7

ANALYSIS

6  5

THE INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION PROCESS

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Step 1
Supervisor and teacher work together to clarify or identify specific classroom activity that might cause problems or might be improved.

Step 2
They identify together what the supervisor might be looking for in the observation. Base rate of behavior occurrence will be established to record what is actually happening in the classroom.

Step 3
Supervisor suggests an observation instrument he will use to gather data related to identified area of concern.

Step 4
Actual classroom observation

Step 5
Data he has collected is organized so that it can be used to give the teacher a clear picture of what happened.

Step 6
Still while alone, doing the analyzing, the supervisor identifies those teaching behaviors which are:

a. Positive and should be maintained

b. Negative and should be changed if improvement is to be seen

During this time he plans strategies for presenting the data to the teacher.

Step 7
Feedback of the data is discussed with the teacher in such a way that the teacher will understand and be encouraged to perform a personal analysis.
Step 8

Together, the supervisor and the teacher will determine

a. Positive behaviors to maintain
b. Negative behaviors to change
c. Alternative strategies for accomplishing the desired changes
d. The next step in the process

DISCUSSION

What skills are needed in order to be most effective in this process?

POINTS TO BE STRESSED: BY THE COORDINATOR:

1. Awareness that providing for growth and development in teachers was in large part the supervisor's responsibility.
2. Human Relations
3. Communications Skills
4. Teaching Skills and Strategies
5. Working Knowledge of Teaching Models

PARTICIPANTS WILL BE GIVEN A SCRIPT OF A SUPERVISION CONFERENCE (J5, 1974, pp. 7-11) AND WILL BE ASKED TO IDENTIFY WITHIN THE INTERACTION THE STEPS OF THE SUPERVISION PROCESS. EACH STEP IDENTIFIED WILL BE DISCUSSED AND THE NEED FOR THE STEP WILL BE REINFORCED.
1. ---Supervisor's office. Supervisor (S) and Mike (M)

2. S: Hi Mike, Come on in.
3. M: Hey, how you doin', Tom?
4. S: Fine, How are you?
5. M: Not too bad.
6. S: Good. Have a seat, won't you?
7. M: Yeah, Thank you.
8. S: How were the first two weeks of school?
9. M: Uh--essentially all right.
10. S: The secretary said this morning when you called that you had
11. some sort of a problem that you wanted to talk about.
12. M: Yeah, as a matter of fact I do. Tom, listen, how do you
13. get kids to keep quiet in class?
14. S: How do you get kids to keep quiet in class?
16. S: I don't understand. Are they talking all the time or what?
17. M: No, not all of them. Just one or two, but they don't wait
18. their turn. They just talk out. Look, everytime I try to
19. to lead the class in a discussion, he just keeps talking out
20. without raising his hand, and I want the other kids to enter
21. into this thing, too. Especially some of the quiet ones.
22. S: Sure.
23. M: But he won't give them a chance, man. He just keeps talking
24. out.
25. S: Okay. I hear you saying "he". Is this one specific student
26. who's doing it?
27. M: Eddie White, he just keeps talking out. So, well, what do
28. I do about it?
29. S: What you're saying then is that this kid--Eddie White--is
30. creating a problem for you because he, what? Blurts out
31. answers in the classroom?
32. M: Exactly.
33. S: And his doing this prevents some of the other kids from
34. entering discussions, right?
35. M: Right. So what do I do about it?
36. S: Look, I really can't tell you what to do in your classroom.
37. M: But you're the supervisor.
38. S: Right. Let me put it this way. My goal as a supervisor is to
39. help you make decisions and help you solve specific problems
40. in your classroom. Suppose I make a decision about a problem
41. in your classroom. What happens the next time when the
42. problem arises and I'm not around?
43. M: Well, what can you do?
44. S: Maybe I can help you to find out specifically what's going
45. on in the class relative to Eddie White and his situation. Now
46. in your situation, you have to stand in front of that class, be
47. concerned with teaching your subject matter, and work with
48. 30 kids.
49. M: Actually, there are 37.
50. S: Well, that makes it a lot more difficult, but...
51. M: Yeah.
52. S: Getting back to what I was saying before, you can't be
53. expected, in a large class, to concentrate on one specific
54. student and his problem, right?
55. M: I agree. That's really why I came to see you.
56. S: Right, so let me offer to do this. Let me offer to come in
57. and observe the specific relationship that you're having
58. with Eddie, and maybe if I don't have to worry about teaching
59. the class, and I can sit back and observe, I might be able
60. to get some information that will give you an indication as
61. to what's happening with you and Eddie White. Kind of a base
62. rate on his behavior in the classroom. O.K.?
63. M: Yeah. Well, you can come in any time.
64. S: Okay. Now the question is, what specific information am I
65. going to gather in that classroom?
66. M: Well...you mean about the way Eddie acts?
67. S: Right. But if I'm not specific, I won't know what to look for.
68. M: I'm not sure what you mean...but as I said, the problem is that
69. he talks out of turn.
70. S: Right, right. I'll look for that then. In fact, in your
71. classroom what I'll do is this: every time Eddie blurts out
72. without waiting to be called upon, I'm going to record an
73. X on a sheet of paper.
74. M: Okay.
75. S: But he raises his hand occasionally and you also call on him
76. sometimes, don't you?
77. M: Sure.
78. S: Okay. Now when he raises his hand, I will make this plus (+)
79. on the sheet of paper. And if he does raise his hand and waits,
80. and you call on him, I'm going to take that plus and I'm going
81. to put a circle around it (@). Make sense?
82. M: I suppose so...
83. S: Okay. So now what I have to find out--if in fact we're going
84. to do this--is when I can come in the class.
85. M: Well, how about tomorrow, second period?
86. S: Fine. I'll see you at 10:30.
87. Classroom (First observation). Mike teaches the lesson while
88. the supervisor sits in the back of the room recording
89. observations of Mike and Eddie White.
90. The supervisor then returns to his office for a short time to
91. analyze the data obtained from his observations.
92. As a result of this analysis, he forms in his own mind possible
93. changes in teacher behavior that might remedy Mike's problem,
94. as well as strategies to bring about these changes.
AT THIS POINT THE PARTICIPANTS SHOULD HAVE AN OPPORTUNITY TO CONSIDER THEIR OWN SUPERVISORY SKILLS AND TECHNIQUES. THEY WILL EACH BE GIVEN A COPY OF QUESTIONNAIRE #2 (240, 1980, pp. 1-3). THE MATERIAL IN THIS HANDOUT WILL BE USED AS AN ACTIVITY TO HELP EACH FOCUS ON HIS OWN SUPERVISORY SKILL STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES.
INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

This is not a test with any right or wrong answers. It is a questionnaire designed to describe some of your leadership skills.

Below are five (5) clusters of supervisory tasks. In each cluster, there are six (6) skills described. Place a number three (3) beside the two (2) statements that describe the skills in which you are most proficient. Place a number two (2) beside the two (2) statements which describe the skills at which you would next likely be proficient. Place a number one (1) beside the two (2) skills at which you would be least proficient.

Begin when you're sure the instructions are clear.

I.

___1. Demonstrates understanding of contemporary supervision practices.

___2. Possesses knowledge and skill necessary for supervision in all disciplines.

___3. Demonstrates knowledge of the principles of learning.


___5. Assists teachers in priority planning.

___6. Demonstrates knowledge of research and practices in classroom instruction.

II.

___7. Uses pre-observation conference (when appropriate).

___8. Demonstrates skill in planning for classroom supervision.


___10. Listens carefully, elicits, and probes for information.

___11. Possesses knowledge of professional/instructional materials and trends.

___12. Demonstrates the ability to diagnose teacher performance difficulties at an early stage, and takes appropriate action for correction.
III.

13. Identifies objectives for each supervisory observation.
14. Demonstrates skill in observing classroom instruction devoted to skill development.
15. Formulates accurately specific recommendations and direction for needed change.
17. Secures and utilizes the advice and assistance of acknowledged master teachers to help less proficient teachers.
18. Demonstrates skills necessary to effectively use confrontation with teachers to remedy performance discrepancies.

IV.

19. Supervises systematically.
20. Demonstrates effective follow-through plan with recommendations and direction provided in the post-observation conference.
21. Provides negative feedback in a manner which facilitates change.
22. Communicates in accurate and concise written and spoken statements.
23. Demonstrates skill in observing classroom instruction devoted to concept development.
24. Evidences supervisory practices which focus on, support, and integrate teacher, school, and District goals.

V.

25. Demonstrates skill in observing classroom instruction for positive behavior patterns.
26. Organizes effectively the time allocated for supervision.
27. Uses conferencing as a vehicle for generating and subsequently analyzing additional information of teacher performance.
28. Exhibits skill necessary for effectively applying disciplinary measures when circumstances warrant.
29. Demonstrates receptivity to alternatives suggested by teacher designed to remedy assessed teaching deficiencies.

30. Uses motivation effectively in supervisory practices.
INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

Instructions:

1. TRANSFER your answers to the scoring columns, placing a 1, 2, or 3 beside each question number.

2. ADD UP your totals for each column.

3. MARK your score for each column on the bar graph below.

4. The graph perceived represents your SUPERVISORY PROFILE.

   A. PLANNING
   
   |   0   |   3   |   6   |   9   |  12   |  15   |  18  |
   
   B. OBSERVING
   
   |   0   |   3   |   6   |   9   |  12   |  15   |  18  |
   
   C. CONFERRING
   
   |   0   |   3   |   6   |   9   |  12   |  15   |  18  |
   
   D. ANALYZING/APPRaising
   
   |   0   |   3   |   6   |   9   |  12   |  15   |  18  |
   
   E. ASSISTING
   
   |   0   |   3   |   6   |   9   |  12   |  15   |  18  |
KNOWLEDGE AND SKILL DEVELOPMENT

****TRANSPARENCY #4 WILL AGAIN BE PUT ON THE OVERHEAD****

According to desired Outcome #1 as a result of the supervisory experience, the teacher should have an understanding of the techniques and strategies of an excellent teacher in light of school and district objectives and goals. The supervisor must have these techniques and strategies at his "mental fingertips" if he is to help the teacher look at what is happening in the classroom and to determine what is effective and what should be changed.

DISCUSSION

1. What is meant by the term "effective teacher"?

   LIST POINTS WHICH ARE BROUGHT OUT ON THE BOARD

2. What are the techniques and strategies of an effective teacher?

   LIST THE SUGGESTIONS ON THE BOARD

ACTIVITY HANDOUT # 2 EXERCISE IN SELECTING TEACHER PERFORMANCE EVALUATION CRITERIA DEVELOPED BY DR. RICHARD MANET (346, 1980, p. 1) OF THE UNIVERSITY OF IOWA. PARTICIPANTS WILL BE ASKED TO SELECT 10 STRATEGIES THEY BELIEVE WOULD CORRELATE POSITIVELY WITH STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT.

   5 MINUTES
EXERCISE IN SELECTING TEACHER PERFORMANCE EVALUATION CRITERIA

1. Advanced degrees: the teacher holds a master's or doctor's degree in teaching area (six studies);

2. Teaching experience: teachers who have taught more than five years compared with those with less than five years (eight studies);

3. Neatness: of teacher's work and classroom (five studies);

4. Good grooming: by contemporary standards (four studies);

5. Clarity: the cognitive clarity of a teacher's presentation (seven studies);

6. Type of questions asked: usually categorized as 'lower cognitive' or 'higher cognitive' (seven studies);

7. Flexibility: teacher not upset by classroom emergencies, schedule changes (six studies);

8. Variability: teacher's use of variety or variability during the lesson (eight studies);

9. Use of praise: teacher stresses reinforcement of good self concept (eleven studies);

10. Enthusiasm: teacher's vigor, power, involvement, excitement, or interest during classroom presentation (six studies);

11. Warmth: teacher projects caring, nice to be around (six studies);

12. Nonverbal approval: teacher uses body language and touching to reinforce (five studies);

13. Task-oriented or businesslike behavior: degree to which teacher is task-oriented, achievement-oriented, and/or businesslike (seven studies);

14. Reduced amount of teacher talk: more emphasis on student groups and independent study, less lecture (eleven studies);

15. Student opportunity to learn criterion material: relationship between material covered in class and criterion pupil performance (four studies);

16. Pupil participation: teacher has students be responsible for class presentation (six studies);

17. More indirect teacher behavior: teacher is not actively involved in classroom activity (four studies);

18. Use of student ideas and general indirectness: acknowledging, modifying, applying, comparing, and summarizing students' statements (eight studies);

19. More teacher-pupil interactions: teacher provides more one-on-one incidents (five studies);

20. Criticism: criticizing or controlling the pupil, extent to which the teacher shows hostility, string disapproval, or a need to justify authority (seventeen studies);

21. More time devoted to class participation: oral activities for students stress (nine studies);

22. Use of structuring comments: the extent to which the teacher uses statements designed to provide an overview of or cognitive scaffolding for completed or planned lessons (four studies);
23. **Superior knowledge of subject:** teacher has better subject mastery (five studies);

24. **Probing:** teacher responses that encourage the student (or another student) to elaborate upon his or her answer (three studies);

25. **Teacher absences:** teachers seldom absent (six studies);

26. **Student absences:** student attendance good (five studies);

27. **Level of difficulty of instruction:** student perceptions of the difficulty of the instruction (four studies).
THE FOLLOWING ITEMS FROM THE INSTRUMENT WHICH IS HANDOUT # 2 HAVE BEEN FOUND TO BE CORRELATED WITH STUDENT LEARNING ACCORDING TO DR. MANET—10 POSITIVELY AND 2 NEGATIVELY:

POSITIVELY: 5,8,9,10,13,15,18,22,24,27
NEGATIVELY: 6,20

Administrators need to be knowledgeable in this area. How can they work with teachers to help them grow, develop, and improve professionally if they do not know what can be effective techniques and strategies in the classroom?

COORDINATOR WILL INTRODUCE A VIDEO TAPE WHICH PRESENTS A SUMMARY OF THE LATEST RESEARCH IN THIS AREA: Recent research is giving educators vital information now because it is relating teacher behavior patterns or teaching styles to student behavior.

SHOW FIRST NARRATOR AND DR. MEDLEY OF ASCD FILM "TEACHER AND SCHOOL EFFECTIVENESS"

COORDINATOR COMMENTS AND FOLLOW-UP QUESTIONS:

1. Remember though that the research is correlational not experimental. It reports teacher behaviors in classrooms. MOST RESEARCH DONE AT ELEMENTARY, BASIC SKILL LEVEL.

2. What strategies seem to work with disadvantaged elementary students according to Dr. Donald Medley's work?

THE FOLLOWING, CALLED BY THE RESEARCHERS "DIRECT INSTRUCTION", SHOULD BE BROUGHT OUT IN THE DISCUSSION:

a. MORE TIME ON TASK

b. TEACHER SPEND LESS TIME ON CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT ROUTINES--THEY ARE WELL ORGANIZED AND THEREFORE SEEM TO KEEP PROBLEMS FROM OCCURRING
c. TEND TO TEACH CLASS AS A WHOLE OR IN LARGE GROUPS (STUDENTS HAVE MORE OF AN OPPORTUNITY FOR INTERACTION WITH THE TEACHER).

d. TEACHERS EMPHASIZE ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

PART 2 OF THE VIDEO TAPE WILL BE SHOWN: Dr. Barak Rosenshine will be sharing 5 principles of effective instruction.

3. What are the five principles shared by Dr. Rosenshine?

ACADEMIC FOCUS--TIME SPENT ON ACADEMIC MATERIALS

TEACHER MAKES SELECTION OF ACTIVITIES AND DIRECTS ACTIVITIES

STUDENTS SHOULD BE GROUPED FOR INSTRUCTION RATHER THAN USING AN INDIVIDUALIZED APPROACH

MOST EFFECTIVE APPROACH FOR GROUP INSTRUCTION IS DEMONSTRATION--PRACTICE--FEEDBACK

THERE SHOULD BE A MASTERY OF MATERIAL BEFORE STUDENTS MOVE ON TO THE NEXT SECTION

Let's look at the major findings of the Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study (480, 1981, pp. 1-4) which was mentioned in the last section of the tape. GIVE EACH PARTICIPANT HANDOUTS #3 and #4.
MAJOR RESEARCH FINDINGS
OF
THE BEGINNING TEACHER EVALUATION STUDY

Academic Learning Time and Student Achievement

1. The amount of time that teachers allocate to instruction in a particular curriculum content area is positively associated with learning in that content area.

2. The proportion of allocated time that students are engaged is positively associated with learning.

3. The proportion of time that reading or mathematics tasks provide a high success rate for a student is positively associated with student learning.

4. The proportion of time that reading or mathematics tasks provide a low success rate for a student is negatively associated with student learning.

5. Increases in Academic Learning Time are not associated with decreases in attitude toward mathematics, attitude toward reading, or attitude toward school.

Instructional Processes and Classroom Environment

6. The teacher's ability to diagnose student skill levels is related to student achievement and Academic Learning Time.

7. The teacher's ability to prescribe appropriate tasks is related to student achievement and student success rate.

8. More substantive interaction between the student and an instructor is associated with higher levels of student engagement.

9. Academic feedback is positively associated with student learning.
10. Structuring of the lesson and giving directions on task procedures were positively associated with student success rate.

11. Explanation specifically in response to student need is negatively associated with student success rate.

12. More frequent reprimands for inappropriate behavior are negatively associated with student learning.

13. The teacher's value system is related to Academic Learning Time and to student achievement. Teacher emphasis on academic goals is positively associated with student learning.

14. A learning environment characterized by student responsibility for academic work and by cooperation on academic tasks is associated with higher achievement.
SOME IMPORTANT QUESTIONS ON WHICH A SUPERVISOR INTERESTED IN THE BTE STUDY FINDINGS CAN FOCUS WHILE CONDUCTING A CLASSROOM OBSERVATION

Some Questions Related To TIME

During a classroom observation, the supervisor can collect data to ascertain the answers to the following questions:

1. How much time does the teacher actually devote to structured teaching/learning activities related to a particular subject or topic?
2. How much time does the teacher devote to non-teaching/learning activities?
3. What are these non-teaching/learning activities?
4. How much time does the teacher spend directly interacting with individual and/or small groups of students?
5. How much time do the students spend on independent seatwork without directly interacting with the teacher, other adults, or each other?
6. How much time does the teacher devote to providing feedback to students regarding their academic work?
7. How much time does the teacher use for setting purposes, clarifying expectations, giving directions, and, in general, helping the students to learn what is expected of them?
8. How much time do the students spend asking the teacher for additional instructions or clarification of questions or assignments?
9. How much time does the teacher spend reminding students to get back to work on the assigned task?
Some Questions Related to ENGAGEMENT

During a classroom observation, the supervisor can collect data to ascertain the answers to the following questions:

1. What percentage of the total time available are students actively involved in structured learning activities?

2. What percentage of the students are not actively involved in each structured learning activity?

3. What specific evidence is there that students are not actively involved in each structured learning activity?

4. Which structured learning activities have a number of students who are not actively involved?

5. Who are the specific students who are not actively involved in each structured learning activity?

6. What is the teacher doing when these students are not actively involved?

7. What specific evidence is there that the structured learning activities that are taking place reflect a teacher diagnosis of students' skill levels?

8. In what ways and with what frequency does the teacher directly interact with individual and/or small groups of students?

9. In what ways and with what frequency does the teacher provide feedback to students regarding their academic work?

10. In what ways and with what frequency does the teacher encourage or force students to interact with him/her, other adults, and/or each other?

11. What specific evidence is there that the teacher is identifying
distractions or disturbances and is minimizing their disruptive impact on the students' involvement in the structured learning activities?

**Some Questions Related to SUCCESS**

During a classroom observation, the supervisor can collect data to ascertain the answers to the following questions:

1. What specific evidence is there that the teacher is asking questions and/or giving assignments that the majority of the students can answer or complete successfully?

2. What specific evidence is there that the teacher is asking questions and/or giving assignments that the majority of students cannot answer or complete successfully?

3. What are the specific questions and/or assignments that the majority of the students cannot answer or complete?

4. What is the percentage of questions and/or assignments that are being asked or given by the teacher that the majority of the students can successfully answer or complete?

5. In what ways does the teacher set purposes, clarify expectations, give directions, and, in general, help students to learn what is expected of them?

6. What specific evidence is there that students do not understand the teacher's purposes, expectations, or directions?

7. Who are the specific students who request additional instructions or clarification of questions and/or assignments?

8. Which questions or assignments lead students to request additional instructions or clarification?
9. What are the assignments on which students are working when they have to be reminded to get back to work?

10. What specific evidence is there that the teacher has structured learning activities to have students work together to accomplish academic goals and to have them assume responsibility for achieving those goals?

11. In what ways does the teacher recognize or reward the accomplishments of students in terms of their successful answering of questions and/or completion of assigned tasks?
1. What is Academic Learning Time?
   TIME IN WHICH STUDENTS ARE ACTIVELY ENGAGED IN LEARNING ACTIVITIES
   AND IN WHICH THEY EXPERIENCE A RELATIVELY HIGH DEGREE OF SUCCESS

2. What was the point made concerning the level of difficulty?
   IMPORTANT FOR TEACHERS TO BE ABLE TO DIAGNOSE OR PREDICT STUDENT
   PERFORMANCE ACCURATELY SO THAT THE ACTIVITIES COULD BE CHOSEN
   APPROPRIATELY. IT'S APPROPRIATE FOR STUDENTS TO SPEND OVER ONE-
   HALF OF THEIR TIME ON HIGH SUCCESS TASKS.

3. What was the point concerning substantive interaction?
   EFFECTIVE TEACHERS HAVE HIGHER LEVELS OF SUBSTANTIVE INTERACTION
   WHICH INCLUDES:
   
   A. PRESENTATION SKILLS—EXPLAINING, DEMONSTRATING, LEADING
      DISCUSSIONS
   
   B. SPENDS MORE TIME ON STRUCTURING LESSON AND TELLING
      STUDENTS WHAT TO DO AND HOW TO DO IT

4. How does an effective teacher monitor student progress?
   ASKING QUESTIONS, CIRCULATING AROUND THE ROOM

5. An effective teacher gives feedback—why is this important?
   HELPS STUDENTS KNOW WHAT THEY HAVE LEARNED AND WHAT THEY STILL
   NEED TO LEARN

POINT TO BE STRESSED BY THE COORDINATOR: NOTE THAT THE STUDY DID NOT
TELL TEACHERS HOW TO PRESENT MATERIALS, HOW TO MONITOR, HOW TO GIVE
FEEDBACK. THERE ARE MANY WAYS TO DO THESE THINGS, BUT THE STUDY
INDICATED THEY SHOULD BE DONE.

SHOW TAPE OF DISCUSSION BY JANE STALLINGS

What were the findings of Jane Stallings in her work at the junior and
senior high level?
GROWTH IN READING SKILLS IS ASSOCIATED WITH:

- MAXIMUM TIME ON TASK
- INSTRUCTING TOTAL GROUP MOST OF THE TIME
- DIRECTING QUESTIONS TO SPECIFIC STUDENTS
- PROVIDING REGULAR FEEDBACK
- CONTROLLING NEGATIVE BEHAVIOR
- USING GUIDES AND PROBING QUESTIONS WHEN STUDENTS DON'T KNOW ANSWERS

TEACHERS WHO ARE MOST EFFECTIVE DO NOT GRADE PAPERS IN CLASS

- THEY DO NOT SOCIALIZE OR ALLOW STUDENTS TO SOCIALIZE
- THEY DO NOT ALLOW INTERRUPTIONS AND INTRUSIONS INTO CLASS ACTIVITIES
- THEY DO NOT ALLOW NEGATIVE BEHAVIOR

Dr. Edmunds will share 5 characteristics of an effective school—listen for them

SHOW DR. EDMUND'S SEGMENT OF THE TAPE

What were the characteristics of an effective school?

REVIEW POINTS:

- EFFECTIVE LEADERSHIP
  - PRINCIPAL IS HIGHLY VISIBLE AND PART OF LIFE OF SCHOOL
  - PRINCIPAL HAS A CONSISTENT PATTERN OF CERTAIN KINDS OF INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOR AND CLASSROOM SUPERVISION
- THERE IS AN INSTRUCTIONAL EMPHASIS IN THE BUILDING
- THERE IS A POSITIVE CLIMATE IN THE BUILDING
- THE LEVEL OF EXPECTATION FOR STUDENT PERFORMANCE IS HIGH
- THERE IS A CONSTANT MONITORING OF STUDENT PROGRESS
Listen to hear if Peter Mortimore and his studies in England uncovered any thing new.

SHOW NARRATOR AND DR. MORTIMORE SEGMENT OF THE TAPE

What were his findings:

EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS RELIED MORE ON REWARDS THAN PUNISHMENTS

ETHOS (CLIMATE) IS ALL IMPORTANT

LEVEL OF RESPONSIBILITY AND PARTICIPATION WAS ENCOURAGED FOR STUDENTS

STRONG LEADERSHIP

HIGH EXPECTATIONS FOR STUDENTS AND TEACHERS

CONSISTENCY BETWEEN ADULTS IN SCHOOLS

EFFECTIVE FEEDBACK

give to each participant handout # 5 summary of research findings discussed in the tape. The findings should be reviewed.
Research Findings: The Effective Teacher

is well organized and thus prevents problems from occurring.
gives students more time on academic tasks because classroom routines do not require as much time.
tends to teach the class as a whole or in large groups, giving less independent seat work.
emphasizes academic achievement and expects that all students will achieve.
selects and directs classroom activities.
makes sure that students master one unit before moving on to the next.
involves students in learning activities whenever possible.
assigns tasks for which students have a high likelihood of succeeding.
has a good grasp of the subject matter.
has excellent presentation skills (can explain well, demonstrate, and lead a good discussion).
monitors student progress by asking questions and circulating around the room.
gives adequate feedback so students know what they have learned and what still needs to be learned.
finds ways to get students to cooperate with one another and take responsibility for their work.
directs questions to specific students rather than to those who volunteer.
encourages positive behavior and controls negative behavior.
uses guides and probing questions when students don't know answers.

does not grade papers during the class period.
does not socialize or allow students to socialize in class.
does not permit interruptions of class activities or negative behavior.

Research Findings: The Effective School

has strong leadership, especially in reading and math instruction.
provides a pleasant and orderly atmosphere; the classroom climate is business-like with teacher-directed student activities.
expects all students to learn.
makes learning the chief priority; all staff members understand this emphasis.
monitors students progress carefully, reports tests results, and uses them to improve teaching and learning.
gives students adequate time on task and opportunity to learn expected content.
stresses rewards rather than punishment.
is committed to mastery of subject matter; insists that each student succeed before moving on to the next unit.
has high expectations for teachers as well as for students.
encourages and facilitates visits of teachers to other teachers' classrooms to observe techniques and amount of time on task.
maintains consistency among teachers in treatment of students.
conducts a yearly self-evaluation, involving all the staff, to find areas of strength and weaknesses.

Based upon interpretations of research by Ronald Edmonds, Peter Mortimore, Barak Rosenshine, and others.
Summary and Application

If the instructional supervisor is to help the teacher reach the instructional goals which have been set, he must understand the connection between an instructional skill or behavior and the quality of the instructional program and be prepared to help the teacher analyze and improve his planning process; the quality of the interaction between himself and the students, among the students themselves, and between the students and the materials or activities being used; and the results of his efforts.

HANDOUT #6 is a summary of recent research in the planning/teaching process and should be understood by the supervisor.

GIVE EACH PARTICIPANT A COPY OF HANDOUT #6
I. Determination of the instructional objective

The teacher must decide what content is to be covered, exactly what is to be accomplished. This decision may be made by those on the district level. In order to be useful in latter parts of the planning/teaching process (i.e., choosing materials and activities, setting evaluative criteria) the objectives must be stated in terms of observable minimal levels of student behavior.

II. Diagnosis

When the teacher knows what is to be accomplished (the learning objectives), he must then determine the knowledge and skill levels, interests, learning styles, and the strengths and weaknesses of the students in his class in relationship to the learning objectives which have been set. The process of assessing the "gap" between what is to be accomplished and the current performance level of the student is extremely important if the following steps of the planning/teaching process are to produce the desired results (the learning objectives).

A teacher's accuracy in diagnosing student skill levels is related to student achievement and academic learning time.

III. Prescription

The teacher's next step in the planning/teaching process involves the determination of more specific unit or lesson objectives, the choosing of specific activities and materials which are appropriate according to specific objectives and the current assessed skill levels, the grouping to be used, and the scheduling of time—the teacher decides specifically what is to
be done in the classroom. The effective teacher is able to prescribe appropriate learning experiences based on what he has learned in the diagnostic step. He has research-based knowledge of what he is doing and does it on purpose. He is aware of the psychological principles of learning and the cause and effect relationships in human learning; he considers these relationships and principles as he develops his lesson plans. Prescription of appropriate tasks by the teacher has been found to be directly related to student achievement and student success.

IV. Presentation

During this phase of the planning/teaching process the strategies to provide for successful interaction between the students and the teacher and between the students and the materials and activities are planned (during planning) and implemented (during teaching)—the strategies include choosing and appropriately using the proper (in the teacher's professional judgment) methods, materials, activities, learning principles, group designs, and time schedules.

Research has given the teacher a good foundation for making decisions in this phase. It is patterns of practice rather than specific isolated teaching skills or teacher characteristics which account for effectiveness:

A. General attitudes or behaviors of the effective teacher during the presentation of a planned lesson.

1. Has a good grasp of subject matter to be covered.

2. Is well organized.
3. Is able to teach to a specific objective.

4. Has a variety of patterns or clusters of teaching behaviors which he can use after the situation has been diagnosed and the prescription for the lesson has been determined.

5. Selects and directs classroom activities himself (structures the lesson).

6. Has good presentation skills; i.e., can explain well, demonstrate a point, lead a discussion in which students actively participate.

7. Paces the lesson in order to maintain group momentum and interest, but knows that lessons should be as continuous and sustained as possible without being rushed, not becoming disjointed by abrupt shifts within the lesson.

8. Provides variety in classroom activities.

9. Adapts presentations to different ability levels.

10. Is able to express his own individuality in his style of teaching while at the same time providing for the specific learning needs of the students.

11. Understands (and acts accordingly) that students can make the greatest learning gains when taught with a structured curriculum.

12. Is able to create an environment that is task oriented but relaxed.

13. Is able to generate enthusiasm in the classroom.
14. Understands (and acts accordingly) that teacher talk in the form of lectures and demonstrations is as important as recitation, drill, and practice.

15. Understands that the atmosphere which is most conducive to learning is one in which there is warmth, conviviality, and democratic practices.

16. Realizes that a high self concept in students is important and in general praise of positive actions is more effective than criticism of negative actions.

17. Keeps growing professionally through self evaluation, supervision and inservice.

18. Continues to question teaching decisions and actions on the basis of his own observations and new ideas and knowledge.

19. Emphasizes academic achievement and expects that all students will achieve.

20. Tends to set higher goals than less effective teachers to overcome obstacles and is more persistent in working to meet these goals.

21. Has a "can do" attitude, believing that his students are capable of learning the material and that he is capable of teaching them effectively.

B. Use of Time

1. Knows how to organize and maintain a learning environment that maximizes time spent engaged in productive activities (those designed to help students reach learning objective)
and minimize time lost during transitions, periods of confusion or disruptions that require disciplinary action.

2. Does not socialize or allow students to socialize in class.

3. Does not permit interruptions of class activities or negative behavior.

4. Does not grade papers during class period.

5. Plans to have students spend great amounts of time on task in basic skill instruction and makes provision for corrective instruction.

6. Understands that fewer teacher and student absences result in greater learning gains.

7. Understands (and acts accordingly) that the greater the amount of time allotted for a particular content and the greater the amount of time students actually spend successfully engaged in a learning activity, the greater will be the learning gains.

C. Student Involvement

1. Tends to teach the class as a whole or in large groups, giving less independent seat work.

2. Knows that individual seat work can be beneficial if:
   a. The difficulty level is appropriate.
   b. The activity is related to direct instruction which immediately precedes it and students understand the objective of the activity.
   c. Students understand what their task is and are monitored and provided help as needed.
d. Students can progress to a subsequent academic task without waiting for others to complete their work.

e. Students receive "immediate" feedback on their completed work.

f. Students are able to focus on assigned tasks without outside distractions.

3. Provides activities and experiences which actively involve students.

4. Understands that grouping size is not important if students receive direct teacher attention which keeps them involved in the task at hand.

D. Materials and Activities

1. Chooses materials that are of appropriate difficulty.

2. Chooses criterion materials (those which will help students reach learning objective).

3. Assigns tasks for which students have a high likelihood of success.

4. Provides content related to students' interests and backgrounds.

5. Promotes extensive content coverage.

6. Understands that written exercises can be substituted for discussion to promote learning except if the learning objective is to improve the students' abilities to give high-level cognitive responses.

E. Management

1. Has learned how to routinize classroom management tasks.
2. Has a business-like or task-oriented behavior.
3. Is able to monitor entire class continuously.
4. Is able to do two or more things at the same time without having to break the flow of classroom events.
5. Establishes reasonable behavior rules and consistently follows through in rule enforcement.
6. Encourages positive behavior and controls negative behavior.
7. Finds ways to get students to cooperate with one another and to take responsibility for their work.

V. Monitoring and Feedback
   A. Is able to sustain one activity while monitoring another.
   B. Demonstrates alertness and awareness.
   C. Frequently monitors students verbal and written responses.
   D. Makes appropriate corrections in lesson plans after monitoring pupil performance.
   E. Makes sure that students "master" one unit before moving on to the next.
   F. Monitors student progress by asking questions and circulating around the room—the effective teacher knows that:
      1. Questions about content can produce a high degree of learning.
      2. Drill can be an effective strategy.
      3. High achieving students tend to profit more from questions that allow for divergent responses.
      4. Questions should be directed to specific students rather than continually to those who volunteer.
5. Low achieving students tend to benefit more from lower-level questions (on Bloom's Taxonomy) that produce correct student responses and from the teacher persisting and helping them to respond when they experience difficulty.

6. When providing feedback and help during recitation, questions are asked which produce correct responses approximately 75 percent of the time (the percentage should be slightly higher for remedial classes).

G. Gives adequate feedback so students know what they have learned and what they have yet to learn.

H. Structures learning activities to include immediate academically oriented feedback.

I. Knows that the percentage of instructional time during which students receive evaluative feedback is positively related to student engagement time and to student achievement.

J. Knows that (and acts accordingly) students who experience more than average time in high-success learning activities have higher achievement scores, have a better rate of retention over the summer, and have more positive attitudes toward school.

K. Understands that the use of evaluative feedback that is directly related to student performance in reaching objective as positively correlated with increased academic performance.
AFTER THESE RESEARCH FINDINGS ARE PASSED OUT AND READ BY THE PARTICIPANTS. A VIDEOTAPE SHOWING A TEACHER INCORPORATING MANY OF THESE ELEMENTS WILL BE SHOWN (THIS WILL BE A RECORDING OF A TEACHER WHO WORKS IN THE CLARK COUNTY SCHOOL DISTRICT, NEVADA). PARTICIPANTS WILL BE ASKED TO WATCH FOR EXAMPLES OF "EFFECTIVE TEACHING". THESE EXAMPLES WILL BE DISCUSSED AT THE END OF THE TAPE.

****SHOW VIDEO TAPE OF "MASTER TEACHER" INTERACTING WITH STUDENTS****
Throughout the inservice sessions the strategies and techniques of good teaching will continually be discussed. It is almost overwhelming to try to do it all at once.

****TRANSPARENCY #4 WILL BE SHOWN AGAIN, EMPHASIZING POINT 2****
Before an administrator can work with a teacher to analyze the professional growth and development of the teacher, he must work to establish a relationship of trust and skills of effective communication. PARTICIPANTS WILL BE ASKED TO READ HANDOUT #7 "READING 2-1 COMMUNICATION SKILLS" FROM INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION TRAINING PROGRAM (57, 1978, taken from pp. 17-21).
Perhaps the most important skills an Instructional Supervisor can own are the skills used to communicate with others. Without clear, direct communication, Supervisor could not possibly build with Teacher the type of non-threatening, healthy, and fruitful relationship necessary to facilitate Teacher's growth as a professional. As we have found, Listener does not always hear the message intended by Speaker; hence, the well-known "problem in communication". To insure that Listener hears what Speaker intended to be heard, Listener can send a response message back to Speaker. Listener's response message says something like, "Did you tell me that...?" or "What I heard you say was..." By making an appropriate response, Listener can insure that he hears the message sent by Speaker clearly and correctly. Supervisor can insure clear communication with Teacher to whom he is listening by making certain responses to what Teacher says. These responses enable both Supervisor and Teacher to understand each other more clearly, thereby avoiding problems caused by faulty communication.

Specified below are five modes of response which will help insure clear communication between you, as Instruction Supervisor, and Teacher.

1. Asking clarifying questions. You may not be certain about the meaning of Teacher's specific message. It may be unclear or have multiple meanings. You may therefore respond to such a message by asking Teacher to repeat what was said. For example:

   Supervisor: I'm not sure that I understand. What was it that you just said?

   In response to a clarifying question such as this, Teacher will most ordinarily repeat the statement previously made.
Teacher: I said, the students don't like this kind of activity. Such repetition will be sufficient in many cases to make the communication clear. You may, however, wish to further clarify the meaning of the message you are receiving from Teacher. You then use a second type of clarification question in which you ask Teacher to define or illustrate a particular word or phrase used. For example:

Supervisor: What do you mean when you use the word "like"?

Asking for definitions or examples forces Teacher to be more exact, resulting in clearer communication between Teacher and you.

Teacher: I mean that over half of them didn't do the activity and turned in blank exercise papers at the end of the period.

Thus, you can use at least two types of clarifying questions to respond to Teacher when you are not sure that you understand what is being said. You can ask Teacher (1) to repeat the statement, or you can ask Teacher (2) to define or give examples of the statement. In both, the aim is clear communication between you and Teacher.

2. Paraphrasing. Supervisor may often assume that she understands what Teacher has communicated. Yet it is dangerous to proceed under the assumption that clear understanding always exists. Most problems in communication occur, and misunderstandings result, when both parties "think" they understand each other. For example:

First teacher said: They should make Jeff the new vice-principal.

Second teacher heard: Jeff is one of the best teachers we have and so he should be rewarded by being given the vice-principal's job.

First teacher meant: Jeff was never too good in the classroom and the best thing for him and the students is to kick him upstairs where he can't hurt anybody.
This misunderstanding could have been avoided if the second teacher, even though he "thought" he understood the first teacher, had used a paraphrase to test his understanding by restating the other's ideas in his own words. When you respond to a message with a paraphrase, you do not merely repeat what was said. Instead, you change what was said, transpose it, or give an example to make it more specific than originally stated. For example:

Second teacher: Do you mean that Jeff is a good teacher and deserves the promotion?

Sometimes paraphrasing is misunderstood to mean making statements such as, "What you are trying to say is...", "What you mean to say is..." or "What you really mean is so and so." These statements are unskilled types of paraphrases which should not be used because they give the impression that you are saying for the other person what she can best say for herself. The purpose of paraphrasing is to report the present level of understanding to the other person, not to speak for the other person.

Speaker: Sharon is the right person to lead the committee.

A good paraphrase would be:

Listener: Do you mean that she has the leadership ability which is needed to get the whole committee working together?

Speaker might agree that Listener heard the correct message, or Speaker might say:

Speaker: No, I meant to say that Sharon has been working on the committee longer than the others. She deserves to be committee leader.

In either case, the intent of Speaker's communication has been clarified by the skillful use of a paraphrase and Listener understands
exactly what the Speaker intended to say.

3. Perception checking. Up to this point, we have stressed the subject content of communications, but people communicate feelings as well. A person who is talking with another person seldom knows for sure what feelings lie behind the other's words. You may think you know what Speaker is feeling, but it is difficult to know for sure. For example, Teacher may look bored to death when talking with you, but you should never say:

   Supervisor: Why are you so bored with me? Why do you get bored so easily?

These questions assume that you already know about Teacher's boredom. Instead, you should respond by checking your perceptions of Teacher's feelings. For example:

   Supervisor: I get the impression that you are bored. Am I correct?
   Teacher might answer:
   Teacher: No, it's very hot in here and I'm uncomfortable. It really doesn't have anything to do with you.

It is fortunate, in this case, that Supervisor checked before erroneous assumptions were made and the whole situation was confused. A good perception check conveys this message. "I want to understand your feelings. Is this the way to go about it?" For example:

   Supervisor: Do you feel disappointed that the principal didn't comment on your suggestion?
   Teacher: No, not at all. I would just as soon forget that I made it.

The Supervisor now knows what Teacher is really feeling. A perception check should not express approval or disapproval of Speaker's feelings; it should merely convey how the feelings are
understood. Inferences about other people's feelings can be, and often are, inaccurate. If a person feels guilty, she may perceive others as angry or accusing toward her. It is thus important to check out feelings. First, perception checking responses convey a desire to understand the other as a person, including understanding feelings. Second, perception checking responses help avoid regrettable actions which may be based upon false assumptions about what the other is feeling. Perception checking is a skill that can help each person understand the other.

4. Offering information. Listener can respond to Speaker's message by offering relevant information. Speaker then will apply that information to the original message and determine if it is what was asked. If it is, then clear communication has resulted. If it is not, a problem has been recognized. Either way, communication has been facilitated. When offering information, it is important that the information be factual and not contain value judgments. Making value judgments is left up to Speaker.

The following example could occur in a conference with Teacher. Here, the purpose of offering information is again to insure that clear communication is occurring between Supervisor and Teacher.

Supervisor: George, the situation you are talking about might have been caused by one of two or three things. First, the students might not be progressing on their own because they didn't understand your directions. Secondly, they might not have had any previous experience with learner-directed activities. Naturally, they would be uncomfortable and unwilling to try something new. Or, they might have had a teacher last year who was very strict, and didn't allow, or even punished, individual effort.

When you, as Instructional Supervisor, offer this kind of information,
you are not accusing Teacher by maintaining that any one of the possible causes of the problem does, in fact, exist in Teacher's classroom. Such an accusation might cause Teacher to feel attacked. Instead, you should merely offer possibilities as helpful information. Teacher's task is to weigh the information you have offered and apply it, however appropriately, to the problem.

To develop skills in offering relevant information, Supervisor must draw upon past experience as a teacher and sharpen the ability to observe what actually occurs in classrooms. Much time will be spent later in this program on practicing the skills of observation.

5. Active, attentive listening. This communication skill should be practiced by everybody who is interested in facilitating clear, accurate communication with others. It is especially important when supervisors work with teachers. The key to active, attentive listening is, again, that it is a response to a message sent by Speaker to Listener. Listening must be responsive. The listener should not just sit in silence but use facial expressions, eye contact, and responses such as "I see," "Yes," and "Uh-huh." It is not enough to be vitally interested in what Speaker is saying. One must communicate this interest to Speaker by responsive listening.
THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS WILL BE DISCUSSED:

1. Why are clear direct communications so important?
   NECESSARY TO BUILD TYPE OF NON-THREATENING HEALTHY, AND FRUITFUL
   RELATIONSHIP NECESSARY TO FACILITATE TEACHER'S GROWTH AS A PRO-
   FESSIONAL.

2. What is one of the biggest problems in communications?
   INSURING THAT LISTENER CLEARLY AND CORRECTLY HEARS INTENDED
   MESSAGE SENT BY SPEAKER.

There are 5 different responses the listener can make to insure
that he understands what the speaker is saying:

3. What is a clarifying question? Give an example.
   THE LISTENER ASKS THE SPEAKER TO REPEAT WHAT HE SAID BECAUSE
   IT WAS NOT CLEAR.

4. What is meant by the term "paraphrasing"? Give an example.
   What is the purpose of paraphrasing?
   PARAPHRASING IS USED BY THE LISTENER TO RESTATE IN HIS OWN WORDS
   WHAT HE BELIEVES THE SPEAKER HAS SAID.

5. What is meant by perception checking? Why is it necessary?
   PEOPLE COMMUNICATE FEELINGS ALSO. THE LISTENER NOT ONLY RECEIVES
   WHAT IS SAID VERBALLY, BUT ALSO RECEIVES AN IMPRESSION OF THE
   SPEAKER'S FEELINGS. LISTENER CAN CHECK HIS IMPRESSION OF THE
   SPEAKER'S FEELINGS. IF DONE PROPERLY, PERCEPTION CHECKING CAN
   CONVEY THE MESSAGE, "I WANT TO UNDERSTAND YOUR FEELINGS." THIS
   TECHNIQUE SHOULD ALSO BE USED TO AVOID MAKING FALSE ASSUMPTIONS
   ABOUT THE SPEAKER.

6. How does the technique of offering information improve communica-
   tion?
SPEAKER CAN APPLY THE FACTUAL INFORMATION OFFERED BY THE LISTENER TO WHAT HE (THE SPEAKER) ORIGINALLY SAID TO SEE IF HIS MESSAGE WAS CLEARLY COMMUNICATED IN THE FIRST PLACE.

7. What is responsive listening and why is it important?
LISTENER USES FACIAL EXPRESSIONS, EYE CONTACT AND RESPONSES SUCH AS "I SEE" "YES" AND "UH HUH" TO COMMUNICATE HIS INTEREST IN WHAT IS BEING SAID.

8. How does perception checking differ from asking clarifying questions or paraphrasing?
PERCEPTION CHECKING MEANS THAT THE LISTENER ATTEMPTS TO UNDERSTAND THE FEELINGS BEHIND WHAT ANOTHER PERSON SAYS WHILE ASKING CLARIFYING QUESTIONS AND PARAPHRASING ARE ATTEMPTS TO UNDERSTAND MEANING.

TWO EXERCISES WILL BE USED TO EMPHASIZE THE SKILLS OF PARAPHRASING AND PERCEPTION OR IMPRESSION CHECKING (485, 1977, p. 119):

PARAPHRASING

FOR THE PURPOSE OF PARAPHRASING, MEMBERS GROUP INTO CIRCLES OF NO MORE THAN EIGHT PERSONS. THE CONSULTANT OR SOMEONE IN THE GROUP SUGGESTS A TOPIC THAT IS RELEVANT AND IMPORTANT TO THE GROUP, SUCH AS "WHAT IS THE MOST IMPORTANT PROBLEM FACING OUR TEAM?" ONE MEMBER ANSWERS THE QUESTION BRIEFLY: THE NEXT PERSON IN THE CIRCLE ACCURATELY PARAPHRASES THIS BEFORE GIVING HIS OWN ANSWER, AND SO ON AROUND THE CIRCLE. THIS EXERCISE IS ALSO EFFECTIVE IN TWO-PERSON UNITS, ESPECIALLY IF THE TWO JOIN STILL ANOTHER PAIR AND EACH SPEAKS FROM AN UNDERSTANDING OF HIS PARTNER'S ANSWER.

A VARIATION ON THIS EXERCISE CAN BE PARTICULARLY USEFUL WITH A
NEW GROUP OR WITH GROUPS THAT HAVE NEW MEMBERS. HERE, EACH PERSON
WRITES FIVE TO TEN ANSWERS TO THE QUESTION "WHO AM I?" ON EITHER
A FIVE-BY-EIGHT-INCH CARD THAT IS PINNED TO THE PERSON'S CHEST OR ON
A PIECE OF NEWSPRINT THAT IS TAPE TO THE WALL. ALL MEMBERS WILL
MOVE AROUND FOR A FEW MINUTES SILENTLY READING ONE ANOTHER'S ANSWERS.
THEN, IN PARTNERS OR TRIADS, INDIVIDUALS PARAPHRASE ITEMS FROM THE
OTHER PERSONS' LISTS, PERHAPS LIMITING THEMSELVES TO ITEMS THAT ARE
MOST LIKE OR UNLIKE ITEMS ON THEIR OWN LIST.

IMPRESSION CHECKING

TWO EXERCISES ARE USEFUL FOR PRACTICING IMPRESSION CHECKING. IN
THE FIRST, THE CONSULTANT MIGHT ASK GROUP MEMBERS TO TAKE TURNS CONVEYING THEIR FEELINGS TO OTHERS BY MEANS OF GESTURES, EXPRESSIONS, AND NONSENSE LANGUAGE AND THEN ASK OTHERS TO CHECK TO MAKE SURE THAT THEY READ THE EMOTION CORRECTLY. IN THE SECOND, CALLED THE "ALTER EGO" PROCEDURE, HALF THE GROUP SIT IN A CIRCLE WHILE THE OTHER HALF TAKE THEIR PLACES BEHIND SPECIFIC MEMBERS OF THE CIRCLE. WHILE THOSE IN THE CENTER DISCUSS SOME TOPIC THAT HAS BEEN AGREED UPON, THOSE IN THE OUTER RING WHISPER THEIR IMPRESSIONS TO THEIR PARTNERS ("ARE YOU UPSET BECAUSE YOU CAN'T GET A WORD IN EDGEWISE?" OR "AM I CORRECT IN INFERRING THAT YOU'RE SLUMPING BECAUSE YOU'RE UNINTERESTED?"). PARTNERS IN THE INNER CIRCLE RESPOND ONLY BY NODDING THEIR HEADS YES OR NO TO THESE QUESTIONS.
THE PARTICIPANTS WILL BE ASKED TO CONSIDER STATEMENTS WHICH COULD BE ASKED BY TEACHERS DURING A CONFERENCE. THEY WILL BE ASKED TO GENERATE A SUPERVISOR'S POSSIBLE RESPONSES WHICH COULD HELP THE TWO OF THEM TO UNDERSTAND WHAT THE TEACHER IS ACTUALLY SAYING.

****8 TEACHER COMMENTS WILL BE WRITTEN ON BOARD (57, 1978, p. 27)****

1. (Matter-of-factly) "My students don't seem to pay attention in class."

2. (Discouraged tone) "O.K. If you think that's what I should do, I'll try."

3. (Uncertainly) "I would really like to write some behavioral objectives for my class, but I just don't know how."

4. (Outraged tone) "He's one of the most disrespectful students I've ever had."

5. (Discouraged tone) "My 4th period class isn't going well."

6. (Discouraged tone) "I wonder if I was stifling discussion in my last class that you observed?"

7. (Puzzled tone) "But what sorts of things can I do that will get the kids to discuss things among themselves rather than just with me?"

PARTICIPANTS WILL LISTEN TO AN AUDIO TAPE OF A PRE-OBSERVATION CONFERENCE BETWEEN THE COORDINATOR AND A SECONDARY TEACHER. THEY WILL BE ASKED TO IDENTIFY THE TYPES OF RESPONSES THE COORDINATOR (ACTING AS SUPERVISOR) MAKES AND THE REASONS FOR THE PARTICULAR RESPONSE.

****AUDIO TAPE OF SUPERVISORY CONFERENCE WILL BE PLAYED****

A LISTENING INVENTORY WILL BE GIVEN TO EACH PARTICIPANT (214, 1974, p. 105) HANDOUT # 8. THE INVENTORY WILL BE COMPLETED AND DISCUSSED.
LISTENING INVENTORY

INSTRUCTIONS:

Answer each question with 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5

Value of 1—Very seldom
Value of 2—Approximately 25% of the time
Value of 3—Approximately 50% of the time
Value of 4—Approximately 75% of the time
Value of 5—Almost always

1. I make people I am talking with comfortable by asking them to sit down.
2. I listen to employees in informal on-the-job situations as well as in planned meetings.
3. I find that listening is hard work.
4. I show a positive attitude toward others when they want to talk with me.
5. I am careful not to prejudge the quality of peoples' ideas.
6. I give the person talking with me my undivided attention.
7. I am careful not to interrupt before the person is finished talking.
8. I can easily distinguish between fact and opinion.
9. I request more information when I do not fully understand.
10. I restate the person's point of view when I do not fully understand: For example: "Your point is...You mean this."
11. I do not become emotional when I hear others use emotionally toned words.
12. When people talk with me they can honestly say, "He heard me and understands me."
13. I ask questions to be sure that I am hearing the message correctly.
14. My employees feel equally free to give me negative reports as well as favorable ones.
15. I consciously work at listening because I realize it develops a better understanding of others.

Total Score
THE NEWSWEEK ARTICLE "THE JAPANESE TOUCH" (485, 1977, pp. 367-368) handout #9 will be given to each participant. After it is read its main points will be discussed, emphasizing the supervisor's need for skills in the area of human relations.
An American semiconductor firm owns a plant in Dallas and one in Japan. Both are virtually identical—using the same technology, the same manufacturing procedures and the same number of workers. There is one obvious difference: the plant in Japan outproduces the one in Dallas by 15 percent.

The conventional explanation for the difference is that Japanese workers are simply more industrious than Americans. But if that is true, how is it that 200 American employees now working at the television-assembly plant Sony has built in San Diego manage to produce just as many color sets as their Japanese counterparts at an identical Sony operation in Tokyo?

Outclassed: The difference between the American workers in San Diego and in the Dallas semiconductor plant is that the Sony employees work under Japanese managers—and that, says a recent study by two Stanford Business School professors, makes all the difference in the world. "The Japanese simply outmanage us when it comes to people," declares management specialist Richard T. Johnson, who wrote the study along with organizational theorist William G. Ouchi. "We've done very well coping with the inanimate elements of management. But a shocking number of American managers are really inept in dealing with people."

What the Japanese have that Americans by and large don't is a finely cultivated sense of the importance of looking at the corporation as a social organization, not simply as a profit-oriented enterprise.
This perspective has led to a system of management techniques that Westerners may find strange but one that has made Japanese productivity the envy of the world. And Japanese firms have been able to transplant this key cultural outlook by filling top managerial positions of their U.S. subsidiaries with Japanese nationals.

While Japanese management techniques foster high productivity, they can also make life difficult for American-born managers who must contend with what seems a topsy-turvy world. For one thing, the Japanese conceive of management as a process in which the most important information flows from the bottom up, rather than from the top down. Japanese managers expect change and initiative to come from those closest to the problem, from salespeople and assembly-line workers rather than from top executives.

More baffling to Westerners is the Japanese style of decision making. It involves a lengthy process of achieving consensus, and it often takes days or weeks to arrive at a decision that an American manager might make by himself in minutes. But in the process, practically everyone who will be affected by the decision is consulted. Thus, notes trade official Masahiro Soejima, "When Japanese businessmen finally do reach a decision, they are ready to act with great speed." No time need be wasted trying to convince colleagues that the decision is correct, since they helped make it. In fact, Soejima points out, the "word 'decision' doesn't have the same meaning in Japanese. We call 'decision' the 'action stage'."

Beer: But the most telling aspect of Japanese management is its concern for workers as individuals. "Our philosophy is that you must
care about the individual," says chairman Yu Mizuki of NTN Bearing Corp. of America, a suburban Chicago subsidiary of a Japanese manufacturing concern. "Human relations are just as important to us as production." Often after a period of successful operations at NTN, work is halted early so that everyone—including top management—can gather in the warehouse to celebrate with beer and sandwiches. Some Japanese-run firms hold monthly birthday parties for employees at which the chairman personally presents gifts. And almost all Japanese managers make a practice of knowing the names of as many subordinates as possible.

Predictably, workers thrive under such treatment. Says the Stanford study: "American workers employed by Japanese companies report that they like the feeling of having many ties rather than just a work contract with their employer. The notion that the company is interested in their over-all affairs and even in the well-being of their family is flattering and comforting." Indeed, it works so well that several American corporations have already adopted similar managerial styles—among them Eastman Kodak, IBM and NCR.

All this seems to indicate that America's traditional antagonism between management and labor may well be anachronistic, Stanford's Johnson told Newsweek's Gerald C. Lubenow. And if American workers would indeed welcome a closer, more encompassing relationship with their employers, the implications for American business—and society—could be profound.
Session II One Full Day

The following are the specific objectives of Session II. At the end of this session the individual participants will:

1. Be able to identify from an audio tape when a supervisor is using behavioral language and when he is using judgmental language.

2. Be able in a role playing situation to identify with a "teacher" an area of concern during a pre-observation conference.

3. Be able in a role playing situation to identify with a "teacher" specifically what data will be collected during an observation.

4. Be able in a role playing situation to identify with a "teacher" specifically how data will be collected (instrument to be used).

Language To Communicate Meaning

FOR REFERENCE PURPOSES THE "11 C's OF WRITTEN COMMUNICATION (214, 1974, p. 113) HANDOUT #10 WILL BE GIVEN TO EACH PARTICIPANT AND USED AS A MEANS OF INTRODUCING THE SECTION ON LANGUAGE TO CONVEY MEANING.
THE 11 C'S OF WRITTEN COMMUNICATION

Clear
unambiguous; one reading should be sufficient to get the message

Correct
facts must be right; no excuse for incorrect grammar or spelling

Concise
message conveyed as briefly as consistent with effectiveness

Complete
all necessary data in logical order; no guesswork

Courteous
say "please" and "thanks"; courtesy is genuine; flattery is counterfeit

Considerate
write the kind of message you would like to receive

Confident
be the authority without acting it; assume reader will do what he is asked

Cheerful
no one likes bad news; whatever the burden, give it graciously

Conversational
write as naturally as you talk; avoid offensive familiarity

Clever
there is little enough wit in the world so share yours

Careful
written words can carry implications never intended by the writer; avoid emotionally charged overtones which can offend the sensibilities of the reader
Behavioral Language

The instructional supervision process requires the use of language with three characteristics (57, 1978, p. 38):

1. Non-judgmental
2. Easily Understood
3. Specific

Behavioral language which refers only to specific, observable events seems to best satisfy these three characteristics. These statements are specific, accurate, and concise descriptions of observable behavior.

EXAMPLES OF BEHAVIORAL AND JUDGMENTAL STATEMENTS (57, 1978, pp. 39-42) HANDOUTS #11 and #12 WILL BE GIVEN TO EACH PARTICIPANT AND WILL BE DISCUSSED.
IDENTIFYING JUDGMENTAL AND BEHAVIORAL STATEMENTS

Following are lists of key words and phrases that have proved to be useful indicators for identifying the basic elements of judgmental and behavioral statements. Perhaps you can think of other examples to add to the lists. These phrases should be studied carefully since they will aid you in completing the exercises later.

Judgmental key phrases. Judgmental statements often contain non-specific, undefined terms or phrases which:

1. refer to a quantity. They pose the question, "How much is...?"
   - a lot
   - much
   - less
   - enough
   - many
   - more
   - little
   - few
   - adequate
   - minimum
   - maximum
   - some

2. refer to a period of time. They pose the question, "How often is...?"
   - often
   - rarely
   - occasionally
   - frequently
   - seldom
   - now and then

3. refer to a quality. Personal judgment is required for any specific definition of the terms. They pose the question, "What do you mean by...?"
   - encouraging
   - bright
   - warm
   - exciting
   - cheerful
   - important
   - disturbing
   - unhappy
   - haggard
   - pleasing
   - attentive
   - satisfied
   - depressing
   - enthusiastic
   - aloof
   - wandering
   - nervous
   - concerned
   - indifferent
   - lost
   - unclear
   - friendly
   - rushed
   - weak
   - unprepared
   - muddled
   - poor
   - good
   - bad
   - fair
   - apathetic
   - intelligent
   - stupid

4. do not specify an objective basis for the judgment. They pose the question, "How can you be sure that...?"
   - Joe can't read.
   - Annie can't write.
   - The students like spelling exercises.
   - The students hate mathematics.
   - David is the smartest student.
   - Cecille is the most artistic.
   - Luis has real academic potential.
   - Billy's attitude needs improvement.
Behavioral key phrases. Behavioral statements:

1. state a measured quantity such as:
   - 30 percent of the students
   - one-half of the class
   - 23 out of 45
   - none
   - all

2. state a measured time, such as:
   - 15 times in one hour
   - every ten minutes
   - twice during the lesson
   - always
   - never

3. state the source or basis of a judgment, such as:
   - According to the class
   - The principal indicated...
   - survey...
   - The teacher stated that...
   - The test scores showed
   - that...
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nonbehavioral Statement of an Area of Concern</th>
<th>Behavioral Statement of an Area of Concern</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My lesson didn't seem to go over well.</td>
<td>Three out of 30 students responded to my questions. No student asked any questions about the lesson.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The kids hate to come to class.</td>
<td>Eighty percent of the time, half of the class is tardy. My absentee rate is twice as high as the typical class in my school.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The students in my class are poorly motivated to learn the material.</td>
<td>None of the students has volunteered to discuss the material. About 20 percent of the class completes the daily homework assignments.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My teaching is boring a lot of the students.</td>
<td>Nine students fell asleep in my class today. Also, six students were drawing pictures while I was teaching.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My students seem to understand the material well.</td>
<td>Two-thirds of the students in my class score at least 90 percent on the weekly tests. Appropriate answers were given to all of the questions in my discussion today.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PARTICIPANTS WILL BE GIVEN A PAPER BY STANLEY A. SCHAINKER, HANDOUT #13, "A PRIMER FOR WRITING PERFORMANCE REPORTS AND SUMMARY EVALUATIONS" (491, 1979). KEY CONCEPTS WHICH ARE RELATED TO THE COMMUNICATION SKILLS WHICH WERE DISCUSSED PREVIOUSLY WILL BE EXAMINED.
A PRIMER FOR WRITING PERFORMANCE REPORTS AND SUMMARY EVALUATIONS

THE BASIC SUPERVISORY PRINCIPLE UNDERLYING ALL PERFORMANCE REPORTS AND SUMMARY EVALUATIONS:

BE SPECIFIC SO YOU CAN REINFORCE THE BEHAVIOR THAT YOU THINK IS DESIRABLE AND/OR EXTINGUISH THE BEHAVIOR THAT YOU THINK IS UNDESIRABLE.

THE BASIC QUESTION THAT SHOULD BE ASKED BY THE SUPERVISOR WHILE PREPARING ANY PERFORMANCE REPORT OR SUMMARY EVALUATION:

HAVE I CLEARLY STATED WHAT I WANTED TO SAY SO THAT THE PERSON Whose PERFORMANCE IS BEING ASSESSED WILL UNDERSTAND SPECIFICALLY WHAT I MEAN?

I. DESCRIBING THE SITUATION THAT WAS OBSERVED

THE SUPERVISOR SHOULD SUMMARIZE ONLY WHAT HE/SHE SAW OR HEARD DURING THE ACTUAL OBSERVATION.

During an observation, things either occurred or did not occur. Therefore, the person whose performance is being observed does not:

appear imply tend try
attempt seem think want

The person whose performance is being observed, however, actually can be seen or heard:

answering explaining reading
asking gesturing remarking
assigning giving repeating
calling upon grading responding
collecting handing saying
commenting informing selecting
copying initiating showing
demonstrating instructing speaking
describing lecturing stating
designating listening talking
directing listing telling
discussing motioning using
displaying moving utilizing
distributing presenting walking
doing questioning writing

drawing

When describing the performance of another person, the supervisor should not use words that convey value judgments. For example:
If the supervisor wishes to use "the first person" when describing the situation that was observed, he should use verbs such as:

I counted  I listened  I observed  I watched
I heard    I noted    I saw     I witnessed
I listed   I noticed  I viewed

II. ASSESSING ANOTHER'S PROFESSIONAL PERFORMANCE

The supervisor should support any judgment made regarding the performance of another individual with specific examples or observed behavior.

In assessing another's performance a supervisor must make value judgments. However, the words that are used to convey those value judgments rarely can stand by themselves without additional elaboration or clarification. Since their meanings usually are open to more than one interpretation, these judgment-oriented words are inadequate for promoting clear communication. Such words include:

able    enthusiastic    popular
academic failed    prepared
adaptable fair    professional
adequate flexible    proper
appropriate good    respected
capable impressive    responsive
competent inadequate    rigid
conscientious inappropriate    satisfactory
consistent inconsistent    sensitive
controlled individualized    stimulating
cooperative ineffective    successful
creative innovative    uncooperative
dedicated insensitive    unfair
disciplined involved    unprepared
disorganized knowledgeable    unsatisfactory
disruptive motivated    well-planned
effective organized    willing

There are a number of phrases that can be used to clarify words that convey value judgments. They accomplish this purpose by facilitating the inclusion of specific evidence which will support the supervisor's assessments of another's performance.
These phrases include:

as demonstrated by  as illustrated by  as reflected by
as determined by  as indicated by  as shown by
as evidenced by  as measured by  as signified by
as exemplified by  as proven by  for example

Professional jargon is also ambiguous and requires clarification to insure clarity. For example, these words often convey different meanings to different people:

classroom climate  needs
classroom management  open classroom
cross cultural  participation
diagnostic  prescriptive
discipline  process oriented
discussion  quality
independent study  rapport
individualization  student centered
interdisciplinary  student management
involvement  subject matter oriented
learning atmosphere  teacher centered
learning centers  teacher dominated
motivation  teaching environment
multi-cultural  teaching team
multi-media

In order to promote accuracy in the assessment data and to improve communications, the supervisor also should elaborate on the following words when they are used:

a few  majority  previously
always  many  rarely
commonly  minority  seldom
constantly  most  some
continuously  occasionally  sometime
frequently  often  usually

When a supervisor assesses another individual's performance, by definition, he is expressing an opinion or making a professional judgment. Therefore, it is redundant to use any of the following:

I believe that  It is my assessment that
I think that  It is my judgment that
In my judgment  It is my opinion that
In my opinion

If the supervisor was looking for a particular type of behavior as he made an observation and did not find it, he is on safe ground to state in the assessment of the person's performance:

There was no evidence of ...
A supervisor can undercut the legitimacy of his assessment of another's performance by using "hedge words." More important, he can give unclear supervisory message by the careless use of the following:

- I anticipate that
- I assume that
- I did not see
- I feel that
- I guess that
- I infer that
- I perceive that
- I predict that
- I sense that
- I suspect that
- I was unable to find
- It seems reasonable to conclude that
- It seems that
- Probably should have

A supervisor is walking into a legal mine field when he characterizes another person in writing as being:

- bigoted
- corrupt
- crazy
- emotional
- immoral
- incapable
- incompetent
- insane
- irrational
- mentally ill
- perverted
- prejudiced
- psychotic
- sick
- stupid
- unable
- undedicated
- unethical
- unprofessional
- unstable
- unwilling

III. MAKING SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVEMENT

THE SUPERVISOR'S PRIMARY RESPONSIBILITY IS TO HELP OTHERS IMPROVE THEIR PROFESSIONAL PERFORMANCE. AS SUCH, THE SUPERVISOR HAS AN OBLIGATION TO MAKE SPECIFIC, CONCRETE, AND REASONABLE SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVEMENT WHENEVER HE FEELS IT IS APPROPRIATE.

The supervisor should not confuse supervisory directives with supervisory suggestions. The former require a response; the latter do not.

If the supervisor is prepared to accept the possibility that the individual will not respond as he expects, then the following phrases are appropriate:

- Attempt to
- I ask that you
- I encourage you to
- I hope that you
- I recommend that you
- I urge you to
- I would like you to
- Please explore
- Why don't you
- You might want to
- I suggest that you

If the supervisor is unprepared to accept the possibility that the individual will not respond as he expects, then the following phrases are appropriate:
By (deadline), you are to I expect you to comply with this directive
By (deadline), you shall I shall expect you to
I am directing you to You are hereby directed to
I am requiring that you You shall be expected to
I direct you to You shall be required to

A supervisor can cause unnecessary problems for himself by forgetting that professional assessments of others' performances are subjective and, therefore, relative. Words or phrases that convey absoluteness should be avoided. These include:

Always should It is obvious that
Everyone knows that It is self-evident that
It is apparent that Obviously
It is clear that Never should
It is crucial that The research shows that
It is essential that Undoubtedly
It is evident that Without a doubt

There are three common words that a supervisor should avoid when making suggestions for improvement. These are:

But (It negates the impact of whatever precedes it, but you may want to use it for just that reason.)
Always (There always will be, at least, one exception.)
Never (There never will be a case where an exception is non-existent.)

There are some key phrases that can be used by the supervisor who wants both to "stroke" those who generally are meeting his expectations and to offer some constructive suggestions for their improved performance. These phrases include:

Add to your existing strengths by focusing on
Build upon your existing skills by
Continue to ... while simultaneously developing your
Expand your strong repertoire of skills in the area of ... by
Extend your positive impact on students by
Further develop your skills in ... so that they match your current high level of performance in the area of ...
Increase your existing high level of effectiveness in the area of ... by
Maintain your proven ability to ... and begin to
Maintain your high level of competence in the area of ... by
Refine your existing strengths in the area of ... by
Reinforce your existing skills by

....BE SPECIFIC SO YOU CAN REINFORCE THE BEHAVIOR THAT YOU THINK IS DESIRABLE AND/OR EXTINGUISH THE BEHAVIOR THAT YOU THINK IS UNDESIRABLE.
AN EXERCISE INVOLVING THE IDENTIFICATION OF BEHAVIORAL AND JUDGMENTAL STATEMENTS (57, 1978, pp. 42-43) HANDOUT #14 WILL BE COMPLETED AND DISCUSSED BY THE PARTICIPANTS.
Instructions: The following sentences are examples of either behavioral statements (nonevaluative reports of observations of behavior, without judgmental elements), or of judgmental statements (statements that do have an evaluative component). The italicized words, phrases, or clauses identify the distinctions between observation and judgment. Identify each statement by marking either a B (behavioral statement) or J (judgmental statement) in the space provided.

1. He made good use of classroom control procedures.
2. The lesson was over their heads.
3. She asked 14 questions in a five-minute period.
4. The tall, dark-haired boy is smart.
5. None of her students smiled.
6. She used hand gestures 10 percent of the time she was talking.
7. Educational television is used frequently in Mrs. Ryan's school.
8. The student said that his teacher doesn't give enough tests.
9. The teacher was hesitant to answer his own questions.
10. Twice, the teacher said "no" to a student question.
11. The teacher used "umm" 15 times during the lesson.
12. The teacher seldom expanded a student's response.
13. According to the results of the math quiz, three-fourths of the students could not solve simultaneous equations.
14. He did not give enough encouragement to the student's efforts.
15. The teacher asked, "What's the problem over there?", five times during a 15-minute period.
16. The teacher was enthusiastic 30 percent of the class time.
ANSWERS TO THE EXERCISE

1. "Good" is a vague, undefined word requiring personal judgment as to meaning.

2. The phrase "over their heads" does not specify a basis for evaluation. How do you know that the sentence is true?

3. The terms "14" and "five-minute" denote (a) a measurable quantity and (b) a time period. Additionally, there is no evaluative component in the statement.

4. "Smart" is a vague, undefined word requiring personal judgment as to meaning.

5. The word "none" denotes a measurable quantity. Additionally, there is no evaluative component in the statement.

6. The term "10 percent" denotes a measurable quantity. Additionally, there is no evaluative component in the statement.

7. The word "frequently" denotes neither a specific time period nor the number of occurrences within such a period. Therefore, this word required personal definition.

8. Although the word "enough" denotes a nonspecific quantity and is a judgment, the source of the judgment "the student", is given; therefore, this is an observation.

9. The word "hesitant" is vague and undefined, requiring personal judgment as to meaning.

10. The word "twice" denotes a measurable quantity and a time period is implied. Additionally, there is no evaluative component in the statement.

11. The number "15" denotes a measurable quantity. Additionally, there is no evaluative component in the statement.

12. The word "seldom" denotes neither a specific time period nor the specific number of occurrences within such a period. This word requires personal judgment as to meaning.

13. The phrase "according to the results of the math quiz" gives specific information as the source of information in this statement. The term "three-fourths" denotes a measurable quantity. Additionally, there is no evaluative component in the statement.

14. The word "enough" denotes a nonspecific quantity. It requires personal judgment as to meaning.
The term "five times" denotes a specified measurable quantity and "15-minute" denotes a time period. Additionally, there is no evaluative component in the statement.

The word "enthusiastic" denotes a personal judgment.

Terminology--Target and Affecting Behaviors (57, 1978, p. 48)

TARGET BEHAVIORS: POINTS TO EMPHASIZE

1. GOAL OF INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION IS TO HELP TEACHERS IDENTIFY AND SOLVE INSTRUCTIONAL PROBLEMS WHICH ARE GENERALLY EXPRESSED IN TERMS OF STUDENT BEHAVIOR.

2. SPECIFIC STUDENT BEHAVIOR PATTERNS BECOME TARGETS FOR CHANGE.

3. TEACHER HAS NO DIRECT CONTROL OVER STUDENT BEHAVIOR

AFFECTING BEHAVIORS: POINTS TO EMPHASIZE

1. TEACHER HAS DIRECT CONTROL OVER ONLY HIS OWN BEHAVIOR.

2. HOPEFULLY BY CHANGING HIS OWN BEHAVIORS, THE TEACHER CAN INFLUENCE STUDENT BEHAVIORS. "THESE TEACHING BEHAVIORS WE CALL AFFECTING BEHAVIORS BECAUSE THE TEACHER INTENDS THAT THEIR USE WILL AFFECT THE TARGET FOR CHANGE, THE TARGET PUPIL BEHAVIOR."

AN EXERCISE (57, 1978, p. 49) WILL BE DONE ORALLY BY THE GROUP.

TARGET AND AFFECTING BEHAVIORS:
PRACTICE EXERCISE

Instructions: The following statements are examples of either target or affecting classroom behaviors. Identify each statement by marking either a T (target behavior) or an A (affecting behavior) in the space provided.

T 1. Alfred has disrupted the play of other children three times in the morning by toppling their building block projects.
_A_ 2. Mrs. Adams designed today's class lesson so as to allow the pupils time to correct their work immediately after completing it.

_T_ 3. Five of Mrs. Cook's music pupils are not able to sight-read base and treble clef lines simultaneously.

_T_ 4. Seven pupils in Miss Cole's class consistently do not turn in their homework.

_A_ 5. Mr. Ambrose makes every effort to take attendance, mark the attendance slip, and begin the lesson within three minutes after the tardy bell rings.

_A_ 6. A visitor to Mrs. Gardner's class observes that Debbie, a fifth grade pupil, did not concentrate on her individual projects for more than three and one-half minutes at a time without stopping work and talking with another student.

_T_ 7. Mr. Hansen arranges the seats in his class into a large circle every Thursday.

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PRE-OBSERVATION CONFERENCE
DEFINING AREA OF CONCERN

PARTICIPANTS WILL BE ASKED TO READ MATERIAL CONCERNING THE PRE-OBSERVATION CONFERENCE (TAKEN FROM 27, 1978, pp. 54-58) HANDOUT #15.

A TEACHER'S CLASS (VIDEO TAPE) WILL BE VIEWED (5 to 10 minutes) WITHOUT ANY CONCERN AREA IDENTIFIED. PARTICIPANTS WILL BE ASKED TO TAKE "OBSERVATION" NOTES. THEY WILL THEN BE TOLD OF THE TEACHER'S IDENTIFIED AREA OF CONCERN. THE FILM WILL BE VIEWED AGAIN. NOTES WILL BE TAKEN AGAIN. THE QUALITY (IN TERMS OF BEING ABLE TO USE THEM TO DEVELOP FEEDBACK FOR THE TEACHER) OF THE TWO SETS WILL BE DISCUSSED.

THE FOLLOWING DISCUSSION QUESTIONS WILL BE USED IN ORDER TO REINFORCE IMPORTANT POINTS:

1. Why is behaviorally defining the teacher's area of concern such an important step?

SUPERVISOR'S JOB IS TO HELP TEACHERS CONFRONT AND SEEK
SOLUTIONS TO INSTRUCTIONAL PROBLEMS—THES PROBLEMS MUST BE IDENTIFIED. SUPERVISOR CAN FOCUS HIS ATTENTION ON AREAS WHICH MATTER (CURRENTLY) TO THE TEACHER.

2. What analytical questions can be asked by the supervisor to help the teacher describe target pupil behaviors?

GUIDE WILL BE GIVEN TO PARTICIPANTS (57, 1978, p. 65) HANDOUT #16.
BEHAVIORALLY DEFINING THE AREA OF CONCERN

As you read through this material, attempt to answer the following questions: What is the first step of the Instructional Supervision Process? What are the reasons for behaviorally defining Teacher's area of concern? What analytical questions can be asked to help in behaviorally defining an area of concern? What behaviors should be included in the definition of an area of concern? What criteria should be applied when judging a behavioral definition?

Whenever one undertakes to solve a problem, the first and most crucial task is to arrive at an accurate definition of that problem. Since Instructional Supervisor's primary job is to assist Teacher to confront and seek solutions to instructional problems, the first step of the Instructional Supervision Process is to define in very specific terms the problem which concerns Teacher. We call this first step Behaviorally Defining the Area of Concern.

As an example, if Teacher says, "I'm not getting good student participation in my third period class," he might be referring to any one of several possible problems. Teacher might mean specifically: "Students in the class don't volunteer answers," or "The students give answers that are only one or two words long," or "Only the girls respond when I call for volunteers," or "Less than half of the students are attending class."

Even if Teacher's specific problem were one of the above, Supervisor could not pinpoint the "real" problems from Teacher's initial statement about lack of participation. While Teacher is often fully aware
of his general concern, he may be unable to recognize or describe
the specifics of the problem. Supervisor's first task, therefore,
is to obtain a behaviorally precise definition of the concern.

Identifying Target Behavior

During the initial step of the supervisory conference, Teacher may
indicate voluntarily (or after encouragement from Supervisor) a
troublesome area of concern in the classroom. As a first move in
attempting to define the area of concern, Supervisor's task is to
elicit or promote Teacher's statements that describe or specify
target pupil behaviors....

Supervisor can easily use analytical questions to draw statements
from Teacher describing target pupil behaviors. These questions
(listed below) can be extremely effective in focusing attention upon
observable actions and helping Teacher to behaviorally determine what
the specific problem is. They are:

1. What are the pupils doing that you don't want them to do?
2. What should the students be doing instead?
3. What are the students not doing that you would like them to do?
4. How many students are or are not doing it?
5. How often should the students be doing this?

As Supervisor encourages behaviorally specific answers to these
and similar questions, Supervisor and Teacher will approach a behavioral
definition of the area of concern. Together, they will develop a clear
understanding of what target behaviors Teacher feels are occurring or
not occurring in the class; these are the heart of this area of concern.
The adequacy of the definition of the area of concern must be assessed by both Supervisor and Teacher. Note that, in making this assessment, Supervisor and Teacher typically employ different points of view and different criteria. Teacher must feel assured that the definition defines his particular problem; that it fully describes the central concern as he sees it. Only Teacher can make these judgments. Supervisor must agree that the definition is a behavioral one. The description must be sufficiently specific to permit the behaviors pertinent to the problem to be observed, recorded, and understood by all concerned.

At times you may find it difficult to tell if the problem definition upon which you and Teacher have agreed is, in fact, behavioral. It might be helpful to refer to the following list when defining an area of concern. The behaviors must be objectively described so that they are:

1. specific, so that they can be measured,
2. observable at the time they are being measured,
3. free of any evaluative component.

When these criteria are met, different observers could then reliably agree on the occurrence of a particular behavior.

One additional comment may prove valuable. If you can ask the question "What do you mean by . . .?" about the behaviors to be measured, then you have not reached an acceptable behavioral definition . . . .

The temptation of solutions. As Supervisor and Teacher come to an agree about a behavioral definition of Teacher's area of concern, Supervisor may be tempted to begin offering solutions. "You might try
rearranging the seating" or "Have you thought of letting the pupils listen to the record independently, in their free time?" However, Supervisor must recall that one of the goals of Instructional Supervision is to facilitate growth in Teacher's ability to generate solutions to problems. Supervisor who steps in at the outset with solutions which she feels are appropriate is not allowing Teacher full opportunity to grow in problem-solving capabilities. Instead, a premature offering of solutions may have the effect of increasing Teacher's dependence on Supervisor and reduce Teacher's capability for and interest in proceeding autonomously.

The Possibility of Defining Affecting Behavior

Once Supervisor and Teacher have agreed that they have reached a satisfactory behavioral definition of Teacher's area of concern, in terms of target pupil behaviors, then two paths are open to them. First, they may be content with the definition as it stands and be ready to proceed to the next step of the Instructional Supervision Process. In this case, the behavioral definition would simply include a statement describing the target behaviors that need to be changed. Second, they may feel that they should speculate about how the target behaviors might be changed. At this point, in addition, to target behaviors, Supervisor and Teacher may want to consider affecting behaviors, those actions taken by Teacher which might affect the target pupil behaviors.

We say that they may wish to make this attempt. It is not always advisable. Teacher may be hesitant, unsure of the role of Supervisor, not comfortable with himself or the Supervisory situation. If such
is the case, Supervisor will want to keep the initial conferences as clear-cut and precise as possible. She will not want to burden Teacher at the outset with attempts of reaching solutions when the problem and the process of solving it are as yet unclear. Under conditions of perceived teacher hesitancy or uncertainty, Supervisor will start with a relatively simple problem statement of target pupil behavior and proceed to the next step in the Process.

Then again, Supervisor and Teacher may have been working together for some time. Teacher may be comfortable with Supervisor and may understand how the Instructional Supervision Process works. If these conditions prevail, they may wish to save time by attempting at an early stage to define possible affecting teacher behaviors which might be related to the area of concern.

If they decide to attempt to identify affecting teacher behaviors related to the area of concern, Supervisor should begin by asking Teacher to suggest some affecting teacher behaviors which might be pertinent. Suppose that Supervisor and Teacher agree that what Teacher really means by "not getting good student participation" is that the pupils give short, one- or two-word answers. Supervisor might ask Teacher, "What kinds of things might a teacher do to stimulate longer answers?" or "What kinds of things might a teacher already be doing that would cause short answers?" Depending on Teacher's experience, he might suggest none, one, or a number of possibilities. In this example he might say, "Maybe I don't reward long answers enough."

Once Teacher has begun a list of possible affecting behaviors by suggesting as many as he can, Supervisor may also feel free to add to
the list. Such suggestions must be advanced from the proper perspective, however. Supervisor is not offering solutions to the particular problem, instead, Supervisor is saying, "In my experience, I have seen your problem happen in a number of classes. In different classes it has been caused by different factors. In some cases, the teacher asks only low-order memory-type questions that call for short answers. In other cases, the teacher does not allow students enough 'think time' to formulate complex answers. Instead, he continues talking within a second or two of completing his question. Now, I don't know that is happening in your class—you know that much better than I—but you might want to add these ideas to your list of possible affecting teacher behaviors."

After the list of possible affecting behaviors has been formulated, Teacher is encouraged to select those which he feels are appropriate to his particular classroom. Those behaviors which Teacher selects are now added to the behavioral definition of the area of concern. The two parties are then ready to move to Step 2 of the Instructional Supervision Process. Note that, in arriving at a behavioral definition of the problem, Supervisor and Teacher work together as colleagues. Neither defines the problem alone. Instead, they use each other's competencies and knowledge in a cooperative manner. They both must judge and be satisfied with the definition of the target behaviors, although they employ different criteria in reaching their judgments. If they decide to define affecting teacher behaviors as well, both Supervisor and Teacher contribute to the effort. Supervisor contributes knowledge about his own class, his particular instructional
problem and himself which Supervisor could not know completely...
ANALYTICAL QUESTIONS

1. What are the students doing specifically?
2. How many students are doing it?
3. What should the students be doing instead?
4. How often should the students be doing this?
5. What are you (Teacher) doing that isn't desirable?
6. What should you (Teacher) be going instead?
7. How often should you (Teacher) be doing it?

FREEING RESPONSES

1. Clarifying questions: asking Teacher to repeat her statements, to give an example of what she means, or to define a term.
2. Paraphrasing: repeating Teacher's statement in your own words, using examples if necessary.
3. Perception checking: stating what you perceive Teacher's feelings to be and checking to see if you are correct.
4. Offering information: relevant to Teacher's concerns; stating factual information directly related to Teacher's concerns.
5. Active, attentive listening: using facial expressions, eye contact, and verbal responses such as "I see" to indicate you are listening.

BINDING RESPONSES

1. Changing the subject without explanation.
2. Explaining or interpreting Teacher's behavior.
3. Giving directions or emphatic agreement.
4. Leveling an expectation; e.g., statements such as "I know you won't let us down," or "I know I can depend on you."
5. Denying Teacher's feelings; e.g., statements such as "I don't see what there is to be upset about."
6. Giving commands or orders.
PARTICIPANTS WILL WORK ON A RELATED EXERCISE (57, 1978, p. 58).

GENERAL AREAS OF CONCERN WILL BE WRITTEN ON THE BOARD—PARTICIPANTS WILL BE ASKED TO DEFINE THE AFFECTING BEHAVIORS.

1. General Area of Concern:

A teacher states to you that she feels the problem in her class is a lack of student participation. What could be a behavioral definition of "student participation"?

Behavioral Definition:

A. Target Behavior

"Students participation" could be defined as ________________.

B. Affecting Behavior

According to my experience, any of the following teacher behaviors could be related to the problem:

1. ________________ 4. ________________
2. ________________ 5. ________________
3. ________________ 6. ________________

2. General Area of Concern:

A teacher feels that one of his students "isn't doing his work." How could you behaviorally define "isn't doing his work?" (Note: This is the first time you have worked with this teacher and he seems quite hesitant to confide his problems in you).

Behavioral Definition:

A. Target Behavior

"Isn't doing his work" could be defined as ________________.

B. Affecting Behavior

According to my experience, any of the following teacher behaviors could be related to the problem:

1. __________________________________________
2. __________________________________________
3. __________________________________________
4. __________________________________________
3. General Area of Concern:

A teacher states that she can't keep a discussion going. How could you behaviorally define "can't keep a discussion going?"

Behavioral Definition:

A. Target Behavior

"Can't keep a discussion going" could be defined as

B. Affecting Behavior

According to my experience any of the following teacher behaviors could be related to the problem:

1. ____________________ 4. ______________________
2. ____________________ 5. ______________________
3. _________________ 6. ________________
Participants will work on an exercise (57, 1978, pp. 61-62) Handout #17 in which they will role play with another participant working with a teacher to identify an area of concern. Before beginning they will listen to tapes made by their professional peers and will critique their techniques in working with the "teacher" to identify area of concern.

Participants will be divided into groups of two. The "teacher" will be given an area of concern and possible affecting behaviors. The responsibility of the "supervisor" will be to work with the "teacher" to identify the area of concern and the affecting behaviors.

The interaction of each group will be recorded (audio) and played back and critiqued before the entire group.

Handout # 16 previously given out during this session will be used as a tool during the discussion.
PROBLEM SET 1

Problem 1A

Statement: "The pupils just don't understand the materials we're covering in the math class."

Behavioral Definition: Less than half of the students scored a passing grade on the most recent test.

Possible Affecting Behaviors:

1. Number of practice problems given by Teacher.
2. Number of pupils correctly working practice problems.

Note: Supervisor could ask Teacher to analyze the test results for the number of pupils making the same mistakes and report this observation to the supervisor.

Problem 1B

Statement: "Pupils are late to my class."

Behavioral Definition: At least five different pupils in my fourth period class enter the room after the tardy bell rings.

Possible Affecting Behaviors:

Tell Supervisor that you cannot think of any possible affecting behavior. After completing the problem, point out to Supervisor that, given Teacher's inability to suggest any possible affecting behaviors and given, instead, his apparent lack of understanding of the connection between teacher and pupil behavior, it would have been perfectly appropriate and perhaps even desirable not to identify any affecting behaviors at this stage.

PROBLEM SET 2

Problem 2A

Statement: "The kids aren't responding well."

Behavioral Definition: Pupils do not volunteer answers to Teacher's questions.

Possible Affecting Behaviors:

1. Number of teacher questions.
2. Number of positive rewards.
An excellent method of beginning a pre-observation conference is to ask the teacher to have completed the following form on which he has answered the questions concerning the class to be visited by the supervisor. PARTICIPANTS WILL BE GIVEN HANDOUT #18. The form was adapted for use in the secondary schools by Marlin Nielson, Assistant Principal at Cannon Junior High in Las Vegas, Nevada.
PREOBSERVATION QUESTIONS FOR _______________________________

Teacher

Class Taught _________________________________Period ____

Please complete the following information and bring it with you to pre-evaluation conference.

1. Where are you in the course? (unit, lesson, page numbers in texts, etc.)

2. What teaching/learning activities will be observed?

3. What skills, attitudes, knowledge will be taught? (What are your students going to get out of it?)

4. How are you going to do it? (Methods)

5. Are there particular teaching behaviors that you especially want monitored?

6. How are you going to know if the students have learned? (Evaluate)

7. What special characteristics of the students should be noted?

8. Observer/Evaluator's notes:
SELF-EVALUATION FOR POST-OBSERVATION CONFERENCE

Did I do what I planned? If I did not teach as I planned, why didn't I?

Did I deviate appropriately from my original structure?

Can I explore other ways of approaching my class?

What have I learned about my class and how does it compare to others taught?

What can I do to change undesirable response patterns for both my students and my self?

What parts of the lesson went particularly well? With what parts was I dissatisfied?

How or what should I change to be more effective?
A list of questions that may be helpful to a supervisor planning an observational visit for which no definite area of concern has been predetermined is the one drawn up by Thomas H. Briggs. In this case, only a few closely related questions can be emphasized by the supervisor during the visit and the subsequent conference (210, 1973, pp. 86-88).

THE BRIGGS OBSERVATION GUIDE WILL BE DISTRIBUTED TO EACH PARTICIPANT AND ITS USES WILL BE DISCUSSED--HANDOUT #19.
1. What is the teacher's purpose? To what extent is it worthy? definite? specific with regard to this class? attainable?

2. To what extent did the pupils share in proposing this purpose? To what extent do they comprehend, approve, and adopt as their own the purpose proposed by the teacher?

3. How suitable for achieving the desired purposes is the plan of instruction which the teacher has prepared?

4. To what extent do the learning experiences proposed promise to help realize the desired purposes?

5. Is the preparation by the teacher adequate?

6. To what extent have pupils been psychologically prepared, by assignment and otherwise, to participate in this learning experience?

7. What study was expected of the pupils? What direction was given to make it effective? What apparently did the pupils actually do in preparation for this lesson? What better could they have done?

8. What is the atmosphere of the classroom and what is the morale of the pupils as evidenced by their attitude toward each other, toward the teacher, and toward the work they are doing?

9. Is the learning experience so organized as best to promote the purposes of instruction?

10. What concomitant learnings of wide educational importance does the teacher encourage and direct?

11. Are abundant and rich materials prepared by teacher or by pupils ready for use?

12. To what extent does the teacher, by recall of what has already been learned and by giving meaning to the new material by showing its relationship to a large significant problem, create a readiness in the pupils?

13. Are the pupils obtaining adequate guidance from the teacher in directing their own learning? Does each pupil know what to do?

14. To what extent is the presentation of the new material adequate and clarified by explanation, by obvious order, by illustrations, by relation to the pupils' past experiences, and by application to pupils' needs, immediate or recognized as probable in the future?
15. What provisions are made for individual differences in interest, probable needs, special aptitudes, and ability? Does the teacher distribute his efforts equitably among the pupils? Does he insure that every pupil is successful in something?

16. What is the amount and quality of participation by pupils? Do they demonstrate intelligent interest, the spirit of inquiry, openmindedness, initiative, enthusiastic persistence, the ability to judge their own work, and satisfaction with nothing less than mastery in terms of the accepted purpose of the unit?

17. What are the teacher's responses to the proposals and activities of the pupils? Is he receptive, considerate, fair, tactful, and able to give them fruitful direction?

18. To what extent are pupils being trained to work both independently as individuals and cooperatively with others?

19. How ready is the teacher to modify his plan so as to seize opportunities as they appear and how resourceful is he to make the new plan effective?

20. What provisions are made to insure adequate understanding and retention of what is learned, in terms of individual needs?

21. What provisions are made to insure the ability to apply or use what is learned? to strengthen good habits of use in a new situation?

22. If tests are used, are they valid in terms of the purposes sought, significant to the pupils, and reliable in form? What is indicated for further teaching by the results?

23. What attempts are made to provide remedial instruction for those who need it?

24. What provision is made to incorporate the new learning into larger and more meaningful units?

25. To what extent is the teacher successful in revealing opportunities and direction for further growth on the part of pupils?

26. Wherein are pupils better for the learning experiences that they have just had?

27. What is outstanding in promise in the work of the teacher observed?

28. What immediate and what ultimate help does he need to strengthen his weaknesses so that his strengths may be increasingly effective?

29. How is the unit of study contributory to the general purposes of education and to the special functions of the particular school?
Madeline Hunter has developed descriptions of six different instructional conferences which can be used at this point to identify areas of concern after an initial observation. The supervisor, based on his knowledge of the teacher’s readiness for growth, will select the type of conference to be held.

PARTICIPANTS WILL BE GIVEN A COPY OF MADELINE HUNTER’S DESCRIPTION OF THE SIX TYPES OF SUPERVISORY CONFERENCES (248, 1980, pp. 4-10) HANDOUT #20. EACH OF THESE TYPES OF CONFERENCES WILL BE DISCUSSED.
TYPE A INSTRUCTIONAL CONFERENCE

Purpose: To identify, label, and explain the teacher's effective instructional behaviors giving research-based reasons for their effectiveness so the teacher knows what he's done, why it worked, and in the future, does it on purpose.

Objective: At the end of the conference (not in some nebulous future) the teacher will identify teaching decisions and behaviors that promoted learning and state why they were effective.

To achieve this objective, the observer focuses only on those aspects of instruction that were effective and brings those decisions and behaviors to the conscious awareness of the teacher who then has an opportunity to learn reasons for their effectiveness.

Example: "Your moving over and standing by John's desk when he wasn't listening was an excellent technique. Everyone is more obedient when the authority figure is close. That's what happens to all of us when we see the police car in the rear-view mirror. Then, your using John's name in an example about his being a good ball player not only built his self-concept and caused him to listen, but paired his interest in athletics with your lesson on sentence patterns to his positive feelings about athletics could 'rub off' on grammar. You used three excellent instructional techniques. Physical closeness, use of the student's name in a meaningful example, and pairing the student's interest with academic content."

In a Type A Conference, the teacher has the opportunity not only to change intuitive behavior to purposeful instructional as a result of learning why it worked, but in the future, to make more deliberate
professional decisions and to value competent supervision.

For a first conference, or with apprehensive or defensive teachers, Type A objectives may be the sole outcome of a productive instructional conference. Effective behaviors are brought to a conscious level and, as a result of knowing why they were effective, the teacher can use them deliberately and appropriately in the future. Also, because the conference message is positive, a teacher will more productively engage in subsequent conferences.

TYPE B INSTRUCTIONAL CONFERENCE

Purpose: To stimulate the development of a repertoire of effective teaching responses so the teacher is not limited to those most frequently used.

Objective: Teacher and observer will generate alternatives to behaviors which were effective in the observed lesson in case they should be less effective in a different situation.

All of us tend to become habitual in our responses and, as a result, we may close off the development of new responses from which we can deliberately select the one which, in our judgment, holds the greatest promise in a specific situation. Teachers can become "set" in their patterns of presentation, discipline, homework, or practice thereby reducing flexibility in their teaching. Type B Conferences are designed to break this encapsulation and create new options.

Example: "Standing by Bill's desk and using his name in a complimentary example was very effective. With most students that will work. What might you do if it didn't?"

In a Type B Conference, teachers are encouraged to generate
alternatives which fit their particular style. The observer also is obligated to suggest additional strategies so teachers have the opportunity to develop alternatives which they may not have known about or considered.

Note that Type A and B conferences focus only on effective teaching: something singularly neglected in most conferences. Professional growth results from the teacher knowing what made an action effective and from considering other potentially effective techniques.

**TYPE C INSTRUCTIONAL CONFERENCE**

**Purpose:** To encourage teachers to identify those parts of a teaching episode with which they were not satisfied so that, in collaboration with the observer, strategies for reducing or eliminating future unsatisfactory outcomes will be developed.

**Objective:** The teacher will identify solutions with potential for changing unsatisfying aspects of the lesson.

**Example:** Teacher: "I assumed the students would have remembered the material. I was disappointed to see how much of it they had forgotten."

While the teacher is given the first opportunity to suggest solutions, it is the obligation of the observer to also pose possible solutions (or to acknowledge that he can't think of any). Instructional conferencing is not a spectator sport.

Example: "Sometimes a quick check to see if students remember the process needed will not only help them recall it, but will alert you if they don't. You might do one example together on the chalk-
board. That can serve as a warm-up and a reminder before you move on to new material. If they've forgotten, you can reteach right then when it's needed."

Note that in Type A, B, and C Conferences not one single negative or critical note has been introduced by the observer, yet each conference has tremendous potential for teacher growth in instructional effectiveness.

**TYPE D INSTRUCTIONAL CONFERENCE**

**Purpose:** To identify and label those less effective aspects of teaching which were not evident to the teacher, and to develop alternative procedures which have potential for effectiveness.

**Objective:** The teacher will select from alternatives generated, those teaching behaviors he might substitute for behaviors, perceived by the observer (and hopefully by the teacher), as not so effective.

It is important to note that identification of "what went wrong" is the most commonly perceived objective of an instructional conference, yet it is only one of five possibilities for conferences that promote teacher growth and is the only one that has potential for injecting a negative note in supervisory communication.

Type D Conferences, however, need not be negative. It is a positive experience to have perplexing instructional situations become understandable through interpretation by an observer. The author had the experience, of having an incomprehensible (to her) lack of teaching success explained by an observer to be the result of an inadvertent teaching miscue at a critical point in the lesson. Finding out what
caused the trouble was the only information necessary to eliminate it. In a Type D Conference, the observer has major, and sometimes sole responsibility for identifying cause-effect relationships between teaching and student responses, and for generating alternative teaching decisions and behaviors which might be more productive.

In conducting a Type D Conference, it is critical that the observer discipline himself to generate ways the teacher, with that teacher's particular skills and style, might teach the lesson, not how the observer would have taught it. Type D Conferences can be conducted only by an observer who knows learning principles, knows how to analyze the process of teaching, and who has been trained to bridge the gap between theory and practice. Again, we should emphasize that these skills can be learned by most educators who are willing to put forth the time (approximately 60 hours) and the effort. Rarely should a teacher experience only a D Conference, yet when Type A, B, and C Conferences produce little or no instructional improvement, it is a Type D Conference that communicates the final data which confirm teaching performance as unsatisfactory, analytic data yielded by sophisticated observation, which will, if necessary, hold up in court.

TYPE E INSTRUCTIONAL CONFERENCE

**Purpose:** To promote continuing growth of excellent teachers.

**Objective:** The teacher will select next steps in expanding his own professional growth.

We have learned to challenge gifted students to encourage continuing growth, but often our gifted teachers are left to provide their own stimulation or to become bored and atrophy. Countless principals
have remarked, "I don't have to worry about _________. He's an excellent teacher." By not contributing to such teacher's continuing growth, supervision is neglecting education's most powerful resource. A Type E (for excellent!) Conference is designed to promote growth beyond that which the teacher alone can generate.

**Examples:** "That was a superb lesson. Would you be willing to put a similar lesson video tape so we can use to help new teachers?"

"Your ability to draw out shy students is remarkable. Will you go over your lesson with me to help me understand the cues that tell you when to push students and when to back off?"

"You have the skills to pilot this new program so we can identify strengths and weaknesses before we consider its adoption for the whole school."

"Your skills are such that others should be learning from you. Would you be willing to take a student teacher? You will grow from explaining why you do what you do and the student teacher will have the advantage of not only learning about effective teaching but seeing it modeled daily."

The reader may be raising the question, "Isn't teaching excellence enough? Why should we be asking for more?" The question is the same as, "Why don't we just let the gifted learner do an excellent job at grade level? Why do we stretch thinking and performance?" The answer to both questions is: Growth is invigorating and self-actualizing. We do students and teachers a disservice when we do not permit, encourage and demand their growth.

Sometimes it is difficult to identify "next steps" for the out-
standing teacher, but acknowledging that a teacher is ready for and needs a new challenge will encourage both of you to think of productive possibilities.

For the gifted teacher who has just achieved a new competence and has earned a respite, a Type A Conference, with the teacher assuming the responsibility for identifying effective teaching actions and labeling the cues which indicated they might be effective, has the growth evoking potential of bringing internalized and automated professional behavior to a conscious level for sophisticated analysis.

The objectives of the five types of instructional conferences are not mutually exclusive and observer and teacher are encouraged to "mix and match". Four conferences are totally positive and the fifth (Type D) has the potential for being either positive or negative depending on the conferencing skills of the observer. No conference can be predictably successful unless the observer possesses the professional skills of analyzing instruction in terms of cause-effect relationships and generating solutions to instructional problems. Beyond analytic skill, there exists communication skills which are teaching skills that achieve the objective of an instructional conference. No instructional conference will be successful unless the observer utilizes and models those cause-effect teaching and learning relationships which promote both teachers' and students' achievement.

An evaluative conference should be the summation of what has occurred in and resulted from a series of instructional conferences. Information given and conclusions reached in an evaluative conference should come as no surprise to the teacher because the supporting
evidence has been discussed in previous instructional conferences. As a result, the evaluative conference has high probability for being perceived as fair, just, and supportable by objective evidence rather than based on subjective opinion. This conference is the culmination to a year's diagnostic, prescriptive, collaborative work with a teacher and supervisor who shared responsibility for the teacher's continuous professional growth.

This growth will occur more rapidly and predictably if the teacher's effort and growth is rewarded, and any professional gaps or deficiencies are interpreted in perspective rather than negatively high-lighted because a teacher doesn't immediately become the perfect model of the ideal educator. When administrators and supervisors work with teachers as teachers are expected to work with students, supervision will become a more highly skilled and respected function in our profession.
PRE-OBSERVATION CONFERENCE—ESTABLISHING THE BASE RATE OR CRITERION

PARTICIPANTS WILL BE ASKED TO READ A SELECTION ON ESTABLISHING A BASE RATE OR CRITERION (52, 1978, pp. 68-70) HANDOUT #21. THE FOLLOWING DISCUSSION QUESTIONS WILL BE USED AS A MEANS OF REVIEW:

1. What is a base rate?

   FREQUENCY OF OCCURRENCE OF PERTINENT BEHAVIORS WHEN THE WORK WITH THE TEACHER BEGINS.

2. Why is it important to establish a base rate as the work begins?

   TO GIVE THE SUPERVISOR AND TEACHER A STARTING POINT.
   TO GIVE SPECIFIC DATA SO THAT SUPERVISOR AND TEACHER WILL HAVE COMMON GROUND TO DISCUSS WHAT IS HAPPENING NOW AND TO ESTABLISH A CRITERION FOR FUTURE OBSERVATIONS.
   WHEN CRITERION FOR FUTURE OBSERVATIONS IS MET, THAT TARGET MAY BE DROPPED.

3. When would the supervisor and the teacher set a performance standard for the goal that the teacher is trying to achieve—the criterion which is behaviorally-defined standard?

   AFTER BASE RATE HAS BEEN ESTABLISHED.

4. What types of targets can be set by the supervisor and the teacher?

   TARGET PUPIL BEHAVIOR
   AFFECTING TEACHER BEHAVIORS

5. Explain the differences between the 3 types of criteria which can be set.

   ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY CRITERIA: DEFINITE NUMBER OF OCCURRENCES FOR THE TARGET BEHAVIOR—12 STUDENTS WILL VOLUNTEER DURING THE PERIOD.
   RELATIVE FREQUENCY CRITERIA: LIMIT OR A PERCENTAGE RATHER THAN
DEFINITE NUMBER—ALL, EACH, AT LEAST ONE-HALF.

PATTERN CRITERION: ESTABLISHES A DESIRED PATTERN OF OCCURRENCES—QUESTION, CALL ON VOLUNTEER, CALL ON NONVOLUNTEER.

6. What types of guidelines should be used when establishing criteria?

DOES THE TEACHER FEEL CAPABLE OF REACHING THE GOAL?

IS THERE ENOUGH TIME?

IS IT A REALISTIC GOAL?
ESTABLISHING A BASE RATE OR SETTING A CRITERION

As you read these materials, attempt to answer the following questions:
What is Step 2 of the Instructional Supervision Process? What is the purpose of a base rate? What is the purpose of setting a criterion?

A BASE RATE: NECESSARY FOR THE FIRST OBSERVATION

After behaviorally defining the area of concern, you will find it necessary to obtain a record of the present frequency of occurrence of pertinent behaviors. This is called a base rate. There are three important reasons for obtaining a base rate.

1. Before the first observation period you will have no accurate knowledge of the occurrence of the target behaviors or of any related affecting behaviors which you may feel are relevant to Teacher's problem. Therefore, you observe and record the number of times these specific target and affecting behaviors are presently occurring.

2. A base rate yields specific data for Supervisor to use rather than just a "feeling" about an area of concern. These data provide Supervisor and Teacher a common starting point from which to work in addressing Teacher's concern. For example, a base rate for the amount of time that a teacher talks might establish that he talked during 65 percent of a 20-minute discussion period. This information would then allow you to establish a criterion for future observations. For instance, you and Teacher might agree that this percentage level (65 percent of a 20-minute period) indicated that Teacher talks too much. You might then agree to set a criterion that "Teacher will talk no more than 35 percent of the time" as a performance goal. You would have had no basis
for setting this goal if the base rate had not been obtained first.

3. There are times, after you have decided with Teacher to obtain a base rate, when you may decide to set a level of performance which Teacher would like to achieve. If Teacher meets the criterion, you can drop that particular matter. If the criterion is not met, you and Teacher should discuss the matter further and agree upon a criterion for future performance.

Identifying a criterion after obtaining a base rate. After you have obtained a base rate and gathered specific data on the frequency of the observed behavior, a performance standard can be established for the goal that Teacher is trying to achieve. When such a standard is stated in behavioral terms, then whether or not Teacher has successfully achieved the goal can be determined. This behaviorally-defined standard is called a criterion and sets the level of performance desired for a behavior. Since the occurrence of the behaviors can be measured, the level of performance can be evaluated by such criteria.

Criteria may be set for goals of both target pupil behavior and for affecting teacher behavior. For example, the target behavior could be "Seventy-five percent of all student responses will be two sentences or more in length." Affecting behavior, then, could be "For every volunteered answer offered by a pupil, the teacher will call upon two pupils who did not volunteer to answer a question." Note that, for each of the above criteria, the behaviors are specific and easily measurable. Thus, Supervisor can readily determine if such criteria have been met.
Types of criteria. A criterion may be set in several ways, depending upon the type selected for use. Three of the most useful types of criteria are described below.

1. Absolute frequency criterion: indicates a definite number of occurrences for the specified behavior. Example: "In this lesson, successful performance will consist of using 12 nonverbal rewards in 30 minutes."

2. Relative frequency criterion: establishes a limit or a percentage, rather than a specific number of occurrences. This type is appropriate where there can be no guarantee that the specified behaviors will occur a certain number of times during the observation, a condition especially applicable to student behavior. Example of percentage: "The student will stay on task 80 percent of the time."
Examples of limit: (1) "All notes sent home with the youngster will reach the hand of a parent." (2) "Each answer by a girl will be positively rewarded." (3) "At least one-half of the student responses will be from nonvolunteers."

3. Pattern criterion: specifies a desired pattern of occurrence for the behaviors in question. Example: "Successful performance will consist of the following sequential pattern: (1) asking a question, (2) calling upon a volunteer, and then (3) calling upon a nonvolunteer. No more than one volunteer should be called upon outside of this pattern."

Guidelines to establish a criterion. The following are guideline questions to help you and Teacher establish a criterion for the performance of desired teaching behaviors.
1. Does Teacher feel capable of performing the behaviors required to meet the proposed goal?

2. What are the limitations within which Teacher must work to achieve the goal? For example: How difficult will it be for Teacher to achieve the goal? Is enough time allowed? Has appropriate training been provided to enable Teacher to reach the goal? Both you and Teacher should consider these questions seriously in order to avoid setting unrealistic and inappropriate goals that Teacher cannot be expected to achieve.

To illustrate this point, suppose that Teacher wants to elicit more complete answers from pupils (the target behaviors). One useful technique might be to ask more probing questions (the affecting behaviors). Probing questions are asked when a student gives a very weak response or an "I don't know" response. The probing begins with the weak response and leads into a series of questions or hints that guides the student toward a more complete answer. But what if Teacher does not know what a probing question is and has not been given enough training or time to practice this technique? In such a case, Supervisor can hardly expect Teacher to meet a criterion of asking at least two probing questions for every "I don't know" response received from any pupil.

Participants will be asked to read a selection (57, 1978, pp. 71-72) handout #22 on establishing goals with teachers. To reinforce the material found in the reading an exercise will completed. Participants will divide into groups of two and will be given a copy of 9 situations (57, 1978, pp. 75-76) handout #23. They will be asked to roleplay the
SITUATIONS AND TO DO THE FOLLOWING:

1. OBTAIN BASE RATE OR ESTABLISH CRITERION OF PERFORMANCE
2. IF A CRITERION IS APPROPRIATE, FORMULATE ONE AND LABEL IT AS ABSOLUTE FREQUENCY, RELATIVE FREQUENCY, OR PATTERN
3. STATE WHETHER AN INTERMEDIATE OR TERMINAL GOAL IS APPROPRIATE AND WHY
SETTING A CRITERION AS AN INTERMEDIATE AND/OR A TERMINAL GOAL

Once you decide to set a criterion, you need to determine if that criterion is to be set in terms of a terminal and/or an intermediate goal. A terminal goal is the criterion for the desired final level of performance to be achieved. When the behavioral criterion for this goal is reached, the terminal goal has been achieved and it should no longer be necessary to deal with those behaviors.

In reality, a terminal goal and a criterion are identical in form. The criterion, according to its appropriateness as determined by Teacher and Supervisor, is illustrated in the following examples of terminal goals.

1. Teacher will ask 60 percent higher-order questions in a 50-minute lesson.
2. Teacher will ask 75 percent higher-order questions in a 50-minute lesson.

Note that in both examples of terminal goals, the criterion (level of performance) varies only because it was designated as the desirable goal by Supervisor and Teacher.

Intermediate goals lead to the achievement of the terminal goal. When a terminal goal is established, Supervisor and Teacher must determine if this goal can be achieved at the next observation period. There may be several reasons why it would not be possible to do so. For instance, Teacher may need several opportunities to practice certain behaviors, or he may not even have the prerequisite knowledge or training needed to perform the behaviors. Therefore, when a terminal
goal is determined as being too difficult to achieve in one performance, one or more intermediate goals should be set.

There can also be instances when Supervisor and Teacher would be unwilling to establish a terminal goal. In such cases, a series of intermediate goals should be set that gradually increases the level of performance to a point that is considered satisfactory.

You will be concerned with two types of intermediate goals:

1. A subset of behaviors which facilitates accomplishment of the terminal goal. This type is usually used when Teacher has no prior knowledge of the specified behaviors. Example of terminal goal: Teacher will demonstrate that he can distinguish between higher-order and lower-order questions by stating the correct definition of the terms and giving three examples of each.

2. Achievement of a lower level of performance of the same behaviors expected for the terminal goal. Example of terminal goal: Teacher will ask at least two probing questions following each "I don't know" type of student response. Example of intermediate goal: Teacher will ask at least one probing question following each "I don't know" type of student response.

To summarize, when a terminal goal is not within Teacher's capabilities, then it should be divided into one or more intermediate goals, each having its own criterion for successful achievement. This means that the Instructional Supervisor needs to identify behaviors that will help Teacher to reach the final desired performance. Determining these behaviors and establishing criteria for their successful accomplishment reduces the difficulty of achieving a stated
terminal goal. Teacher will also enjoy a feeling of success as he makes progress towards the final goal. Both of these factors increase the likelihood that Teacher will succeed.

At some time during the preobservation Conference, Supervisor should discuss with Teacher:

1. the purpose for taking a base rate (this need be done only once),
2. whether in fact Supervisor will take a base rate or establish a criterion, and
3. whether the criterion to be achieved at the next observation is set in terms of an intermediate or terminal goal.

Supervisor and Teacher should be in agreement about the criterion which is established.
1. Situation: Teacher found that only factual questions had previously been asked of the pupils. During the next discussion period, questions will be constructed so that comprehension, analysis, and evaluation thought processes can be demonstrated by the pupils.

2. Situation: Teacher thinks that there are too many pupil interruptions during class presentations.

3. Situation: Teacher observed that every time a pupil answered a question, Teacher repeated the answer. Teacher feels that this is an undesirable habit and wants to eliminate it.

4. Situation: Teacher is interested in finding out what modes of talking pupils use during a typical science lesson (e.g., asking questions, self-initiated information giving, volunteering answers, etc.).

5. Situation: Five students in the back of the room never volunteer to answer any questions and Teacher never calls on them. Teacher decides that they should be included in the discussions.

6. Situation: Teacher found that he used only nonverbal positive rewards. Teacher has decided to strengthen reinforcement techniques through the use of positive verbal rewards.

7. Situation: Teacher would like information about the social-emotional climate of the classroom.

8. Situation: The students participated in the last discussion lesson only 30 percent of the time. Teacher wants to see if asking the pupils for information, opinions, and suggestions during the next lesson will lead to increase in pupil participation.

9. Situation: Teacher would like to know which pupils are actively involved in recalling fact, making observations, and seeing relationships.
PRE-OBSERVATION CONFERENCE

SELECTING OR CONSTRUCTING AN OBSERVATION INSTRUMENT

PARTICIPANTS WILL BE ASKED TO READ MATERIAL ON CREATING AN OBSERVATION INSTRUMENT (57, 1978, taken from pp. 80-90) HANDOUT #24. THE FOLLOWING DISCUSSION QUESTIONS WILL BE USED TO INSURE THAT THEY UNDERSTAND THE MATERIAL:

1. What is systematic observation?
   RECORDING OBJECTIVELY WHAT IS HAPPENING IN THE CLASSROOM

2. How is this data used with teachers?
   ONLY WHEN TEACHER SEES THE NEED FOR CHANGE WILL HE CHANGE. THE PARTICIPANTS WILL GO THROUGH STEPS BEFORE SETTING TARGET FOR AREA OF CONCERN.

3. In designing or selecting an instrument to be used in observation, when would a category system be selected?
   WHEN ALL POSSIBLE BEHAVIORS OF A TYPE ARE TO BE OBSERVED

4. What is the difference between a sign system and a category system?
   CATEGORY—INCLUSIVE OF ALL BEHAVIORS OF TYPE UNDER OBSERVATION
   SIGN—SPECIFIC BEHAVIORS ARE MONITORED, INDICATION IS MADE ON THE INSTRUMENT ONLY WHEN THE SPECIFIC BEHAVIORS OCCUR

5. What is the difference between high and low inference measures?
   HIGH INFRINGEMENT—REFERS OBSERVER TO INFERR CONDITIONS OR MOTIVES
   LOW INFRINGEMENT—FOCUSSES ON SPECIFIC, RELATIVELY OBJECTIVE BEHAVIORS

6. What is the difference between time-dependent and event-dependent systems?
   TIME—REQUIRES OBSERVER TO RECORD INFORMATION AT GIVEN INTERVALS
   OR REQUIRES OBSERVER TO RECORD HOW LONG SPECIFIC STUDENTS
Were on task or how much time a teacher spent with individual students.

Event dependent—requires observer to record event when it happens.

7. What is the difference between a frequency count and a sequential record?

Frequency count—record of total number of times a behavior has occurred during a given period.

Sequential record—behaviors are recorded in the order they occur.
SELECTING OR CONSTRUCTING AN OBSERVATION INSTRUMENT

As a first step in constructing an observation instrument, Supervisor must decide what behaviors are to be recorded. First, and most obviously, it is important to record the occurrence of behaviors which are the targets of change: pupil behaviors. These target behaviors will have been initially identified when Supervisor and Teacher first arrived at a behavioral definition of the area of concern (Step 1). Examples of target behaviors could be such things as a pupil's inability to continue at a given task for at least 15 minutes, or overall test results for the class. Second, in addition to recording the occurrence of target pupil behavior, you may wish to record the occurrence of the affecting teacher behavior which Supervisor thinks may be related to the target behavior; e.g., reinforcement patterns used by the teacher or the types of practice given to the class before the test.

Whether Supervisor decides to observe target behaviors alone or to include possible affecting behaviors, Supervisor will ordinarily use one of two types of observation instruments.

CATEGORY SYSTEM. With this type of instrument a set of categories is created which, taken together, comprises all possible behaviors of the type to be observed. Each behavior of the type under observation falls into one and only one of the categories. If, for instance, the type of behavior being observed is a teacher's question-addressing techniques, the set can include two categories of the behavior: (1) questions addressed to individual pupils and (2) questions addressed to the
entire class. In this case, each time the teacher asks a question, the addressing behavior must fall into one of these two categories. The observer makes a mark beside that category and then waits for the next occurrence of the behavior type.

Another example of a category system might focus on "pupil verbal behavior." This type of behavior could be divided into four categories: (1) replies to another's question when asked to do so; (2) volunteers a response to another's question; (3) self-initiates information giving; and (4) asks question. In this example, each time a pupil verbal behavior occurs, the observer decides which of the four categories the observed behavior represents and makes a notation accordingly...

To be workable and useful, category systems must meet the following two criteria:

1. The categories must include all kinds of behavior within the behavior type. That is, a behavior which is of the type being observed but which does not fall into any of the existing categories must not occur. If, for example, the behavior type is "Teacher Position in the Room" and the observation system included the categories "Front", "Left Side", "Right Side" and "Rear", there might be a time when a behavior belonging to that type but not to one of the four categories occurs. For example, the teacher could be at the center of the room, sitting at a pupil's seat, or walking about. Because of the totally inclusive requirement, many observers include the category "Other" at the end of their system. This allows behaviors which are of the behavior type but which do not fall into any of the other categories to be recorded. While such a residual category serves as a useful
safety valve, its frequent use indicates the need for revising the category system.

2. The categories in a system must be mutually exclusive. That is, when a behavior of the type being observed occurs, it must fall into one and only one category. If two categories in a particular system are "Teacher Asks Question" and "Teacher Makes Disciplinary Statement" it would be hard to classify the behavior of a teacher who asks "What do you two think you are doing?" Such a behavior might fall into both categories.

SIGN SYSTEM. With a sign type of observation instrument, a list of specific behaviors which may or may not occur during an observation period is used. The observer makes a notation on the instrument only when a particular behavior occurs. Examples of items in a sign system might be "pupil interrupts another pupil during discussion" or "pupils ask teacher for help."

While the category system should meet as closely as possible the criterion of total inclusion of all behaviors of the type under observation, the sign system need not do so. The observer may only be interested in recording the occurrence of a particular behavior such as "pupil raises hand," but may not wish to note other behaviors such as "pupil opens book" or "pupil writes on paper" which belong in the behavior type "pupil physical movements." The sign system also allows the observer to focus on specific behaviors which are of primary interest but which may or may not occur. The observer is not required to guess prior to his observation what behaviors might occur. He simply lists those which he wishes to count if they occur and does not concern
himself with other behaviors.

A good sign system should possess three characteristics: Present tense, positive occurrence, and singular number. Consider an item which might read "pupils did not participate in the class." First, it is in the past tense and could, therefore, be coded only after class. Second, it is a negative occurrence—"did not participate"—and therefore calls for the coding of a nonbehavior. Third, the item refers to an unspecified number of pupils. How many pupils would not not participate before the observer would conclude that "pupils did not participate?" The item would be preferably written as "pupil participates in class." The item now starts in the present tense, indicates the positive occurrence of a behavior and refers to a single individual.

High Inference and Low Inference Measures

As Supervisor constructs either a category or a sign observation system, he must also consider the specificity of the behaviors he records. Some observation systems call for the observer to record unspecific and indefinite occurrences such as "teacher exhibits warmth" or "pupils are enthusiastic." An observer cannot see if pupils are enthusiastic. He can only infer the presence of enthusiasm by noting that pupils smile, raise hands, or wiggle. Observation systems that require the observer to infer conditions or motives are called high-inference systems. Such systems lack specificity because the observer cannot be absolutely sure that a teacher is "warm" or that the pupils are "enthusiastic." Two observers may disagree about how "warm" a teacher is. Additionally, the observer must infer the frequency of
such behaviors to determine whether they have occurred "consistently," "sometimes," or "never". These types of data are of little help in describing the reality of a classroom situation because they are ambiguous by nature.

Other observation systems make use of only or primarily low-inference measures which focus on specific, relatively objective behaviors. Examples are: "number of volunteer answers given," and "number of higher-order questions asked." In addition, these low-inference behaviors can be recorded as frequency counts.

For these reasons, when we speak of an "observation instrument" we refer to a system which employs low-inference behaviors that lend themselves to tabulation and counting. As you construct observation instruments, attempt to include only categories or types of behavior of the low-inference type.

Time-dependent and Event-dependent System

Many observation systems are time-dependent. A category system might require the observer to record the category of behavior every five seconds. A sign system might require the observer to measure and record the amount of time covered by the behaviors of interest.

An example of a time-dependent category system might contain the following categories: (1) pupil is on task and (2) pupil is off task, and might require the observer to record a 1 or a 2 each 20 seconds, indicating whether the pupil was on or off task at that time. Results of such an observation might be

1, 1, 1, 2, 2, 1, 1, 1, 2, 2, 2, 2, 2, 1, 1, 2, 2, 1, 1, 2, 2, 1, 1, 2, 2, 2, 2,
and would show both how much time the pupil was on task in the six-minute period and when pupil was on task and off.

An example of a time-dependent sign system might focus on the amount of time a teacher gives individual attention to pupils during an individual activity period. This system would require the observer to measure with a stop watch the amount of time the teacher talked with individual students during a 20-minute work period.

Other observation systems are event-dependent. They require the observer to record each occurrence of a behavioral event with no consideration to how long the event lasted or when it occurred. For example, each time the teacher turns his back on his pupils, the observer might make a tally mark in the column "turns back on class."

These two observation types are not mutually exclusive. Many observation systems use features of both. The observer may record behaviors when they occur, and also record something about the time during which they occurred. For example, an observation system might record the frequency of raised hands during the first ten minutes, during the second ten minutes, during the third ten minutes, etc.

Frequency Count or Sequential Record

Observational systems may also provide either a record of the sequence of behaviors being observed or a record of the frequency of the occurrence of the behavior. A frequency count is a record of the total number of times a behavior has occurred during a given period. After observing with an instrument which records frequency counts, you could say, "The teacher smiled at her pupils 12 times and frowned at them six times during this ten-minute lesson."
To obtain a sequential record, you must record behaviors in a way which allows you to see the order in which the behaviors occurred. A sequential record of events yields a great deal more information than does a frequency count, but sequential records are usually more difficult to obtain. The following examples illustrate both types of observation.

Suppose that you created a sign system which called for you to record Teacher smiles and frowns. You decide to code smiles by "S" and frowns by "F". You now have a very simple notational system. Your frequency count format might look like this:

```
S ++++ ++++ //
F ++++ /
```

From this record, you could conclude that the teacher smiled twice as often as she frowned (within a specified time period).

A sequential record of the same teaching session might look like this:

```
SSFSSFSSFSSFSSFSSF
```

This record would indicate that the smiles and frowns were dispersed throughout the lesson, and that there was a recurrent pattern: the teacher smiling twice, then frowning once.

On the other hand, the sequential record might have looked quite different:

```
SSSSSSSSFSSFSFFFF
```

This record would show that the teacher smiled consistently in the early part of the lesson, began to frown later on, and ended the lesson with four consecutive frowns.
Both of the above hypothetical sequential records tell us as much about the number of occurrences of the behaviors in question as does the hypothetical frequency count. All three indicate a total of twelve smiles and six frowns. The important point is that either of the two sequential records gives a great deal of additional information.

The patterns that emerge from the two sequential records may indicate two very different teaching behaviors. Alone, the frequency count may suggest that a teaching problem exists; however, it would not be very helpful in precisely describing the nature of the problem in the hypothetical examples above.

Note that the issues of time-dependent versus event-dependent observations and frequency versus sequence-counts are not at all the same. It is possible to record frequency counts with either a time-dependent or an event-dependent observation system, and the same is true of sequential records....
PARTICIPANTS WILL BE GIVEN AN OPPORTUNITY TO WATCH A NUMBER OF VIDEO TAPES OF LESSONS TAUGHT IN ACTUAL CLASSROOM SETTINGS. AFTER WATCHING APPROXIMATELY FIVE MINUTES OF A LESSON, THEY WILL BE TOLD THE TEACHER'S AREA OF CONCERN AND WILL BE ASKED TO DESIGN AN INSTRUMENT TO COLLECT RELATIVE DATA. THEY WILL THEN WATCH THE REST OF THE LESSON, USING THE INSTRUMENTS THEY HAVE DESIGNED TO COLLECT THE DATA. EACH PARTICIPANT WILL HAVE AN OPPORTUNITY TO SHARE WITH THE OTHERS HIS INSTRUMENT AND HIS THOUGHTS ON HOW EFFECTIVE HE FOUND IT TO BE. THE OTHERS IN THE GROUP WILL BE ASKED TO REACT TO EACH PRESENTATION.

ANALYSIS OF OBSERVATIONAL DATA

As the supervisor begins to analyze the data that has been collected, there are four procedures that he must consider (57, 1978, p. 122):

****BOARD****

1. FORMING A DATA DISPLAY (RAW DATA AND SUMMARIZING RAW DATA)
2. IDENTIFYING PATTERNS OF BEHAVIOR
3. MAKING COMPARISONS BETWEEN DIFFERENT OBSERVATIONS
4. DETERMINING WHETHER A CRITERION HAS BEEN MET

PARTICIPANTS WILL BE GIVEN SOME DATA (57, 1978, p. 128) HANDOUT #25. THEY WILL BE ASKED TO ANALYZE IT. THEIR CONCLUSIONS WILL BE DISCUSSED.
### LEGEND:

- **TEACHER QUESTIONS**
  - K = KNOWLEDGE QUESTIONS
  - C = COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS
  - A = ANALYSIS QUESTIONS
  - S = SYNTHESIS QUESTIONS

- **STUDENT ANSWERS**
  - V = VOLUNTEER
  - NV = NONVOLUNTEER

- **TEACHER RESPONSE**
  - + = POSITIVE REWARD
  - - = NEGATIVE REWARD

### DATA

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<tr>
<th>TEACHER QUESTIONS</th>
<th>STUDENT ANSWERS</th>
<th>TEACHER RESPONSE</th>
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Hopefully the supervisor and the teacher established criteria before the observation began. As the data is being analyzed, the supervisor must determine if the criterion was met. He must also be concerned with whether or not the achievement of the criterion interfered with the teacher's reaching the objectives which he set. If the criterion was not met, the supervisor must ask himself the following questions as he analyzes the data (57, 1978, p. 130):

a. Were the behavioral categories you chose to observe really adequate to reflect your purpose in making the observations? For instance, did your behavioral categories adequately sample or reflect the teaching skill you were trying to measure?

b. Were the behavioral categories you observed incompatible with the lesson, the teacher, his pupils, or his classroom situation?

c. Was the criterion appropriate for this teacher, these pupils, and this situation?

d. Were your observation instrument and techniques appropriate?

e. Did you assume some pre-existing conditions that really weren't present? For example, did the teacher fail to meet a criterion on the number of correctly answered higher-order questions because both of you had assumed that the pupils knew some background information which they didn't know?

f. If you have ruled out the factors above as primary reasons for failure to meet a criterion, then Teacher has failed to perform at the desired level. Now the problem is to change his teaching behavior so that the agreed-upon criterion can be met.
THE PARTICIPANTS WILL BE ASKED TO ANALYZE THE DATA THEY COLLECTED AS THEY VIEWED THE VIDEO TAPES. THEY WILL BE ASKED TO:

SUMMARIZE THE RAW DATA
IDENTIFY PATTERNS OF BEHAVIOR
DRAW CONCLUSIONS

As the supervisor begins to draw conclusions from the summarized data, he might find the "Determining Congruence and Compatibility" form from the University of Houston's ERA Project (1974, p. 79) helpful HANDOUT #26. A COPY OF THIS FORM WILL BE GIVEN TO EACH PARTICIPANT AND ITS USES WILL BE DISCUSSED.
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<th>COMPETENCE OR CONCERN</th>
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<tr>
<td>Consequence Indicators</td>
<td>Targets</td>
<td>Extent of Compatibility</td>
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AND COMPATIBILITY
Session III One Full Day

The following are the specific objectives of Session III. At the end of this session the individual participants will be able to diagnosis teacher needs in the following areas:

1. Establishing instructional goals
2. Designing organizational format
3. Selecting appropriate teaching strategies
4. Selecting appropriate activities and materials
5. Using feedback from students to monitor, to adjust strategies, and to evaluate student progress in reaching instructional objectives
THE FOLLOWING LECTURE SHOULD BE USED AS A POINT OF DEPARTURE FOR DISCUSSION.

Planning For Teaching Lesson

If a supervisor is going to be able to go into a classroom, observe what is happening, and then help the teacher analyze what took place in terms of what he had planned, that supervisor must be aware not only of effective teaching strategies and techniques but also of how the teacher can plan and use these strategies and techniques so that the objectives and goals which are established can be accomplished. The instructional supervisor must be able to diagnose teacher needs in terms of establishing instructional goals, designing the organizational format, selecting the teaching strategies to be used, selecting the appropriate activities and materials, and using feedback to monitor, to adjust strategies, and to evaluate. In order to help teachers in the area of developing an effective instructional system, the supervisor must be knowledgeable in this area himself.

"There are no absolute 'rights or wrongs' inherent in teaching. Rather, we can only measure teaching competence in terms of the quality of the decisions made by the instructor" (319, 1976, p. 7). Experience has shown that when teachers are making progress in this area and when the quality of education available for students is improving, "... there's always a manager in the background, organizing, facilitating, encouraging, and reinforcing such progress" (319, 1976, p. 22). There are four specific basic competencies that a teacher must master in order to be able to make systematic instructional decisions (319, 1976, p. 13):
1. **THE** **TEACHER CAN TEACH TO AN OBJECTIVE.**

2. **THE** **TEACHER CAN DIAGNOSE AND PRESCRIBE APPROPRIATE LEARNING EXPERIENCES.**

3. **THE** **TEACHER CAN MONITOR PUPIL PERFORMANCE AND MAKE APPROPRIATE CORRECTIONS IN THE LESSON PLANS.**

4. **THE** **TEACHER CAN APPROPRIATELY USE THE PSYCHOLOGICAL PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING TO FACILITATE HIS INSTRUCTION.**

Teaching to An Objective

The first question to ask is "why should a teacher use instructional objectives in teaching?" THESE POINTS SHOULD BE COVERED DURING THE DISCUSSION (319, 1976, p. 1.1):

******OVERHEAD****

1. **PROVIDES A TARGET FOR LEARNING.** "RESEARCH SHOWS THAT WHEN YOU IDENTIFY EXACTLY WHAT YOUR STUDENTS NEED TO KNOW, YOU CAN AIM ALL OF YOUR TEACHING EFFORTS TOWARD THAT TARGET SO THAT THEY WILL LEARN IT FASTER AND REMEMBER IT LONGER" (319, 1976, p. 1.1).

2. **IDENTIFIES THE CONTENT OF THE LEARNING THAT IS TO TAKE PLACE.**

3. **FOCUSES ON SPECIFIC PUPIL BEHAVIOR WHICH INDICATES THAT STUDENTS ARE ACHIEVING THE LEARNING.**

4. **SERVES AS A REFERENCE POINT FOR THE SELECTION OF MATERIALS, ACTIVITIES, AND METHODS.**

5. **HELPS IN DIAGNOSING THE LEARNERS' NEEDS.**
6. SERVES AS A REFERENCE POINT FOR EVALUATING PUPIL PROGRESS TOWARD THE ACHIEVEMENT OF THE OBJECTIVES, WHICH GIVES THE TEACHER DATA NEEDED FOR MAKING DECISIONS ABOUT SUBSEQUENT LEARNING EXPERIENCES.

After the teacher has been able to state his objective or goal in terms of desired student behavior with some degree of precision, then "the person who is responsible for planning instruction can proceed with some hope. He can at the very least apply the criterion of relevance in judging the behaviors required of the learner in route to the objective" (440, 1970, p. 41).

As the teacher considers the desired objectives, he should recognize that there are many options available to him in the design of a particular sequence. After he chooses the actual component behaviors he will use to reach the objective, his next step will be to sequence the learning activities (440, 1970, p. 57).

The four parts of an instructional objective include: content, behavior, condition, and criteria of performance (319, 1976, pp. 1.5-1.6):

1. The teacher must first identify the specific content of the learning that is to take place—what knowledge and skills or attitudes and values is he attempting to teach or develop.

2. The teacher must identify the behavior that the students will be asked to demonstrate as an indicator that the content has been learned. The behavior must, of course, be closely related to the content.
3. The **conditions** under which the learning is to take place must be identified—i.e., what will the student be given to work with; where will the learning take place.

4. The **criteria of performance** must be identified as a reference point for determining if the objective has been met.

**PRE/POST TEST FOR TEACHING TO AN OBJECTIVE WILL BE USED AS AN ACTIVITY TO INSURE THAT PARTICIPANTS UNDERSTAND THE WRITING OR OBJECTIVES (319, 1976, SECTION I) HANDOUT # 2%.**
TEACHING TO AN OBJECTIVE

BEHAVIORAL OBJECTIVES

1. Fill in each blank with one of the four parts of an instructional objective.

A. __________ The subject or skill area about which the objective is written.

B. __________ The student behavior described as evidence that the objective has been met.

C. __________ The parameters within which the student must perform.

D. __________ The qualitative or quantitative standards of acceptable student performance.

2. For each of the following word groups write the number of the word that is open to fewer interpretations in the blank on the left.

A. ______ (1) To know (2) To read aloud (3) To understand (4) To appreciate

B. ______ (1) To solve (2) To comprehend (3) To believe sincerely (4) To retain

C. ______ (1) To enjoy (2) To interpret (3) To know (4) To recite

D. ______ (1) To compare (2) To have faith in (3) To fully appreciate (4) To learn

E. ______ (1) To compute (2) To understand (3) To evaluate critically (4) To know

3. Place a check in the blank to the left for each objective that is correctly stated.

_______ Students will display interest in math by voluntarily attending all the lectures offered on this topic.

_______ Using standards given by the teacher, students will choose the best of two solutions to an arithmetic problem.

_______ Students will understand the meanings of the following words: estimate, tangle, reassemble, advantage, instinct.
Students will correctly solve all of the story problems presented on a practice sheet.

Students will appreciate the significance of great literature for a changing world.

4. Underline the desired performance, and circle the conditions in each of the following objectives:

A. Given a set of objects, students will pick out the largest object.

B. Using the formula given in class, students will correctly solve the speed-distance problems in the practice book.

C. Students will select from a given series of words, those that do not rhyme.

D. By the end of the first unit students will be able to solve two-place division problems.

5. Underline the content, and circle the criteria in each of the following objectives:

A. Students will score 80% or better on a math test.

B. Students will read aloud the first page of the assigned reading with no more than one error in pronunciation.

C. During the first arithmetic class each student will correctly place the hands of the simulated clock at 6, 9, 12, and 3 o'clock.

D. As a final exercise in the measurement unit, students will measure the floor of the classroom, correct to the nearest inch.

6. Write a correctly stated instructional objective in reading or math for a child or group from your class.

7. List four parts for the objective that you wrote in item #6.
What is included in the teaching competency: "Can Teach to an Objective"?

After the appropriate instructional objective has been written, the next step in developing the lesson is to build a relevant "set" into the lesson. When "set" is provided in a lesson, it involves calling students' attention to what the intended outcomes are for that particular lesson. Since research indicates that one of the most productive times in a lesson is at the beginning of the learning/teaching episode, it would seem that the teacher could capitalize on this fact by helping students focus on the specific learning target at the beginning of the period. Students tend to learn better when they see some value in what they are supposed to be learning. "Empirical evidence suggests that when students understand why instruction is relevant to their own concerns they are more likely to master the subject matter" (440, 1970, p. 65).

Some of the guidelines for using set include (320, 1980, p. 16):

1. Set must be closely related to the lesson objective
2. Set may be provided directly
3. Students should be involved in the set activity whenever possible

ACTIVITY (320, 1980, p. 19):

You are designing a lesson for a group of students which involves the identification of various geometric shapes. The activities that you have designed for the lesson will include constructing different three-dimensional shapes and classifying them according to observations of their sides, corners, and edges. Select the best "set" for the lesson.

1. Tell pupils that they are going to make some geometric shapes.
THIS IS A GENERAL SET AND WOULD NOT FOCUS STUDENTS ON ESSENTIAL LEARNING--NOT DIRECTLY MATCHED TO LESSON OBJECTIVE

2. Show students several models of geometric shapes and ask them how these are different, i.e. the number of sides, corners, and edges.

FOCUSES STUDENTS ON THE ESSENTIAL LEARNING AND INVOLVES THEM, I.E. DISCERNING THE CRITICAL ATTRIBUTES OF GEOMETRIC SHAPES FOR CLASSIFICATION PURPOSES

3. Write the objective on the chalkboard, i.e. "By the end of the lesson you will be able to identify 3 different geometric shapes."

THIS IS A SET ACTIVITY. IT IS HIGHLY DIRECTIVE, BUT THERE IS VERY LITTLE STUDENT INVOLVEMENT

4. Give a pre test asking students to identify three different geometric shapes.

IS A POSSIBLE WAY, BUT IT CAN RESULT IN NEGATIVE FEELINGS ABOUT THE LESSON. SET SHOULD CREATE A MOTIVATIONAL AS WELL AS COGNITIVE EXPECTANCY FOR LEARNING

ACTIVITY

EACH PARTICIPANT WILL BE ASKED TO:

DEVELOP AN INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVE FOR A LESSON

DESIGN A DIRECT SET STATEMENT OR ACTIVITY FOR THE LESSON

DESIGN AN INDIRECT SET STATEMENT OR ACTIVITY FOR THE LESSON

The teacher who can teach to an objective generates overt behavior to enable him to monitor the learning which is taking place. One of the methods used to generate this behavior is questioning. The teacher
should be able to use the feedback he receives as a basis for making needed corrections in his lesson plans.

A few general questioning techniques include (320, 1980, p. 33):

1. Ask the question, pause, designate the student who is to answer.
2. Make sure that the question is asked in a way that will elicit the type of answer desired.
3. Use a signal to insure that attention is focused before the question is asked. Questions should not be repeated when the student does not hear because he is not listening.
4. Provide appropriate support to students as needed, including "prompts".
5. Expect a loud, clear response.
6. Avoid repeating students’ answers when at all possible.
7. Hold all of your students accountable.

As a teacher analyzes the questions he asks, the following points should be considered (320, 1980, p. 37):

1. Do I make use of the pause to provide learners with thinking time before calling on a student to respond?
2. Do I vary the complexity level of my questions to meet individual learner needs?
3. Do I vary the pacing of my delivery so as to meet individual differences?
4. Do I provide prompts as needed to adjust the appropriateness of questions?
5. Do I redirect a question to another student if my monitoring
indicates that I have posed it inappropriately?

6. Am I aware of my use of open and closed questions?

7. Do I usually pose questions only to students who already know the answers?

Another important tool which is effectively used by the teacher who can teach to an objective is the appropriate techniques of giving directions. The directions should have a specific purpose which is relevant to the instructional objective. The directions should be carefully planned so they will generate the activity that the teacher has in mind.

As the directions needed throughout the lesson are planned, the teacher should ask himself the following questions (319, 1976, p. 1.14):

1. What is to be accomplished (an activity; a process to be developed; a skill to be practiced; etc.)?

2. What behavior can be anticipated on the part of the learners?

3. What parts of the lesson will require specialized directions?

4. What parts of the lesson will require only a minimum amount of directions?

5. How can directions be formulated to accommodate the slow, the average, or the gifted learners?

6. How can directions be adapted to accommodate varying grade levels?

7. How should directions be given (orally, written, etc.)?

8. How many parts in the total set of directions can the group handle at one time?

9. What sequence should be designed for giving directions?
10. How will the students show that they understand the directions? The teacher should be very careful to make sure that the directions given will generate activity or behavior which will enable the learners to make progress in reaching the objective.

The guidelines for giving directions include (320, 1980, p. 53):

1. Get the students' attention
2. Give the directions
3. Model the expected behavior
4. Translate the directions into action
5. Make corrections as needed

The third type of method used to generate the overt behavior is activity. The activities that are planned should involve students in behaviors which are closely matched to the instructional objective. Generally the purposes for developing specific activities include (320, 1980, pp. 61-62):

1. For Input To give students information about skills or concepts that they do not have and which are needed.

2. For Practice To give students an opportunity to practice skills they are learning; these skills should be directly related to the instructional objective.

3. For Application To give students a chance to apply or transfer what they have learned.
There are some basic guidelines for planning activities (320, 1980, p. 67):

1. Utilize activities that generate pupil participation
2. Provide some means for checking behavior
   The teacher needs to obtain feedback from the students to determine what modifications are needed in the lesson plan.
3. Design activities to meet individual needs
4. Select appropriate methods, strategies, and materials.
5. Organize the students for effective instruction
6. Organize lesson activities in a logical sequence
7. Only promote pupil behavior and responses that are relevant to the essential learning
8. Incorporate education "sponges" for practice and reinforcement of learning; a general rule of thumb is that you should mass the practice tasks for a new learning, and distribute them in activities of shorter duration when learning is familiar

The teacher should realize also that the learner must have opportunities to determine the adequacy of the responses he is making during an instructional sequence. The sooner the knowledge of results is provided to the learner, the more effective his efforts to reach the goal or objective which has been set.

As the teacher chooses appropriate instructional strategies for presenting information, transmitting skills, and developing attitudes, he must recognize that all techniques are not equally effective in reaching each instructional goal. Even though there is yet no scientifically-based guide for accurately choosing the appropriate strategy,
psychological research has given educators some insights (234, 1980, p. 27): HANDOUT # 29 WILL BE GIVEN TO THE PARTICIPANTS AND WILL BE DISCUSSED.
## Teaching Learning Technique Selection Guide

### Domains

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### T/L Techniques

#### Lectures
- Formal
- Informal
- Guest

#### Demonstrations
- Manipulative
- Principle
- Device

#### A/V
- Presentation
- Model

#### Field Trips

#### Projects
- Producer
- Problem-Solving
- Specific Skill

#### Experiments

#### Exercises

#### Guided Observations

#### Questioning

#### Discussions

#### Buzz Sessions

#### Brainstorming

#### Seminars

#### Interviewing

#### Role Playing

#### Gaming

#### Committees

#### Debates Participating

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**Handout #29**

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THE TAXONOMY OF EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES AND THE LEVELS OF COMPLEXITY

WITHIN EACH DOMAIN WILL BE DISCUSSED IN RELATIONSHIP TO THE SELECTION

GUIDE THAT EACH PARTICIPANT HAS BEEN GIVEN:

Domains (439, 1970, p. 48):

1. Cognitive Domain—Covers all objectives concerned with
   intellectual processes of the learner.

2. Affective Domain—Covers all objectives concerned with atti-
   tudinal, emotional, valuing behaviors of learners reflected
   by interests, appreciations and the like.

3. Psychomotor Domain—Covers all objectives concerned with
   skills.

Within each of these domains there are various levels of complexity:

1. Cognitive
   a. Knowledge—Recall of specifics, universals, methods and
      other items. Requires a rate behavior.
   b. Comprehension—Refers to a type of understanding revealed
      by the learner's ability to make use of certain material
      or of an idea without necessarily seeing its fullest im-
      plications—Ability to translate language, interpret
      graphs, or extrapolate from a series of numbers.
   c. Application—Use of abstractions in particular and concrete
      situations.
   d. Analysis—Requires the breaking down of a communication
      into its subcomponents so that the relationship among these
      elements is made clear.
   e. Synthesis—Putting together of elements to form a new,
      original entity.
f. Evaluation—Describes behaviors in which judgments are made about the value or methods used for given purposes. Criteria applied in making these judgments may be determined by student or those which are given to him by someone else.

   a. Receiving (attending)—At this level the learner should be sensitized to certain awareness; willing to tolerate and receive a given stimulus, willing to have controlled or selected attention.
   b. Responding—The compliance, willingness, and satisfaction in the responses.
   c. Valuing—The acceptance, preference, and commitment of a value.
   d. Organizing—The conceptualization and organization of a value system.
   e. Characterizing—The internalization and generalization of a set of values.

   a. Perception—A process of becoming aware of objects, qualities or relations by sensory stimulation, cue selection, and translation.
   b. Set—Preparatory mental, physical or emotional adjustments and readiness for a particular kind of action or experience.
   c. Guided Response—An early step in the development of skills promoted by imitation and by trial and error.
d. Mechanism—Learned responses becoming habitual.

e. Complex Overt Response—Student can perform a motor act that is considered complex.

f. Adaptation—Modifying motor activities to meet the demands of new problematic situations requiring a physical response.

g. Origination—Using the students' outstanding abilities and skills developed in the psychomotor domain to create new motor acts or ways of manipulating materials.

Participants will be given copies of the following guide for effective use of the techniques chosen to reach a particular objective. They will be asked to read through it and to be ready to discuss the important concepts (234, 1980, pp. 28-33, 41-52) handout #30.
LECTURES

Lectures are exciting learning techniques if they are well planned and skillfully delivered. To be effective, the lecturer must commit sufficient time to organize and adapt the topic to the audience and to rehearse and polish the delivery. Since this kind of preparation requires a great deal of time, the number of skillfully done formal lectures may be small. Most teachers prefer the informal lecture in which students participate and which therefore has the advantage of being more interesting to students.

If either of these forms of the lecture is supplemented with visuals and objects, it is called an illustrated lecture. When accompanied by a demonstration, it is a lecture-demonstration.

1. Formal Lecture

A formal lecture is an oral exposition of acts, principles, procedures, feelings, or directions by the teacher. It is a strong, versatile, and efficient way of bringing the lecturer's views immediately into focus. Further, essential factual material not found in the reading can be presented vividly by a skillful lecturer. Effective utilization is the key to the lecture's success as with all T/L techniques.

In PLANNING the formal lecture, the following guidelines may be of assistance

Phase 1 Planning the Topic

Choose the topic

Explore the topic in your own mind

Determine the point of view
Differentiate between fact and opinion
Research the topic in standard references
Develop a perspective on the topic

Phase 2 Planning the implementation
Select effective terms and expressions
Determine the length
Establish the depth
Select illustrations and examples
Redo the degree of abstraction with visuals, dramatizations, and demonstrations

The following approaches to organizing formal lectures may also be helpful:

a. "Little Method" Format Although the "Little Method" developed by St. Vincent was designed to teach moral behavior, it has wide application for educators. It is effective for communicating topics which consist of terms, places, methods, or processes that can be described and explained. It is the responsibility of the lecturer to devise the packaging of the concept into a form that students will enjoy. A simple, direct, and straightforward presentation, the "Little Method" format has three components:

(1) A description of the characteristics of the topic—what is being studied
(2) The motivation for the audience to become involved in learning about the topic—why the topic is being studied
(3) An explanation of the topic—how one can learn about the topic or put the idea into practice
b. Parable Format In the parable format the lecturer introduces a new and different concept by comparing it to one that is familiar to the audience. The comparison of the skilled furniture builder and the creative teacher is an example of this application. The parable is highly flexible. It is effective from kindergarten through adulthood and can be motivating if the new concept is compared to something that is familiar and valued by the learner. This format consists of three parts:

(1) The statement of the analogy compares the new concept to the familiar one (creative teaching is like building fine furniture) or points out the relevant and comparable points (material—students and content, specifications—objectives, etc.).

(2) In the core of the lecture, the details of the known concept are used to explain and give meaning to the details of the new topic.

(3) As the analogy is closed, conclusions are drawn. When the student understands the analogy, the learning has occurred.

2. Informal Lecture

The informal lecture may be patterned after the formal lecture format. The rigidity of the formal lecture is reduced, however, because there are opportunities for students to interject ideas, to ask questions, and to provide examples from their own experiences during the informal lecture.

Informal lectures may be used to provide background information on
a topic or content area, to introduce a major unit, to carry the main load of information for a unit, to summarize a segment of instruction, or to stimulate a person to behave in a particular way. Regardless of the purpose, the objective for this technique should be clearly in mind.

The following generalized format is suggested for the informal lecture:

a. Define terms. Explain words, expressions, and other new symbols necessary for an understanding of the concepts.

b. Outline details. Break down the topic into parts and subparts to its simplest and most easily understood elements.

c. Summarize. Close the lecture by reviewing, condensing, and repeating its principal points.

d. Raise and answer questions. Allow students an opportunity to ask questions, to clarify misunderstandings, and to put the points of the lecture into perspective with their own life circumstances.

For implementation of the lecture, students should be prepared in advance on the nature and amount of freedom they will have for participation. Student interest will be maintained by the use of stimulus variation. Teachers can facilitate student learning and note taking by:

a. Using a consistent outline to present material.

b. Explaining the organization of the lecture.

c. Emphasizing the main ideas.

d. Restating and rephrasing complex points.
e. Using examples.
f. Using contextual clues (e.g., "There are four ways of..." to introduce a list of points).
g. Including some pauses to allow for note taking.
h. Distributing problems related to the material and asking students to listen for relevant information to solve the problems.

Teachers can instruct their students in methods of note taking by suggesting that they write down only key phrases, use personal shorthand, and keep notes neat so the recopying is unnecessary.

3. Guest Lecture

Teachers often have the option of making a presentation themselves or of inviting someone else to make a presentation. A lecture by a guest has several advantages utilizing expert knowledge or skills, providing variety, and presenting an alternative point of view all of which can enrich class activities.

Procedures for the guest lecture usually include the following:

a. Orientation. Introduction of the speaker with a description of the person's position, experience, and special qualifications, the reason the person was asked, the topic to be covered, and the follow-up procedures.

b. Development. Presentation by the speaker.

c. Follow-up. Expressions of thanks to the speaker, questions, discussion, and other follow-up activities.

**DEMONSTRATIONS**

The demonstration is an example of teaching by showing. This
technique employs sight and touch rather than hearing as the major means of communication. Manipulative skills, physical principles, and the working of mechanical devices are often more effectively taught by demonstrations than by other methods.

Although there seems to be no standard format for the demonstration, most authors include similar components under one description or another. These components are sometimes modified to satisfy peculiarities of the concept to be learned or the teaching situation. Most often included are the following elements:

Orientation includes the purpose, the objective, and/or the tie-in information. Development with the following subcomponents:

a. Presentation consists of a preview, a detailed presentation, and a review.

b. Discussion clarifies misunderstanding and fills gaps.

c. Application includes reinforcing questions, practice, and/or other imitation activities carried on by one or more students.

Follow-up an assignment that encourages higher skill development, the transfer of learning, a broader understanding of the concept, and/or a clearer, more detailed comprehension of the concept.

The following procedure will be helpful in PLANNING demonstrations:

a. Identify the relevant skill, concept, or mechanism.

b. Outline key points such as procedural steps of a manipulative skill, relevant variables in a physical principle, or the parts and their relationship to each other in the mechanical device.

c. Rehearse by testing equipment and working through the demonstration.
As in all T/L techniques, the IMPLEMENTATION of the demonstration is crucial to its success. The following list of guidelines can contribute to this success:

a. Have tools, equipment, and visuals available and in good condition.
b. Arrange students so that all can see the demonstration.
c. Model correct, accurate, and safe work habits.
d. Demonstrate one procedure at a time.
e. Present only essential information and theory.
f. Use visuals for things that are not fully visible.
g. ALWAYS have an application activity following the demonstration.
h. Time the demonstration so that it is given when students are ready to use the skill, principle, or knowledge.

Because timing is so important and so often ignored, special attention should be given this idea: Give the demonstration when students are ready. In principle, this suggestion sounds fine, but in practice it may be necessary to give the demonstration to the group when a few advanced students are ready and then review it later for the slower ones. An alternative would be to divide the group, giving separate demonstrations first to the faster students and at a later date to the slower.

EVALUATION may be accomplished by informal observations to find answers to the following questions:

a. Were the purpose, objective and/or tie-in clear?
b. Were all materials ready?
c. Could all students see?
d. Were safety precautions observed?
e. Were students directly involved in the demonstration?
f. Was the timing right?
g. Did the demonstration work?
h. Were sufficient visuals available?
i. Could students perform the task, explain the principle, or describe the mechanism after the demonstration was over?

l. Manipulative Skill Demonstration

Probably no other technique is more often used than the demonstration in teaching manipulative skills. The technique capitalizes on the visual sense, the sense that receives the greatest amount of information and is the most difficult to turn off or distract.

When preparing for a demonstration of a manipulative skill, carefully analyze the procedure and list each procedural step in order. Identify related information, making certain to include safety precautions, safety markings, and necessary safety equipment. Interweave relevant information, but be aware of the amount of time to be used for the demonstration.

The initial "showing" step can be expected to develop only knowledge about a manipulative skill (the perceiving level in the psychomotor domain). Such knowledge should include the following elements:

a. Steps
b. Purpose for each step
c. Relationship of each step in the sequence
d. Physical motion necessary to perform the task
e. Skilled person performing the skill correctly in a work situation, if possible.
Higher skill levels can be developed only with practice. Well-selected follow-up activities or projects are essential when high-level performance is the goal.

2. Physical Principle Demonstration

Physical principles are commonly demonstrated in the sciences. Simple machines, current flow, and the effects of sound and light can all be demonstrated in physics classes, for example. In most courses the understanding of the principle as well as the application are emphasized. Therefore, demonstrations of principles are often accompanied by manipulative activities which apply the principles.

In planning such a demonstration, first carefully analyze the resources describing the principle. They may be used to identify the contributing factors and the roles they play in the principle. In the case of black surfaces absorbing more radiated heat than white surfaces, for instance, the color of the surfaces and the amount of radiant heat are the variables.

Next, design T/L activities which make it possible for the student to experience the variables. To carry forward the example, cut two identical pieces of sheet metal, painting one black and one white. Place them in a sunny window for two minutes. Then ask a student to feel the pieces of metal and report to the class which feels warmer than the other.

Finally, identify activities in which the principle is applied. For example, students may design simple solar collectors for homes and test their efficiency.

3. Mechanical Device Demonstration
Using only written or spoken words to describe the working of anything but the simplest mechanical device is at best difficult. A demonstration that includes the manipulation of the actual object, a cutaway or scaled model, and pictures or drawings of invisible parts is a more successful approach.

In demonstrations of mechanical devices, the aim is to make clear to learners the function of each part and the relationship of the parts to each other. In planning such a demonstration, analyze thoroughly the parts of the mechanism and their relation to each other. Organize the demonstration in the most logical manner.

There are several ways to make the presentation, but the following procedure is quite common:

(1) Orientation
   (a) Purpose, tie-in, and/or objective

(2) Development
   (a) Presentation
       Parts
       Function of parts
       Relationship of parts
   (b) Application
       Drill exercise
       Use of device

(3) Follow-up
   (a) Questions
   (b) Explanation by students
   (c) Project requiring use of device
Audiovisual presentation

Audiovisual (AV) materials are used extensively and effectively in individualized instruction systems. In this book, however, their use will be limited to classroom groups. Filmstrips, recordings, motion pictures, slide series, video programs, or combinations are grouped together there because the procedure for using each format is the same.

Audiovisual presentations consist of a set sequence of still or motion pictures, an audio narration, or a combination of both that is presented to the learner. Rather than being the message carrier in this T/L technique, the teacher arranges for the operation or manipulation of the carrier and is primarily responsible for preparing the group for the presentation and for planning the application experiences.

Presentation employing AV materials can bring sights and sounds to the classroom that are otherwise unavailable sights and sounds that are too small, too large, too expensive, too perishable, too soft, too far away, too fast, too slow, too old, or too rare. Learners can benefit from how-to lessons which may be presented effectively and consistently through the use of this medium. Finally, materials that show positive performance models of manipulative skills and interpersonal communication skills can assist teaching in these areas. Familiarity with AV materials and the careful planning of their use can increase the quality and diversity of teaching without significantly increasing the work load.

As in all T/L techniques, three phases are involved in making AV presentations:

PLANNING
a. **Identify** potential materials through the use of AV catalogs and directories.

b. **Select** materials based upon the objectives to be achieved.

c. **Prepare** to use the materials. Preview them and read the teacher's guides. Take notes. Enlist students' help in previewing. Students may see things that are not apparent to the teacher.

d. **Plan lesson content and procedures** relating them to the purpose for use of the materials, student focus, and the method of presenting the materials.

**IMPLEMENTATION**

a. **Orientate** students by stating reasons for observing the AV material and what should be gained from the presentation. Point out new words or expressions, and provide a response form which will actively involve students during the presentation and assist them in taking notes.

b. **Development:** Present the material. Even in this stage learning may be increased by a little creativity. If the content is complex or is presented at a fast pace, a replay may help students. Sometimes only a portion of the material may be suitable. Important points or corrections may be made during the presentation by stopping or restarting the particular item.

c. **Application:** Relate the content of the material to the reality of the class topic.

d. **Follow-up activities** may reinforce learning by providing opportunities for practice and transfer related to the AV
presentation. (If the film shows how to strike an arc and run a bead with an electric arc welder, for example, students may be given exercises to practice the skill. Industrial management activities shown in a film may be transferred to the management of a student-operated corporation.) Here again teacher creativity is important.

EVALUATION may be accomplished by answering the following questions:

a. Did the AV presentation fit the objective?

b. Did the AV presentation help achieve the objective?

c. How did students respond to the AV presentation?

d. Were the application activities appropriate?

e. Was the presentation suitable to the age group?

FIELD TRIPS

A field trip or tour is a carefully arranged visit by a group to an object or place of interest for first-hand observation and study. It may vary from a short visit to a single location to an excursion lasting several days and covering several states. Minitrips are trips taken within the school (a communication class views the school's intercommunication system in the main office). Miditrips are those taken within the immediate community (a visit to a construction site across the street from the school). Finally, maxitrips are a day or more in length and require transportation (a visit to the historical monuments in Washington, D.C.).

Field trips serve six basic purposes:

1. As introductory experiences they serve to develop a broad general understanding of the topic to be studied. (Prior
to studying a unit in "Communicating with Electronics," the class is taken to a radio or television studio to see it in operation.)

2. Summary or review activities are used as capstone experiences to crystallize and verify a number of related units or concepts that were presented earlier in the course. (When nearing the end of an automobile maintenance course, the class is taken to a large auto distributor's service area to view procedures, practices, and policies used in a commercial establishment.)

3. Interest is developed when a highly interesting trip is selected.

QUESTIONING

Throughout life people use questions to gain information. In teaching, questions are used extensively in another way to facilitate learning. The first use of questions to facilitate learning is to diagnose student levels of achievement at the beginning of a segment of instruction. When utilized for this purpose, questions are designed to establish the experiential background and interest of students.

The second use is to assess achievement at the end of a segment of instruction. Such questions are intended to evaluate each student's understanding of facts and principles and the ability to apply them.

Care should be taken in selecting the questions for summaries and reviews. The type of question may cue students to listen and learn the things asked for. If facts are called for, they will attend to and learn facts. If principles and applications of principles are asked for, then they will concentrate on that kind of learning. Similar behavior may occur in the case of test items.
The third use of questions to facilitate learning is to include them in the orientation of the lesson to promote interest and motivation.

When a class is routinely begun by directly stating why the objective is important, how it will be achieved, and how it relates to others lessons, students may become bored rather than motivated. Asking such questions as "What things are necessary to conduct a good experiment?" may provide variety and interest not offered by deductive statements.

The fourth use of questions to facilitate learning is to select queries that encourage students to think more deeply on topics and challenge their reasoning power.

The following four types of questions are recommended:

a. **Closed questions** fall short of encouraging or developing participation in classroom discussion. They may be either an identification question (What kind of bird is this?), a selection question (Who was right, the plaintiff or the defendant?), or a yes/no question (Is the first step to problem solving to get facts?).

b. **Probing questions** are designed to clarify (What do you mean...?) to justify (Why?), to refocus (to redirect "left field"answers), to expand (Are there other thoughts on this point?), and to reduce (Do you agree?).

c. **Divergent or open-ended questions** require the student to think into the future (What will happen or what will it be like when...?), to fantasize (What would you do if you were
When PLANNING to use this technique, prepare the key questions round the major points of the lesson in advance, keeping in mind the following general guidelines:

a. Make questions clear and concise by using words that are accurate, familiar, and related to the students' background.

b. Include questions that (a) require thought and extended answers (use the words "what, why, how, summarize"), (b) carry the lesson forward (leading questions), (c) vary in their difficulty.

These qualities of good questions will assist in reaching a greater number of students because variations will be provided that may better match student learning styles and interests. Avoid questions that:

a. Suggest their own answers (Who is buried in Grant's tomb?)

b. Suggest a "right" answer (Why is walnut a better wood than mahogany?)

c. Require students to guess the one right answer from numerous possibilities (What kind of wood is walnut?)

d. Are double questions (What is a carburetor and what does it do?)

e. Are ambiguous (How does a car work?).

When IMPLEMENTING this technique, consider the following suggestions:

a. Ask the question clearly and concisely.

b. Provide time for students to formulate answers.

c. Call on students by name.

d. Ask students to summarize partial answers to questions.

e. Involve as many students as possible.
f. Reinforce good answers to questions.
g. Maintain a balance between calling on volunteers and nonvolunteers.
h. Listen to all answers.
i. Expect students to evaluate other students' answers.

Bright students can be a problem when using this technique. Often they can and do answer all questions. This willingness to answer is rewarding to the student, but if not controlled, it can alienate the rest of the class. The following recommendations can help keep the entire class involved:

a. Let the bright student know you are aware he/she wants to respond and then call on someone else. This will reward the student but prevent one member of the class from dominating the group.

b. Use the probing technique called "looping questions" which are designed to fill in information gaps that a brighter student jumped when giving a very perceptive answer.

EVALUATION of the questioning technique is straightforward. During implementation, discern when questions are stimulating, interesting, and productive, and if student responses are positive. When the symptoms are negative, identify the cause. Look first at the question, analyze each one asked. Are they high-quality questions that avoided the typical mistakes? Do they seem to meet the quality standards stated earlier? If not, change them. If so, try to analyze your question-asking techniques. Were the guidelines followed? The more objective you are, the more successful you will be in identifying
and improving your use of this instructional method.

DISCUSSIONS

Discussions are supervised conversations in which informed students take an active role by sharing their ideas about the topic under review. This technique can contribute greatly to individual development. First of all, it is effective in expanding the cognitive and affective dimensions of students. When they prepare themselves on a topic in a variety of ways and then come together to discuss each person's point of view, students will increase their understanding of the topic. Secondly, when a group of people hold differing attitudes that may vary in clarity, a discussion which aims at clarifying values can contribute greatly to developing maturity in the participants. Thirdly discussions are beneficial in determining the level of achievement and the attitudes held by students in a particular area.

Finally, this technique has potential for helping students acquire skill in participating in a free exchange of ideas as contributing group members. It affords them the opportunity to express ideas, to share in a verbal interaction, and to work out a logical presentation of points on a topic.

The discussion technique is most useful when the objectives are related to clarifying ideas and values and to problem solving. When well implemented, the technique can result in social growth as well as in individual learning.

In PLANNING for discussions, be certain that:

a. The student has sufficient preparation or environmental background to be an efficient participant.
b. The classroom atmosphere is sufficiently open to permit effective discussion to occur.

c. The seating is flexible (circular seating is recommended).

d. The topic is significant to the learner and is sufficiently broad to permit a variety of viewpoints.

The three-component lesson format described earlier is applicable to this technique. It is reaffirmed, however, that variations in this format are possible and are encouraged.

To IMPLEMENT the discussion, participants must have background knowledge about the topic or its related causes in order to contribute to the activity. The teacher's role is to guide the group to discern the unifying principle and to provide a democratic classroom atmosphere. A strict, formal, and autocratic atmosphere is incompatible with this activity.

When using the questioning technique described earlier, the teacher is the leader. Discussions, however, may or may not be directed by a leader although some direction from a leader may be used to guide the group thinking.

The discussion lesson may be organized in the following manner. In the orientation a thought-provoking question should be asked. In an environmental science class, for example, the question might be, "What considerations should be kept in mind in developing a policy for protecting an endangered species like the koala bear?"

In the presentation section of the development, provide students with an introduction to the problem or topic and solicit their opinions, evaluations, and suggestions. Assure them that their ideas and
opinions are valued and respected, even when an idea is not popular. Communicate to students the idea that a discussion is a way of seeking truth not a place to force individual ideas on others.

In the application section, provide purposeful directions to students throughout the discussion. This is an opportunity to glean each student's points from the interaction and to clarify and unite the ideas in the direction of the lesson's objective. Above all, avoid working toward one right answer. Every effort should be made to provide equal opportunity for each participant to contribute so that no one individual dominates the group.

The follow-up consists of a review of important points revealed in the discussion. The summary or conclusions can be stated by a student of the teacher.

To EVALUATE the discussion, assess the degree to which:

a. Knowledge and attitudes were shared
b. Students listened to and respected each other
c. There was equal participation
d. Opinions were modified
e. Issues were settled or problems solved

**BUZZ SESSIONS**

In buzz sessions, the class is divided into small discussion groups of from five to seven students for the purpose of improving student involvement. There are essentially two kinds of buzz sessions. The first is a "planning" buzz session which provides an opportunity for more students to participate in the planning of a future class activity. The objective of the session may be to
formulate questions for an interview with a guest or to discover new areas of special interest to be considered as topics for future lessons. When the technique is used in this way, students become involved in the planning without speaking in front of the entire group.

The second kind of buzz session is a "reaction" activity following a major presentation. Members of the subgroup discuss the problems, difficult questions, or controversial issues presented earlier.

Although the purposes of the two kinds of buzz sessions differ greatly, the PLANNING is similar. In both cases:

a. Provide flexible seating to facilitate arranging chairs in a circular pattern.

b. Identify leaders and brief them on their duties (leaders are expected to get the discussion going and to insure participation from all members).

c. Identify recorders and brief them on their duties (recorders make notes of contributions, summarize them, and present the summary to the entire class).

d. Pay attention to the timing of the activities in order to allow time for group reports.

To IMPLEMENT a planning buzz session, orientate the group by stating the objectives and reasons for the session. Provide all available relevant information about scheduling and the management of the session in the briefing portion of the development. Guard against giving information that might restrict thinking. In the application portion, identify the groups and ask them to begin their discussions. Following
the discussions, the groups make their reports.

In the follow-up of the planning buzz session, students and/or teacher prepare(s) the final plans for implementing the future lesson.

If the buzz session is designed for the purpose of providing an opportunity for more students to react to a presentation, PLANNING is twofold. First make plans for the presentation and then for the buzz session itself. The only real difference in the planning at this point is that the members of the subgroups will react to questions, problems, or controversial issues found in the presentation. Thereafter the operation of the reaction buzz session is similar to that of the planning buzz session.

EVALUATION is a matter of determining if the objectives for the session and the topic were achieved. Ask yourself or the participants:

a. Did everyone who wished have an opportunity to participate in the session?

b. Were fresh ideas for future class topics identified?

c. Did perceptive interpretations, points of view, or solutions come from the session?

d. Were the timing and other logistics handled well?

ROLE-PLAYING

Role-playing may be defined as a method of human interaction that involves realistic, spontaneous behavior in an imaginary situation.

This technique is used most often for:

a. Training in human relations skills

b. Training in sensitivity to people and situations

c. Encouraging initiative and self-reliance
Among the values of role-playing are the following:

a. Individuals can experiment with new ways of behaving
b. Situations and roles may be tailored to individual needs and interests
c. Students can practice real-life situations and risk making mistakes without suffering the consequences of those mistakes
d. Students can observe and analyze more objectively because a role is being played
e. Students can learn by doing
f. Individuals will be more apt to say what they feel rather than what they think another person wants to hear
g. Real-life behavior may be brought into the classroom
h. The potential for training in human interaction skills is unequaled

When planning a role-playing lesson, the teacher must decide how much structure to give the roles. If the objective is to clarify values or to develop an understanding of another's cultural values, the roles are often left undefined. When the objective is to focus on how individuals function in certain situations (a salesperson handling a customer's objections), the role-playing lesson is more highly structured and the number of optional responses is limited.

Consider using such variations of the technique as the following:

a. Doubling. One character repeats, raises questions, and thinks along with another actor, but does not contradict.
b. Switching. At various points, the actors switch roles and continue.
c. Imitation. One person shows how another played a role.
d. Private thoughts. An alter ego guesses at what is behind an actor's words.
e. Wheel-leader. One person in the center of a circle goes around giving the same problem to each participant, each of whom responds immediately. Answers may be tape-recorded and the group may devise a perfected response.
f. Substitution. The protagonist faces several antagonists to show how people react differently to different people.

To IMPLEMENT this technique, orientate the group by describing role-playing, stating the reason(s) for its use, and reducing threat in any way possible. Some effective means of reducing threat include the following reassurances:

a. No one will be ridiculed
b. Participants gain the most from the activity
c. People may make mistakes. If they didn't, there would be no need to role-play the situation
d. It's better to make mistakes in the classroom than on the job
e. No one plays him/herself

In the presentation portion of the development, establish the situation, cast the roles, and brief the audience and actors on the situation. Provide only as much information as needed to accomplish the purpose. The briefing session should:

a. Include all necessary facts and instructions
b. Be kept to a minimum to allow for spontaneity

c. Be put in writing if at all complicated

d. Aim for reality

In order to involve the audience as much as possible, the following suggestions may be offered:

a. Be listeners. Listen for prejudices, voice changes, tempo, hidden motives, assumptions, preconceived ideas.

b. Be watchers. Watch for body tensions, facial expressions, gestures.

c. Be consultants. Ask, "How could the situation have been handled differently?"

d. Be empathizers. Identify with actors and observe by feeling the part.

In the application portion the conditions described in the briefing are acted out. Be perceptive as to when the acting should stop. If the interaction becomes excessively active, consider switching the roles.

Follow-up activities may be numerous, but in all cases a discussion should follow the interaction, in order that key points may be highlighted. The nature of the discussion is dependent upon the objective of the lesson.

To EVALUATE role-playing activities, first look at the stated objective(s). Because student growth in the area of values clarification is difficult to measure even with follow-up studies, however, a more informal and temporal technique is suggested by means of the following questions:
a. Did participants understand the roles they were playing?
b. Did participants have the background to play the roles?
c. Was the activity too long or too short?
d. Was the entire class involved either actively or passively?
e. Did students feel the relevance of the role-playing activity?
f. Would the use of a variation such as doubling have increased learning?
THE LECTURE CONTINUES.

Closure

The last skill which a teacher "Who Can Teach To An Objective" must have is that of "closure". This activity should be included at the end of every instructional session to refocus students' attention on the instructional objective for that session and to give the teacher information on the learning which has taken place. The teacher can use the information gathered during the closure activity to answer key questions, such as (320, 1980, p. 79):

1. What parts of the essential learning have been achieved?
2. Where is reteaching necessary?
3. How much regrouping is required for tomorrow's lesson?
4. What teaching strategies should be modified if teaching is necessary?
5. What is the next appropriate lesson objective?

As the teacher designs the closure activity, the following guidelines should be considered (320, 1980, pp. 80-81):

1. The closure activity must be directly related to the lesson objective.
2. Students must demonstrate that they have achieved the essential learning.
3. Each learner must perform the closure activity without assistance from anyone.
4. It is essential to check the learning of every student in the group.

Example (320, 1980, p. 83): You've just taught a lesson in math.
The objective was, "Given a simple multiplication equation, pupils will make up story problems for that equation." You provided a set for the lesson by presenting them with same examples. You implemented practice in selecting topics for story problems, identifying labels for sets and members within sets, and in generating problem questions. To check on the level of your students learning, the best closure activity would be to:

a. Give pupils a list of story problems and have them select the ones that are correctly written.

b. Have pupils write their own story problems about multiplication equations that you provide.

c. Have students solve story problems that you present to them.

d. Give pupils a slip of paper with an equation and a topic. Then they write story problems using that information.

Item "b". above represents the closure activity which would be most closely related to the objective chosen for the lesson.

Another example (320, 1980, pp. 89-90): The teacher wants to select an appropriate closure activity for a lesson that he is going to teach in English. The lesson objective is, "Students will identify the simple and complex predicates in sentences." After the planned activity has been implemented, the best closure task to check the level of learning would be to:

a. Organize the students in pairs. Have one pupil give a sentence orally. The partner identifies the predicate, and classifies it as simple or complex. The first student checks the answer. Then they reverse the procedure.
b. Given students a written test comprised of sentences that have both simple and complex predicates. Pupils use coded markings to identify the different types.
c. Have each student write definitions about simple and complex predicates.
d. Give the class various sentences orally, and have them individually respond to identify the particular types of predicates.

Item "b" above represents the best closure activity. This activity allows the teacher the opportunity to check all learners and provide each with enough test items to minimize the element of chance.

The ability of the teacher to teach to an objective is very important to the learners' being able to accomplish the lesson goals. The following is a diagnostic checklist that the instructional supervisor can use as he attempts to assess the teacher's ability to "Teach To An Objective" (312, 1976, SECTION I) HANDOUT #31:
TEACHING TO AN OBJECTIVE

(Diagnostic Checklist)

Long Range Objective: The teacher uses the component of Teaching To An Objective when designing and implementing lessons in his classroom.

Diagnostic Checklist: 1. The teacher writes a lesson objective in behavioral terms.

2. The teacher designs and implements a set which focuses the students on the lesson objective.

3. Using appropriate strategies, the teacher asks questions during the lesson that are directly related to the objective.

4. The teacher uses directions appropriately during the lesson to maintain student focus on the lesson objective.

5. The teacher selects and implements activities that propel learners toward the achievement of the lesson objective.

6. The teacher responds to, and reinforces only the behavior that is related to the objective.

7. The teacher plans and implements a closure activity that is directly related to the lesson objective.

COMMENTS:__________________________________________
THEORY INTO PRACTICE

PARTICIPANTS WILL BE ASKED TO DO THE FOLLOWING:

1. When given various objectives, design an appropriate set for each:
   a. Given one hour and no reference materials, the student will write an essay synthesizing the causes of the Second World War. The essay must contain at least three of the major causes that were discussed in class or in the textbook.
   b. Given a list of 20 unpunctuated sentences, the students will rewrite each sentence and correctly punctuate at least eighteen of the twenty sentences.

2. When given the two objectives above participants will plan at least two relevant questions and two different activities for each.

3. When given the two objectives above the participants will design one closure activity for each.

THEIR EFFORTS WILL BE DISCUSSED BY THE GROUP. PARTICIPANTS WILL BE ASKED TO VIEW A VIDEO TAPE OF AN ACTUAL CLASSROOM SESSION: THEY WILL BE ASKED TO DO THE FOLLOWING:

1. Identify the "set" used by the teacher and analyze the relationship between the "set" and the objective.

2. Determine whether the questions, directions, and activities used are relevant to the instructional objectives.

3. Identify closure activities from observed lessons and determine the relationship to stated objectives.
PARTICIPANTS WILL BE ASKED TO DRAW UP A BRIEF LESSON PLAN USING CONTENT IN THEIR OWN SUBJECT AREA OF PREPARATION. USING AN OPAQUE PROJECTOR THESE PLANS WILL BE DISCUSSED IN TERMS OF THE APPROPRIATENESS OF THE FOLLOWING:

1. OBJECTIVE ESTABLISHED
2. SET
3. DIRECTIONS
4. QUESTIONS
5. ACTIVITIES
6. CLOSURE
Diagnosis and Prescription

The process of diagnosis of prescription is a continuous one—looking for what is lacking in the learner's performance in light of the general behavior objectives which have been set and providing instruction at that point. The diagnostic step is vital in the teaching/learning process because without it the teacher cannot choose the appropriate methods, materials, or activities needed to help students reach the chosen objective.

There are procedures that a teacher can use in order to establish the objectives for a class (219, 1976, pp. II.1-II.3):

1. Identify goals for a specific class or subject area.
   Why does the class exist?

2. Describe the ideal "graduate" of the course of instruction.
   What behaviors will he exhibit? What skills will he have?
   What knowledge will he have gained?

3. Identify the entry level skills and behaviors of the students in terms similar to those in Step 2.

4. Delineate the steps required to "transform" the student from what he is able to do . . . to the desired behavior.

5. Evaluate objectives when they are written:
   a. Are the objectives stated from a student's point of view?
   b. Are the objectives achievable—and manageable?
   c. Can another teacher read them and know precisely what learning is intended?
   d. Are they internally consistent—with goals—with each other—with total picture?
Rick Coger in his book *Developing Effective Instructional Systems* suggests that there are many things a teacher can do to learn more about the entry level skills of his students (104, 1975, p. 24):

1. Administer a prerequisite test (pretest) oral or written.
2. Administer a pre-topic questionnaire—oral or written.
   (How many of you have ever used a slide rule?)
3. Investigate the students' cumulative records.
4. Consult counselors, advisors and other teachers.
5. Investigate test results on units and courses of students related to the one you are about to teach.
6. Visit students at home.

The teacher needs this information about his students in order that he can design appropriate instruction for them and avoid a waste of instructional time caused by unnecessary or inappropriate instruction.

The actual components which make up the competency, "The Teacher Can Diagnose and Prescribe Appropriate Learning Experiences", include (319, 1976, p. II.29) HANDOUT #32:
TEACHER WILL USE THE DECISION MAKING MODEL

LONG RANGE OBJECTIVES
- TEACHER CAN TEACH TO AN OBJECTIVE
- COMPONENT OBJECTIVES
  - SETS A LONG RANGE OBJECTIVE

CONDUCTS A TASK ANALYSIS
- KNOWS DEFINITION OF TASK ANALYSIS
- CAN IDENTIFY THE CRITICAL COMPONENTS OF A LONG RANGE OBJECTIVE
- CAN SEQUENCE THE COMPONENTS
- CAN IDENTIFY THE ENROUTE BEHAVIORS IN COMPONENTS

DESIGNS, IMPLEMENTS, AND EVALUATES A DIAGNOSTIC ACTIVITY
- PLANS AN ACTIVITY THAT "TESTS ALL IDENTIFIED COMPONENTS"
- IMPLEMENTS THE ACTIVITY IN A FORM THAT DOES NOT CONTAMINATE THE FINDINGS
- "TESTS" ENROUTE BEHAVIORS IF NECESSARY
- USES THE RESULTS TO ARRANGE PUPILS

PREPARES A PRESCRIPTION BASED ON THE DIAGNOSTIC RESULTS
- FORMULATES A LESSON APPROPRIATE FOR EACH LEARNER
- ADJUSTS THE COMPLEXITY OF TASKS TO FIT INDIVIDUAL STUDENTS
- SELECTS EDUCATIONAL STRATEGIES THAT ARE CONSISTENT WITH LESSON OBJECTIVE
As shown on the above chart diagnostic process has three stages:

1. A gross assessment is conducted to identify broad problem areas.

2. Specific diagnostic tools are used to refine the assessment— to determine the particular learning needs of the students.

3. The diagnostic data is collected and analyzed, an appropriate prescription is planned, and the lesson is taught.

**THEORY INTO PRACTICE**

1. **GIVEN A LIST OF STUDENTS IN A SELECTED ENGLISH CLASS AND DISTRICT OBJECTIVES FOR THAT PARTICULAR LEVEL, THE PARTICIPANTS WILL BE ASKED TO:**
   
   a. **CONDUCT A TASK ANALYSIS OF ONE OF THE LONG-RANGE OBJECTIVES IN THE DISTRICT SYLLABUS.**
   
   b. **PLACE THE COMPONENTS IN A LOGICAL SEQUENCE.**
   
   c. **DESIGN DIAGNOSTIC ACTIVITIES FOR THE VARIOUS LONG-RANGE OBJECTIVES.**
   
   d. **DESIGN APPROPRIATE LESSON OBJECTIVES.**


The teacher must be able to analyze the objectives, a process called task analyses. In this process the teacher would identify the component parts of the learning to be accomplished— as specified in the objective. Both the content to be taught and the behavior to be performed by the student should be analyzed (319, 1976, p. II.9):
Step 1  Identify by looking at the objective set what it is that the teacher wants the learner to be able to do after instruction is complete.

Step 2  Identify the critical elements of the learning--the skills or knowledge that the student will need to be able to reach the goal or objective.

Goal: Students will correctly play baseball.
Components: THESE WILL BE IDENTIFIED BY PARTICIPANTS

Goal: Students will be able to correctly write a five paragraph essay.
Components: THESE WILL BE IDENTIFIED BY PARTICIPANTS.

Step 3  Place the components in the logical order that they will be performed. After the sequence is determined, the components are phrased as diagnostic questions:

   Can the students write a complete sentence?

Step 4  Design diagnostic activities to locate point at which instruction should begin.

It is possible that the teacher will find it necessary to break the components into enabling behaviors--what knowledge or understandings do the students have to have in order to perform the component? Example (319, 1976, p. II.14):

Long Range Objective: Students will correctly solve simple division problems.

Component Objectives: Student estimate
Students multiply
Students subtract
Step 5 Analyze performance being asked of student—level of difficulty and dependent and independent content sequence. Determine teaching sequence.

TO SUMMARIZE THE DISCUSSION A WORKSHEET ON DIAGNOSIS AND PRESCRIPTION (319, 1976, SECTION II) HANDOUT #33 WILL BE FILLED OUT BY THE PARTICIPANTS AND THEN DISCUSSED. THE DIAGNOSTIC CHECKLIST WILL BE PASSED OUT AND DISCUSSED (319, 1976, SECTION II) HANDOUT #34.
TRUE-FALSE  Answer the following questions with T for true or F for false:

1. _____ The process of diagnosis is based on the principle of gross to specific teaching/learning.
2. _____ Enabling behaviors are observable in the learners performance of the lesson objective.
3. _____ Enabling behaviors are smaller bites of learning than component objectives.
4. _____ Task analysis deals with both content and task sequence.
5. _____ It is necessary to identify the enabling behaviors for each long range objective planned by the teacher.

ARRANGE THE FOLLOWING DIAGNOSTIC STEPS IN THEIR PROPER ORDER:

6. _____ The teacher conducts a task analysis to identify the component objectives.
7. _____ The teacher evaluates the diagnostic data.
8. _____ The teacher designs an appropriate lesson objective for the students.
9. _____ The teacher selects a long range objective.
10. _____ The teacher designs and implements a diagnostic activity to test each of the identified component objectives.
11. _____ The teacher arranges the component objectives in sequential order.
12. _____ The teacher identifies the enabling behaviors in the learning as needed.
**DIAGNOSIS AND PRESCRIPTION**

(Diagnostic Checklist)

**Long Range Objective:** The teacher diagnoses and prescribes appropriate learning experiences for his students.

**Diagnostic Checklist:**

1. The teacher sets a long range objective for his students.
2. The teacher conducts a task analysis to identify the components of the long range objectives.
3. The teacher designs an appropriate diagnostic activity to assess the entry level for each of the components.
4. The teacher implements the diagnostic activity, and evaluates the results.
5. The teacher organizes the students into groups based on the findings of the diagnostic activity.
6. The teacher prescribes an appropriate lesson objective for each group, based on the diagnostic results.
7. The teacher designs lessons to teach the identified learnings (lesson objectives).

**Comments:**

__________________________________________________________________________

__________________________________________________________________________
Monitoring and Correction

The next basic teaching competency is that of monitoring the students' learning during the lesson and making appropriate corrections in the lesson. The types of data needed cannot be obtained prior to the lesson, but are available during the course of teaching.

The focus of monitoring is on the student and whether or not he is learning. If not, the teacher who accepts the responsibility to see that learning is continuing must do something about it.

The four basic purposes of monitoring and correcting are (319, 1976, p. III.2):

1. To determine the accuracy of the initial diagnosis (Is the content appropriate for the learners?)
2. To determine the accuracy of the prescription (How appropriate is the level of difficulty, the complexity, the materials, the strategies, and the activities for the learners?)
3. To identify possible alternatives for correction (Pace, level of difficulty, complexity, methods, nature of the content, etc.).
4. To assess progress toward the achievement of the lesson objective.

As he monitors, the teacher is concerned with the appropriateness of both the learning task and the strategy that he has designed to accomplish the desired learning. There are four steps in the monitoring and correction process (319, 1976, pp. III.3 and III.6):

1. Generate overt behavior from all children.
a. Questioning to elicit individual or group responses  
b. Manipulatives (games, experiments, tools, books, etc.)  
c. Paper-pencil exercises  
d. Non-verbal responses (Thumbs up if you agree, individual slates)  
e. Chalkboard activities  
f. Short drill and practice activities  

2. Check the overt behavior (systematically and continuously focus on the objective).  
3. Interpret the overt behavior to determine the learning (or lack of it) that is taking place.  
4. Make decisions regarding appropriate modifications of the teaching plan.  

It is necessary for the teacher to have some type of quick and easy record keeping system to keep track of which students have been monitored (if all are monitored at the same time) and to keep track of how learners are progressing toward an objective.  

The teacher who is able to effectively use monitoring and correction techniques plans prior to the actual implementation of the lesson. He asks himself the following questions (319, 1976, p. III.5):  

1. Which are the critical points in the lesson where monitoring must be conducted?  
2. How should the group be organized for monitoring (seating, grouping of pupils, arrangements of physical facilities, etc.)?  
3. What monitoring techniques will be used?
4. How will data be recorded?

5. What alternatives are open in the event that correction is required?

In summary, the following chart shows the component objectives for this particular competency (319, 1976, III.9) HANDOUT #35:
TEACHER WILL USE THE DECISION MAKING MODEL

LONG RANGE OBJECTIVES
- TEACHER CAN TEACH TO AN OBJECTIVE
- TEACHER CAN DIAGNOSE AND PRESCRIBE APPROPRIATE LEARNING EXPERIENCES
- TEACHER CAN MONITOR LEARNING MODIFY INSTRUCTION
- TEACHER CAN MAKE APPROPRIATE USE OF LEARNING PRINCIPLES

COMPONENT OBJECTIVES
- DEVELOPS A PLAN FOR MONITORING AND CORRECTION
- GENERATES OVERT BEHAVIOR AND MONITORS EVERY PUPIL IN THE GROUP
- RECORDS DATA COLLECTED FROM MONITORING
- MAKES CORRECTIONS IN THE PRESCRIPTION AS NECESSARY

- IDENTIFIES THE CRITICAL POINTS IN THE LESSON WHERE MONITORING TAKES PLACE
- ORGANIZES THE STUDENTS FOR EFFECTIVE MONITORING
- SELECTS APPROPRIATE MONITORING TECHNIQUES
- USES QUESTIONS, DIRECTIONS AND ACTIVITIES TO GENERATE OVERT BEHAVIOR
- SYSTEMATICALLY CHECKS THE BEHAVIOR
- INTERPRETS THE OVERT BEHAVIOR TO DETERMINE THE LEVEL OF LEARNING TAKING PLACE
- SELECTS AN APPROPRIATE RECORDING TECHNIQUE
- KEEPS TRACK OF THE STUDENTS WHO HAVE BEEN MONITORED
- KEEPS TRACK OF HOW MANY TIMES EACH LEARNER HAS BEEN MONITORED
- KEEPS TRACK OF HOW EACH PUPIL IS PROGRESSING
- MAKES CORRECTIONS AS NEEDED IN THE LEVEL OF DIFFICULTY
- MAKES CORRECTIONS AS NEEDED IN THE COMPLEXITY LEVELS
- MAKES CORRECTIONS AS NEEDED IN THE EDUC. STRATEGIES
- USES THE DATA FROM ONE LESSON AS DIAGNOSIS FOR NEXT
TO SUMMARIZE THE DISCUSSION A WORKSHEET ON MONITORING AND CORRECTION (319, 1976, SECTION III) HANDOUT # 36 WILL BE FILLED OUT BY PARTICIPANTS AND THEN WILL BE DISCUSSED.
TRUE-FALSE—Answer the following questions with T for true or F for false:

1. ____ If a teacher does a thorough job of monitoring, it is not necessary for him to record the data, since he will be able to make immediate adjustments in the lesson.

2. ____ Even though monitoring is a continuous process, there are critical points in a lesson where a teacher needs to check the learning of all pupils.

3. ____ Monitoring need not be planned in advance, although a teacher should give some thought to appropriate corrections that can be made in case the learning is not progressing satisfactorily.

4. ____ Because group size varies, it is not always possible to monitor every learner in a group.

5. ____ A critical aspect of monitoring is that a teacher must get the pupils to demonstrate overt indications that learning is taking place.

FILL-INS: (6-12)

List four monitoring techniques.

________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
________________________________________________________________________
List two methods for recording data that is collected by monitoring.


List three basic corrections that are always possibilities for correction in every lesson.

13. 

14. 

15. 

List three of the factors that must be considered in monitoring learning.

16. 

17. 

18. 

Explain the purposes of Monitoring and Correction.

19. 


20. 


THE DIAGNOSTIC CHECKLIST WILL BE HANDED OUT AND DISCUSSED (319, 1976 SECTION III) HANDOUT #37.
MONITORING AND CORRECTION

(Diagnostic Checklist)

Long Range Objective: A teacher can systematically monitor the learning behavior of students and make appropriate corrections in the lesson prescription as needed.

Diagnostic Checklist: 1. The teacher develops a plan of monitoring and correction for a given lesson. (Organization, critical points in the lesson, techniques, materials, etc.)

2. The teacher generates overt behavior using questions, directions, activities, etc.

3. Teacher monitors on a continuous basis.

4. The teacher monitors the learning of every pupil in the group.

5. The teacher records the data that he collects from monitoring procedures.

6. The teacher makes appropriate corrections in the prescriptions, based on the results of his monitoring.

7. The teacher uses the data gathered through monitoring to make decision about the next lesson.

Comments: ______________________________
If the teacher chooses to use a paper-pencil test or quiz to determine if the students have comprehended the material, he must be sure that the questions do not have structural defects which would prevent student progress from being measured accurately. Instructional supervisors must be able to help teacher evaluate their test questions. PARTICIPANTS IN THE INSERVICE WILL BE PROVIDED WITH COPIES OF THE BOOKLET TEST QUESTIONS BY GRANT E. BARTON AND ANDREW S. GIBBONS (23, 1973). THE PRINCIPLES OF CONSTRUCTING TECHNICALLY CORRECT TEST QUESTIONS WILL BE DISCUSSED BY THE GROUP; THE EXERCISES WILL DONE BY THE PARTICIPANTS; AND ANSWERS WILL BE DISCUSSED.

THEORY INTO PRACTICE

PARTICIPANTS WILL BE GIVEN THE LESSON PLAN THEY EACH DESIGNED EARLIER AND WILL BE ASKED TO DESIGN A PLAN FOR MONITORING LEARNING IN THE LESSON.

A VIDEO LESSON WILL BE OBSERVED. PARTICIPANTS WILL BE ASKED TO IDENTIFY AND LABEL TECHNIQUES USED BY THE TEACHER FOR MONITORING AND CORRECTING.

PARTICIPANTS WILL BE ASKED TO TAKE AN OBJECTIVE IN THEIR OWN FIELD AND PLAN A LESSON INCORPORATING THE STRATEGIES AND TECHNIQUES WHICH HAVE BEEN DISCUSSED.

THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS WILL BE DISCUSSED AS A MEANS OF SUMMARIZING WHAT HAS BEEN DISCUSSED (319, 1976, p. III.12):

1. How will I check on the progress that my teachers are making in using monitoring and correction techniques?
2. What device will I use to keep records on the data that is collected during these checks?
3. What corrections can be made when a teacher is not progressing satisfactorily?

   In the mode of presentation?

   In the rate of instruction?

   In the sequence and level of complexity?
Use of Educational Strategies

Teaching is a scientific discipline. It has its own body of knowledge, its own language for communication among professionals, and its own means of evaluation. However, only a couple of research-based generalizations can be made about teaching and learning (312, 1976, p. 5):

1. Learning is incremental.

2. There are certain principles which make learning more predictable, that transfer to various situations regardless of the subject or the students' age, readiness, or style of learning.

"A knowledge of learning principles can reasonably be expected to assist in the planning stages of instruction, in the actual conduct of instruction by guiding the teacher's choice of strategy, and finally in the assessment procedures where principles help identify means of comparing what the learner is able to do with what he is expected to do" (537, 1975, pp. 12-13).

In this section, instructional theory will be considered. The following chart provides a summary of the strategies to be covered. EACH PARTICIPANT WILL BE GIVEN A COPY OF THE COMPONENT OBJECTIVES OF EDUCATIONAL STRATEGIES (319, 1976, SECTION IV) HANDOUT # 38.
TEACHER WILL USE THE DECISION MAKING MODEL

LONG RANGE OBJECTIVES
- TEACHER CAN TEACH TO AN OBJECTIVE
- TEACHER CAN DIAGNOSE AND PRESCRIBE APPROPRIATE LEARNING EXPERIENCES
- TEACHER CAN MONITOR LEARNING MODIFY INSTRUCTION
- TEACHER CAN MAKE APPROPRIATE USE OF LEARNING PRINCIPLES

COMPONENT OBJECTIVES
- USES REINFORCEMENT PRINCIPLES TO FACILITATE LEARNING
- USES MOTIVATION PRINCIPLES TO FACILITATE LEARNING
- USES REMEMBERING/TRANSFER PRINCIPLES TO FACILITATE LEARNING
- USES APPROPRIATE METHODS, MATERIALS, AND ACTIVITIES TO INDIVIDUALIZE INSTRUCTION

- KNOWS COMPONENTS
- CAN IDENTIFY APPROPRIATE REINFORCERS FOR LEARNERS
- IGNORES INAPPROPRIATE OR UNDESIRABLE BEHAVIOR
- USES POSITIVE REINF. TO STRENGTHEN APP. BEHAVIOR
- USES NEG. REINF. TO SUPPRESS INAPP. BEHAVIOR
- USES REG. AND INTERM. SCHEDULES...

- KNOWS COMPONENTS
- CAN IDENTIFY APP. MOTIVATORS FOR LEARNERS
- SYSTEMATICALLY BUILDS APP. ELEMENTS OF MOTIVATION INTO LESSON
  --INTEREST
  --FEELINGS...
  --SUCCESS
  --COMPETITION
  --EXPECTANCY
  --ANXIETY
  --FEEDBACK
  --INTRIN/EXTRIN VARIABLES

- KNOWS COMPONENTS
- SYSTEMATICALLY BUILDS APP. REMEMBERING PRINCIPLES INTO THE LESSON...
- DESIGNS AND IMPLEMENTS LESSONS WHICH FACILITATE POSITIVE TRANSFER AND MINIMIZE NEGATIVE TRANSFER FROM PREVIOUS LEARNINGS
- ORGANIZES LEARNERS...
- PROVIDES FOR DIFFERENCES...
- MAINTAINS A MANAGED SYSTEM...

- KNOWS THE HIERARCHY OF INDIVIDUALIZATION

HANDOUT #38
Reinforcement

The reinforcement theory is one of the most useful theories in teaching because it is used every day in every classroom whether the teachers realizes it or not. "... through its use, it becomes possible for all learners to grow, improve, and experience success" (246, 1976, p. 11).

Reinforcement can be defined "as the presentation of a reinforcer following the performance of a behavior" (319, 1976, p. IV.2). A positive reinforcer is anything needed or desired by the learner (246, 1976, p. 12). "When a behavior is immediately followed by a positive reinforcer the behavior is strengthened" (246, 1976, p. 12). Examples of positive reinforcers include (246, 1976, p. 12):

1. The approval of significant others (friends, parents, teachers). When that approval builds feelings of worth and competence, such reinforcers contribute to a healthy self concept.

2. Opportunities to do things the learner enjoys.

3. Special privileges.

It can be seen that unproductive behaviors can be strengthened unknowingly by the teacher when that behavior is followed by a positive reinforcer.

A behavior is extinguished or at least weakened when that behavior is followed by no reinforcement at all.

A negative reinforcer is anything that is not desired by the learner. When a negative reinforcer is used after a behavior, one of two things can happen (246, 1976, p. 14):
1. Behavior that is immediately followed by a negative reinforcer is suppressed or held back (but not eliminated). This suppressing of undesirable behavior gives the teacher time to TEACH a new and more productive behavior and follow that behavior with a positive reinforcer so the new behavior is strengthened.

2. A negative reinforcer can also be dangerous because any behavior that removes the negative reinforcer is strengthened. If getting a headache excuses someone from cleanup, getting a headache is strengthened.

A regular schedule of reinforcement should be applied every time a desired behavior the teacher is trying to teach is exhibited. After the new behavior is established, the teacher should use an intermittent schedule of reinforcement in which intervals between reinforcers become longer and longer.

THE PARTICIPANTS WILL BE ASKED TO READ THE SECTION "DO'S AND DON'TS IN USING REINFORCEMENT THEORY" FROM MADELINE HUNTER'S IMPROVED INSTRUCTION TAKE 10 STAFF MEETINGS AS DIRECTED (246, 1976, pp. 18-21). THIS MATERIAL WILL BE DISCUSSED.
AS A REVIEW AND POINT OF DISCUSSION, THE REINFORCEMENT SECTION
OF THE PRE/POST TEST WILL BE COMPLETED INDIVIDUALLY BY PARTICIPANTS
AND THEN DISCUSSED (319, 1976, SECTION IV) HANDOUT #39. THE DIAGNOSTIC
CHECK LIST FOR THIS SECTION WILL BE PASSED OUT AND DISCUSSED (319, 1976,
SECTION IV) HANDOUT #40.
USE OF EDUCATIONAL STRATEGIES

REINFORCEMENT

1. Fill in the blanks to complete the following statements:

1.1 If it becomes necessary to immediately stop a behavior, we should use __________________ reinforcers.

1.2 If we want a behavior pattern to reoccur, it is more likely if we use __________________ reinforcers.

1.3 If we use the reinforcement principles of ______________ we have the best chance to change behavior.

1.4-1.5 In applying reinforcement, we first use a __________ schedule, and then switch to an __________ schedule when the new behavior is well established.

1.6 In using reinforcement, we provide the reinforcer __________ the appropriate behavior has been exhibited by the student.
REINFORCEMENT PRINCIPLES

(Diagnostic Checklist)

Long Range Objective: A teacher will appropriately use the principles of reinforcement to facilitate learning.

Diagnostic Checklist:

1. The teacher identifies appropriate positive and negative reinforcers for his students.

2. The teacher designs a plan to facilitate the learning of the lesson objective by using the principles of reinforcement.

3. The teacher positively reinforces appropriate student responses.

4. The teacher ignores (extinguishes) inappropriate behavior.

5. The teacher negatively reinforces student behavior which does not respond to extinction.

6. The teacher plans and implements schedules of reinforcement, regular and distributed, in accordance with student needs.

COMMENTS:
Motivation Principles

"Motivation is the internal process within the learners which functions to arouse, sustain, and direct behavior as well as the intensity of efforts to learn" (537, 1975, p. 42). It is an inner condition which cannot be directly controlled by the teacher. The teacher can arrange the conditions (according to motivational principles) that will increase the probability of motivation to learn becoming stronger. Students learn most efficiently when they have the motivation to learn, when they feel an inner need or desire.

There are a few generalizations concerning motivation that should be considered (537, 1975, pp. 43-44):

1. Learning increases with increased motivation up to a certain point.
2. Maximum gain in learning occurs when there is a moderate degree of motivation. Mild forms of motivation result in performance distinctly above that for no motivation, but strong motivation results in performance only a little better than that for mild motivation.
3. The point at which maximum gain in learning will be reached depends upon:
   a. Complexity of the problem. Strong motivation has a positive effect on the solution of easy problems and a negative effect on the solution of complex ones.
   b. Ability of the learner. Motivation has a greater effect on those who have greater ability in relation to the task.
c. Degree of concentration of the motivation. Small allotments of motivation are more effective than that concentrated in a single intensive incentive.

d. Susceptibility of learner to motivation.

e. When motivation increases beyond the optimal point, learning is disrupted.

f. An increase in the degree of motivation increases both the variability of the group's individual differences and their reactions under strong motivation than under weak motivation.

g. In general moderate levels of motivation result in the greatest efficiency in learning.

Frank Vitro and Robert J. Drummond in their manual for selecting teaching strategies, *Principles of Learning and Instruction: Classroom Applications for Teachers* suggest specific motivational instructional guides for the classroom teacher (*537*, 1975, p. 47) HANDOUT #41:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>PRINCIPLE</strong></th>
<th><strong>INSTRUCTIONAL GUIDE</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Attending to a learning task is essential for initiating a learning sequence.</td>
<td>1. Focus student attention on desired objectives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Wishing to achieve control over elements of the environment and to experience success is essential to realistic goal-setting.</td>
<td>2. Utilize the individual's need to achieve and other positive motives.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Setting and attaining goals require learning tasks at appropriate difficulty level; feelings of success on current learning tasks heighten motivation for subsequent tasks; feelings of failure lower motivation for subsequent tasks.</td>
<td>3. Help each student set and attain goals related to the school's educational program.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Acquiring information concerning correct or appropriate behaviors and correcting errors are associated with better performance on and more favorable attitudes toward the learning tasks.</td>
<td>4. Provide informative feedback.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Observing and imitating a model facilitates the initial acquisition of prosocial behaviors such as self-control, self-reliance, and persistence.</td>
<td>5. Provide real-life and symbolic models.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Verbalizing prosocial values and behaviors and reasoning about them provide a conceptual basis for the development of the behaviors.</td>
<td>6. Provide for verbalization and discussion of prosocial values.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**PRINCIPLE**

7. Expecting to receive a reward for specified behavior or achievement directs and sustains attention and effort toward manifesting the behavior or achievement. Expecting to receive punishment for manifesting undesired behavior may lead to suppression of the behavior, to avoidance or dislike of the situation, or to avoidance and dislike of the punisher.

8. Experiencing high stress and anxiety is associated with low performance, erratic conduct, and personality disorders.

**INSTRUCTIONAL GUIDE**

7. Develop and use a system of rewards as necessary to secure sustained effort and desired conduct. Use punishment as necessary to suppressing misconduct.

8. Avoid the use of procedures that create temporary high stress or chronic anxiety.
There are six factors which seem to have a strong effect on motivation (246, 1976, pp. 31-34):

1. Concern--Learners are motivated to do that which they're concerned about. Each person has an optimum level of concern. If it is too high for a particular person, it interferes with motivation. If it is too low for a particular person, he may feel no need or desire for action; and as a result, no learning takes place.

2. Feeling--A pleasant feeling tone should increase the motivation of the learner. An unpleasant feeling tone may motivate students on a temporary basis or it may cause the learners to reject the tasks altogether. A neutral feeling tone will create no motivation at all.

3. Interest--Students are more motivated to learn if they have an interest in the subject or task. The teacher can create interest by making the learning more meaningful (relating it to something familiar or something important to the learners) or by making the learning vivid or different from what the students normally experience.

4. Success--Students experience a greater motivation to learn when successful while involved in the particular task. Appropriate diagnosis and prescription for the learners and the use of the principles of learning can increase the likelihood of success.

5. Knowledge of Results--The most effective learning takes place when students know when they have done well, and when they have
not done well, and know what needs to be corrected.

6. Intrinsic vs. Extrinsic Motivation—The teacher should provide both intrinsic (activity itself or success in activity is reward for effort) and extrinsic (effort is made to gain something else motivation based on the needs of the individual students).

Some additional information on certain of these six factors should be enlightening. Frank Vitro and Robert J. Drummond in their practical manual for selecting teaching strategies shared the results of studies on the effect of failure on students (537, 1975, pp. 81-82):

1. Failure depresses the action potential. Muscular action normally accompanies attempted solution of problems. There is usually a decreased mobility level under failure. Sometimes there is speeding up to relieve tension at the expense of efficiency of work. Sometimes "sparking-over" to activities not directed to learning occurs.

2. Failure slows learning. It decreases the number of correct responses and increases the time taken to give them. It results in apathy or depressed psychological functioning as a defense against complete awareness of failure. It means a decreased sensitivity to potentially disturbing stimuli, both internal and external.

3. Failure causes a moving away from reality. Quitting, daydreaming, and regression are common. Social responsiveness is reduced. Work is dogged and ineffectual. The task also is decontextualized, or split off from its social frame of reference.
4. Failure causes persistent nonadjustive behavior, and tends to fix incorrect response patterns. Frequent punishment of the wrong response is more likely to cause the response to occur again than to eliminate it. This response is especially probable if the pupil knows he is wrong but does not know what is right. Reprimand also strengthens the response by serving as an informative signal.

5. Failure increases the variability of behavior. Some students show aggression, others regression, some respond with skepticism and some with panic. Some do the same thing over and over mechanically; others "freeze". The effect of failure seems to be intensified whatever response pattern is dominant in the pupil at the moment. Individual differences increase under failure, decrease with success.

6. The effect of failure is cumulative. We have already noted that repeated failure is damaging, and that anticipated failure interferes with learning. There is greater danger of over-motivation and disruption of learning in failure than in success.

7. Failure causes changes in attitudes as well as in ability to remember. It shortens the pupil's time perspective, makes him think of the minutes spent in learning as long, of the learning as difficult and unpleasant. It makes him forget related material he previously knew. The relation of these facts to non-promotion is of interest.

8. Training can correct these ineffective behaviors by introducing
progressively more difficult tasks in which the child succeeds. With success comes interest, self direction, and elimination of non-adjustive behavior. For example, trial promotions result in as much learning as non-promotions, and grades in new subjects tend to be higher than those in repeated subjects.

Vitro and Drummond also shared a number of instructional guidelines for giving students a knowledge of results (537, 1975, pp. 75-76):

1. Practice without knowledge of results brings little or no improvement. In the beginning, there may be some increase in motor adaptation in a simple skill, but no sustained progress is apparent. There is slight evidence of latent learning, that is, of improvement which shows up under motivation after initial learning is completed. For the most part, practice is only a time framework within which other factors may operate; practice alone accomplishes little.

2. Knowledge of results brings marked improvement in performance. Evaluation is not merely a method of measuring teaching outcomes but is also an integral part of the teaching process itself. When a student is given knowledge of results after working without knowledge of his progress, his learning curve shows a decided upward trend.

3. The more detailed and specific the knowledge of results the greater the progress. The learner needs to know not only whether he has achieved his goal but also how far from the
goal he was and in what direction he deviated. Evaluation should be specific. Partial knowledge is better than no knowledge at all, but full knowledge is most effective.

4. The more positive the knowledge of results, the greater the progress. The reason for this conclusion may lie in the fact that knowing a given response is right is more specific than knowing a particular answer is wrong. Pointing out errors is less effective than pointing out correct responses, especially where the emotional content in the learning is moderate and any hint of punishment or reward is avoided. The effect of emphasizing the right response is that the learner's errors drop out. The effect of emphasizing errors is that he still makes them but turns back quickly, a more roundabout method of meeting the situation. Pointing out errors makes the child remember the error but not its correction.

5. Immediate knowledge of results is superior to delayed knowledge. And the superior performance gained under knowledge of results persists after the giving of objective information is stopped.

6. Classes and individuals differ in the way in which they respond to knowledge of results. Young children seem to be affected most, whereas poor students are affected little. The degree of effectiveness of any incentive varies with the learner's estimate of his possibility of success in that situation. Further, the level of interest for the particular
learner and the particular activity will affect the amount of gain from information about results.

THE DIAGNOSTIC CHECKLIST FOR THIS SECTION WILL BE PASSED OUT AND USED FOR DISCUSSION (312, 1976, SECTION IV) HANDOUT #42.
MOTIVATION PRINCIPLES
(Diagnostic Checklist)

Long Range Objective: A teacher will appropriately use the principles of motivation to facilitate learning.

Diagnostic Checklist: 1. The teacher incorporates the components of motivation in his lesson plans:
   - interest
   - expectancy
   - level of anxiety
   - feelings in the learners
   - competition
   - feedback
   - success
   - intrinsic/extrinsic variables.

2. The teacher spaces motivation components throughout the lesson.

3. The teacher identifies the motivating elements that work best for each learner.

4. The teacher incorporates the principles of motivation in the learning environment.

COMMENTS: ____________________________________________

_________________________________________________________________

_________________________________________________________________
THE PARTICIPANTS WILL BE ASKED TO READ THE SECTION "DO'S AND DON'TS IN USING MOTIVATION THEORY" FROM MADELINE HUNTER'S IMPROVED INSTRUCTION TAKE 10 STAFF MEETINGS AS DIRECTED (246, 1976, pp. 37-40). THIS MATERIAL WILL BE DISCUSSED.
Remembering/Transfer Principles

After learning has been acquired (incorporated into students' behavior), the teacher should provide experiences which will help the students transfer it to other situations and remember it over an extended period of time.

Research done by E. K. Strong found that material learned (both nonsense and meaningful) is generally quickly forgotten (319, 1976, p. IV.29):

Approximately 70 percent of new learning is forgotten during the first 24 hours. The teacher can use a number of principles to increase the length of time that a student retains new learning. Learning research has identified four basic guidelines regarding these principles (319, 1976, p. IV.30):

1. Generally speaking, concepts are retained longer and more accurately than facts. Such concepts are also useful in transferring skills and knowledge to new and different situations.

2. Factual knowledge is necessary, however, since it is a prerequisite for concept and transfer learning.

3. Motivation to learn is closely related to remembering.
4. There are certain principles that can be manipulated in designing and implementing learning experiences that will raise the probability of remembering.

The following principles will increase remembering and transfer of learning (57, 1978, From pp. 31-40):

1. **Meaning**—The more relevant a learning is for pupils, the more chance that they will remember it . . . . Having meaning in learning implies understanding by the students. Pupils understand best when the content is tied in some way to their own lives or past experiences. There are ways of increasing the relevance of materials for students:
   a. Associate content with the life of the learner
   b. Focus on concepts and generalizations
   c. Use a multi-sensory approach
   d. Organize material for efficient learning
      1) Usually the easiest position to learn new materials in a sequence is when it occurs first in a series. The next easiest position is the last in the series. The most difficult content to remember is that which lies just past the middle (57, 1978, p. IV.34).
      2) If possible, classify content into categories.
      3) Arrange content in a way that relationships among parts become apparent to the learner.

2. **Level of Initial Learning**—The more thoroughly something is first learned, the more likely that it will be remembered.
3. Feelings in the Learners—When a new learning is accompanied by positive feelings in pupils, it is more likely that they will remember the content.

4. Practice—Meaningful practice will increase the students' ability to remember new learning.

There are basic principles related to conditions of practice (527, 1975, pp. 49-50):

1. Distributed (spaced) practice is generally superior to massed crammed practice.

2. Practice periods of decreasing length and rest periods of increasing length represent optimal distribution.

3. The minimum length of practice periods depends upon the nature of the material being learned. Materials that are highly structured and meaningful and are approached in a logical manner can profit more from more massing than material that is relatively meaningless.

4. If material is unified, functional, and consists of a meaningful unit, learning it as a whole is generally recommended.

The specific guidelines for developing practice activities include (537, 1975, p. 50):

1. Learning should be undertaken by using the largest units that are meaningful and within the capacity of the learner.

2. Becoming familiar with the overall organization or previewing the total operation will help make the learning of contributing parts more effective.
3. Some form of the part method is usually preferred by the learner.

4. Where the unit is structured but overcomplex for the learner, it is best to present the major outline, isolate one part for attention, then fit it back into the unit within the same learning situation.

THE PARTICIPANTS WILL BE ASKED TO READ THE SECTION, "DO'S AND DON'TS OF EFFECTIVE PRACTICE" FROM MADELINE HUNTER'S IMPROVED INSTRUCTION TAKE 10 STAFF MEETINGS AS DIRECTED (246, 1976, pp. 66-67).

There are also variables which can be manipulated to raise the probability that the new learning can be transferred to new situations (319, 1976, pp. IV.45-48):

1. Similarity—The more similar the situations in which a first takes place to the setting in which a new learning is to occur, the more likely that previous learning will make new learning easier to acquire. Factors in the environment or in the activities of the students, as well as factors within the pupils themselves (feelings, motivation to learn, etc.), can be used to achieve such similarity.

2. Association—There are many ways to create association of two learning:
   a. Teach the two things at the same time, one right after the other.
   b. Make the environment similar.
   c. Use verbal labeling to help learners see the relationship between the present and future situations.
d. Tie the learning to pupils' experiences by using analogies that relate to their own lives.

3. Generalizations—These transfer more readily than facts.
Some ways of helping students learn to make generalizations include:

a. Teach students to become adept at classification skills (selecting criteria and sorting sets of things by many different attributes is excellent practice).

b. Teach students to locate the identifier of learning—practice perceiving the essential features, i.e. What makes a thing unique from everything else?

c. Teach students to group specific learnings into broader categories, i.e. generalizations.

A DIAGNOSTIC CHECKLIST FOR THIS SECTION WILL BE PASSED OUT AND DISCUSSED (319, 1976, SECTION IV) HANDOUT #43:
### REMEMBERING/TRANSFER PRINCIPLES

#### (Diagnostic Checklist)

**Long Range Objective:** A teacher uses the principles of remembering/transfer to facilitate learning.

**Diagnostic Checklist:**

1. The teacher builds meaning into lessons by relating new learnings to students' own experiences.
2. The teacher sequences instruction in such a way as to maximize remembering and transfer.
3. The teacher provides appropriate practice to increase the degree of initial learning.
4. The teacher calls the pupils' attention to relationships between the components of the content they are learning.
5. The teacher helps students locate the "identifier" in each new learning.
6. The teacher uses techniques such as modeling, vividness, and interruption to call attention to the content.
7. The teacher emphasizes concepts and generalizations rather than facts alone.
8. The teacher uses reinforcement and motivation principles to create positive feelings about new learning.
9. The teacher reteaches a lesson when the desired level of original learning has not been achieved by the students.
10. Teacher provides opportunity for students to apply their new learnings in many different situations.

**COMMENTS:**
The supervisor should consider the teacher's skills in appropriately developing and presenting a lesson to his students. The following forms may be helpful in focusing the supervisor's attention. THREE FORMS (219, 1976, FOLLOWING V.28) WILL BE GIVEN TO EACH PARTICIPANT AND WILL BE DISCUSSED IN TERMS OF THEIR POSSIBLE:

- MINI-CLINICAL OBSERVATIONS FORM--HANDOUT # 44
- EVALUATION SUMMARY FORM--HANDOUT #45
- THINGS TO LOOK FOR DURING A LESSON OBSERVATION HANDOUT #46
# MINI-CLINICAL OBSERVATION FORM

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Date</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Class/Subject</td>
<td>Time to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lesson topic</td>
<td></td>
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</table>

## I. LESSON OBJECTIVE:

--- Was there evidence of a lesson objective?

--- Did the lesson objective appear to be appropriate for the students?

--- Were the students achieving the lesson objective?

## II. USE OF TEACHING STRATEGIES:

--- Was the teacher Teaching to the Lesson Objective?

   Comments:

--- Was there evidence of Diagnosis and Prescription?

   Comments

--- Was the teacher Monitoring and Correcting?

   Comments:

--- Was the teacher Using Appropriate Educational Strategies?

   Comments:
# EVALUATION SUMMARY FORM

**Teacher** ________________  **Date** ________________

**Evaluator** ________________  **Grade** ________________

## Phase I. WHAT-WHO? (DIAGNOSIS-PRESCRIPTION-PLANNING)

A. Evidence of the instructional objective

B. Evidence that the objective was appropriate

C. Evidence of appropriate planning:
   - C.1 Selection of materials
   - C.2 Selection of strategies (activities)
   - C.3 Organization of the learners
   - C.4 Appropriate teaching sequence

## Phase II. HOW? (IMPLEMENTATION OF THE LESSON PLAN)

A. Evidence that the teacher's behavior facilitated the achievement of the instructional objective.
   - A.1 Set activity was relevant to the objective.
   - A.2 Appropriate questioning (convergent; divergent; evaluative)
   - A.3 Directions given by the teacher generate relevant overt behavior
   - A.4 Teacher responds only to relevant behavior.
   - A.5 Closure activity was relevant to the objective.
   - A.6 Appropriate guidance (teacher dominated; student dominated; teacher/student).

B. Evidence of appropriate use of motivation principles.
   - B.1 Tension or concern (level of anxiety)
   - B.2 Feeling tone
   - B.3 Interest
   - B.4 Success
   - B.5 Knowledge of results
   - B.6 Competition
   - B.7 Expectancy
C. Evidence of appropriate use of reinforcement principles.
   
   C.1 Positive reinforcement
   C.2 Negative reinforcement (punishers)
   C.3 Extinction

D. Evidence of appropriate use of remembering/transfer principles
   
   D.1 Meaning
   D.2 Degree of original learning
   D.3 Positive transfer is built into lessons
   D.4 Practice is appropriate to the objective

**RECOMMENDATIONS:**

**SUMMARY COMMENTS:**
THINGS TO LOOK FOR DURING A LESSON OBSERVATION

1. What was the objective?
2. Was it appropriate?
3. Did the students appear to be correctly diagnosed?
4. Did students have the necessary entry skills to reach the objective?
5. Did the teacher "set" the students for the lesson objective?
6. Were previously learned skills reviewed?
7. Were students motivated before and/or during the lesson?
8. Was reinforcement appropriately used?
9. Was the lesson sequenced?
   9.1 Easy to difficult
   9.2 Narrow to global
   9.3 General to specific
10. Were the students attending to the learning?
11. Was there a clarity of meaning in instruction?
12. Were directions clearly given?
13. Was there active participation of the learner?
14. Was there evidence of teacher monitoring during the lesson for comprehension?
15. Were students given an opportunity to practice or apply skills taught in the lesson?
16. Were techniques for retention used?
17. Was transfer of learning built into the lesson?
18. Did use of materials and activities facilitate the lesson?
19. Did the teaching style fit the lesson?
20. Were provisions made for evaluating the students prior to the end of the lesson?

21. Were students given knowledge of results?

22. If necessary, were provisions made for reteaching or extension?

23. Were students held accountable for their learning?

24. Was the objective achieved?
Session IV 1 Full Day

The following are the specific objectives of Session IV. At the end of this session the individual participants will:

1. Be able to analyze collected data and to identify teacher behaviors which should be maintained and those which should be changed.

2. Be able to develop strategies for helping teachers maintain or change identified patterns of behavior.

3. Be able to plan a post-observation conference.

4. Be able to give the teacher feedback in such a way that the supervisor and the teacher mutually develop strategies for needed behavior changes.

Analysis—Behaviors to Maintain; Behaviors to Change

PARTICIPANTS WILL BE ASKED TO READ A SELECTION ON HOW THE SUPERVISOR MAKES DECISIONS ON TEACHER BEHAVIORS HE WISHES TO MAINTAIN AND THOSE HE WISHES TO HELP THE TEACHER CHANGE (57, 1978, pp. 142-145) HANDOUT #47. THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS WILL BE DISCUSSED TO INSURE AN UNDERSTANDING OF THE MATERIAL:

1. Why should teaching behaviors be classified in terms of their effects on pupils?

   PURPOSE OF EDUCATION—DESIRED CHANGE IN PUPIL BEHAVIOR

2. Which teaching behaviors should be maintained and which should be changed?

   MAINTAINED—POSITIVE IN TERMS OF THEIR POSSIBLE EFFECTS ON STUDENTS.
CHANGED—IDENTIFIED AS NEGATIVE IN TERMS OF THEIR POSSIBLE EFFECT UPON PUPILS. THE SUPERVISOR AND TEACHER WORK TOGETHER TO IDENTIFY BOTH PATTERNS WHICH ARE POSITIVE AND THOSE WHICH ARE NOT AS FAR AS THEIR POSSIBLE EFFECTS ON STUDENTS.

3. Why should alternative change strategies be determined? ONE MAY NOT BRING ABOUT DESIRED RESULT. TEACHER SHOULD BE ABLE TO IMPLEMENT TECHNIQUE CHANGE.

4. When monitoring the implementation of the change strategies, with what should the supervisor concern himself?
   a. WHETHER OR NOT TEACHER IS USING TECHNIQUE
   b. WHETHER OR NOT STRATEGY FACILITATED DESIRED CHANGE
   c. WHETHER OR NOT THE CHANGE SATISFIED THE CRITERION SET FOR THE TEACHER’S AREA OF CONCERN (TERMINAL OR INTERMEDIATE GOALS MAY BE SET AT THIS POINT). INTERMEDIATE GOALS MAY BE SET LEADING UP TO ACCOMPLISHING THE TERMINAL GOALS.
DETERMINING MAINTENANCE OR CHANGE IN TEACHING BEHAVIOR

As you read through this material, attempt to answer the following questions: Why should teaching behaviors be classified in terms of their effects on pupils? Which teaching behaviors should be maintained and which changed? Why should alternate change strategies be determined? What is the benefit of using the prescribed analysis protocol?

The goal of Instructional Supervision is to improve Teacher's ability to confront and solve instructional problems. Therefore, the entire Process is aimed at what the teacher can do that will effect a desired change in the behavior of the pupils. In Step 6 we find out what the teacher can do when we identify or verify what behaviors should be maintained or changed. As you will recall, Instructional Supervision focuses on two types of behavior: pupil behavior, which is the target for change; and teacher behavior, which affects the target behavior. The target behaviors were defined by Supervisor and Teacher during the initial step of the Process. The goal of Step 6 is to identify or verify affecting behaviors.

Probably no teaching behavior is appropriate in all circumstances. A teaching behavior may produce desirable effects on pupils under certain conditions, but under other conditions the same behavior may have an adverse effect. To make the problem more complex, a particular teaching behavior may have desirable effects on some pupils and undesirable effects on others. For example, asking a particular analysis question may stimulate some pupils to pursue an analytic
process in trying to answer; but others may feel threatened because of past experiences with similar questions, and may "tune out" the teacher.

Because of the complexities of the teaching/learning encounter, Supervisor must rely heavily on his good judgment, based on personal teaching experience and the experiences of others with which he may be familiar, directly or vicariously. Combining this experience with that of Teacher, Supervisor will assist Teacher in making judgments about the appropriateness of teaching behaviors which are observed. In all cases the appropriateness of teaching behaviors should be judged in terms of their possible effect on pupil target behaviors. This relationship between affecting teaching behaviors and target pupil behaviors is, therefore, the key to the solution. Whether Teacher should initiate the use of certain teaching behaviors or modify or abandon others is dependent upon an estimate of the effects of these behaviors on the pupil target behaviors.

Maintain Positive Teaching Behaviors

After combining the Supervisor's and Teacher's experiences with observational data, Teacher, with Supervisor's assistance, will designate particular teaching acts as positive in terms of their possible effects upon the pupils. All such positive teaching acts should be maintained in subsequent teaching situations, as long as their effects upon the pupils are judged desirable. These positive incidents should be clearly defined in behavioral terms and should be discussed during the Postobservation Conference.

Teacher may identify these behaviors herself when she is shown the
data display. However, if she does not, Supervisor may point them out and encourage her to acknowledge their worth. In other words, Teacher should be aware of having performed the positive behaviors and of the value of continuing them.

Change Negative Teaching Behaviors
Any affecting behavior which can be identified as negative in terms of its possible effect upon the pupils is a behavior requiring change. As in the case of positive teaching acts, they should be behaviorally defined and discussed during the feedback session.

Hopefully, Teacher will identify some needed changed herself after she is shown the data display. She may describe possible effects upon pupils which differ from those the Supervisor has anticipated, but Teacher's perceptions may be equally valid; they should be accepted. Supervisor may also add his own insights, however, and try to develop in Teacher an awareness of the need for any changes which the latter fails to notice. If Teacher cannot see such a need, Supervisor may eventually have to point it out.

At times, an indication of a need for change will be provided by the failure to meet a previously established criterion. If the criterion is not met, Teacher, with Supervisor's assistance, should determine what behavioral change must be made for the goal to be reached. On the other hand, it may be seen that the criterion level is unrealistic. If so, it may be appropriate to introduce one or more intermediate goals. During the feedback session of the Post-observation Conference, Supervisor should reach mutual agreement with Teacher concerning proposed changes.
Specify strategies for each change. Several strategies should be identified for accomplishing each change. The particular choice of strategies, again, depends upon Supervisor's and Teacher's expertise and experience. Identify alternate strategies so that if one fails to produce the desired results, another technique can be tried.

Although Supervisor will encourage Teacher to propose her own change strategies during the Postobservation Conference, Supervisor should be prepared to augment Teacher's suggestions. Having prepared a list of possible strategies prior to the feedback session, Supervisor should be equipped to make those suggestions as necessary.

Although the data analysis may reveal the need for several changes in Teacher's behaviors, only one (or possibly two) change strategies should be implemented at any one time. The most effective procedure is for Supervisor and Teacher to agree upon a particular behavior needing to be changed and then to select strategies for achieving this change. Once Teacher has attained this particular goal, other problem behaviors can be addressed.

Determine effects of previous change strategies. During analysis, Supervisor and Teacher should determine whether previously specified changes have been made and whether or not the results of such changes are satisfactory. For example, suppose that Supervisor and Teacher had previously decided to monitor "student participation" during class discussion. After behaviorally defining this concern, Supervisor observed the class. Analysis of the resulting data indicated that Teacher was repeatedly calling on the same few pupils, both as volunteers and as nonvolunteers. At that point, Supervisor and Teacher
would have agreed upon some change to resolve the problem. They might decide, for example, that Teacher ultimately wanted each pupil in the class to respond at least once during a discussion. At the same time, they might have decided that Teacher would use a seating chart as a change strategy so that she could keep track of each pupil's pattern of responses.

During the second observation, then, Supervisor would be concerned with several items.

1. Is Teacher using the technique which was suggested (the seating chart)?

2. Has this strategy facilitated the desired change (more pupils in the discussion)?

3. Has this change satisfied the criterion set for Teacher's area of concern ("pupil participation")?

In such circumstances, it might be necessary to set two criteria for observation: (1) an original criterion or terminal goal, which specifies the final level of desired performance, related, in this case, to "pupil participation"; and (2) a secondary criterion (intermediate goal), specifying an acceptable level of performance for some behavior, and designed to help Teacher reach the terminal goal. The secondary criterion is an intermediate goal, constituting either the performance of some behavior related to the terminal goal or else performance of the same behavior as specified in the terminal goal but at a lesser level.

In the above example, the criterion might have been set as follows: Original Criterion (terminal goal)--Each pupil will
respond, voluntarily or nonvoluntarily, at least once in a 40-minute discussion period. Then, when it was decided that Teacher would record pupil responses on a seating chart (the selected change strategy), one of the following criteria could be set:

Secondary Criterion (intermediate goal) -- Teacher will call on at least three additional pupils in each period for the next six periods (a behavior related to the terminal goal). Or: More than half of the pupils will respond, voluntarily or nonvoluntarily, at least once in a 40-minute discussion period. (This would be a lesser performance level of the terminal goal.)

**ANALYSIS PROTOCOL**

The following format is useful when analyzing observational data. It not only calls attention to each specific type of analysis to be performed but also helps provide a manageable record of that analysis.

A. Target Behavior To Be Changed

1. ______________________________________________________________
2. ______________________________________________________________
3. ______________________________________________________________

B. Analysis

1. Data display
   a. Raw data
   b. Summary statements
2. Patterns
3. Comparisons
4. Criterion

C. Positive Behaviors To Be Maintained

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher Behavior</th>
<th>Relationship to Pupil Target Behavior</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
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<td>2.</td>
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</table>
### D. Negative Behaviors To Be Changed; Associated Strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching Behavior</th>
<th>Relationship to Pupil Target Behavior</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategies a.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategies a.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PARTICIPANTS WILL BE GIVEN AN EXERCISE (52, 1978, pp. 148-149) HANDOUT #48 IN WHICH THEY WILL ANALYZE RAW DATA AND WILL COME UP WITH STRATEGIES THEY BELIEVE WOULD HELP CHANGE THE TEACHER'S AFFECTING BEHAVIORS THEY FEEL SHOULD BE CHANGED.
ANALYSIS EXERCISE

Instructions: Teacher has been having a problem which has been defined in terms of target behaviors a "Pupils do not volunteer responses to questions in class." You and she have agreed that you will observe her discussion class, composed of 13 pupils, for the following categories of behavior.

Legend
- Q questions
- V volunteer responses
- NV nonvolunteer responses
- + reward
- - punishment

You have mutually decided upon the criterion that "Each pupil in the class will respond at least once during the discussion."

A. Using the analysis protocol, analyze the raw data provided below according to the following procedures:

1. Form a data display including:
   a. Raw data
   b. Summary statements
      (1) frequency counts
      (2) other (percentages, etc.)

2. Determine patterns of behavior.

3. Comparisons.

4. Determine if the criterion was met.

B. Based on your analysis, specify:

1. Positive affecting behaviors to maintained and their possible relationship to target behaviors.
2. Negative affecting behaviors to be changed and their possible relationship to target behaviors.

a. Strategies for accomplishing the changes.

Data

Class composition:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Boys</th>
<th>Girls</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>John</td>
<td>Debbie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sal</td>
<td>Paula</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bobby</td>
<td>Barb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mike</td>
<td>Donna</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robert</td>
<td>Linda</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bill</td>
<td>Cissie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mary</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>Pupil</th>
<th>Pupil Response</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Comments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Bobby</td>
<td>NV</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Bill</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>V</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Bobby</td>
<td>NV</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Mike</td>
<td>NV</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Donna</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Paula</td>
<td>V</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Bill</td>
<td>NV</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Bill</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Donna</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Paula</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Bill</td>
<td>NV</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Bill</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Bill smiled.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Donna</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Debbie</td>
<td>NV</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Paula</td>
<td>NV</td>
<td>-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Bobby</td>
<td>NV</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Mike</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Bobby</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Bobby:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Debbie</td>
<td>NV</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>&quot;Interesting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Debbie</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Class.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Mike</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Bobby</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Donna</td>
<td>NV</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>Paula had head</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Bill</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>on desk.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Mike</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Bill</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Bobby</td>
<td>V</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q</td>
<td>Bill</td>
<td>NV</td>
<td>+</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The supervisor is now ready to begin to plan the post-observation conference. As the supervisor develops his conference plan, he should remind himself that a good conference is like a good lesson in terms of reaching predetermined goals. The supervisor should see his role in most cases as a guide through the collected data and a "stimulator of activities which have learnings as their outcome" (210, 1973, p. 99). The supervisor "is a catalyst and energizer who assists the teacher to evaluate his own performance and plan for its improvement" (210, 1973, p. 99). The verbal interaction, give and take of opinion and information, between the supervisor and the teacher is the heart of a meaningful conference just as any exchange of viewpoints and information between a teacher and his students and among the students is the heart of a fruitful lesson.

The characteristics of helpful, meaningful feedback include (250, 1975, pp. 146-149):

1. Focus feedback on the actual performance of the teacher rather than on his personality.
2. Focus feedback on observations rather than assumptions, inferences, or explanations.
3. Focus feedback on description rather than evaluation.
4. Focus feedback on the specific and concrete rather than the general and abstract.
5. Focus feedback on the present rather than the past.
6. Focus feedback on sharing of information rather than on giving advice.
7. Focus feedback on alternatives rather than "the" best path.
8. Focus feedback on information and ideas phrased in terms of "more or less" rather than "either-or."
9. Focus feedback on what the teacher, the receiver, needs rather than on what you, the sender, need to get off your chest.
10. Focus feedback on what the teacher can use and manage rather than on all the information you have gathered.
11. Focus feedback on modifiable items rather than on what the teacher cannot do anything about.
12. Focus feedback on what the teacher requests from you rather than on what you could impose upon him.
13. Check the feedback you give by asking the teacher to summarize the points for both of you.

There are many strategies which can be considered (363, 1969, p. 31):

1. Inductive
   a. Ask the teacher what he thought took place during the lesson.
   b. Request data to substantiate what happened.
   c. Supervisor adds data.
   d. Through careful questioning or statements, try to develop in the teacher the "why" behind teaching behavior.
   e. Work cooperatively on a plan for improvement.

2. Non-directive
a. Stimulate interaction about the teaching.

b. Stimulate raising questions of in-depth analysis about certain points mentioned about the teaching.

c. Try to show how patterns emerge as the data are shared.

d. Plan for future action regarding improvement of teaching that is based on the insights gained during the interaction.

3. Socratic

a. Develop interaction that leads to specific points.

b. Examine these points in a critical fashion to determine which might be improved.

c. Guide the teacher in critically examining his own ideas and assist him in changing them according to the self-criticism he offers of these ideas.

In most cases the supervisor should use a problem-solving approach with the teacher in order not only to help the teacher develop these analyzing, problem solving skills, but also because if there is to be teacher growth and development the supervisor should be seen as a helpful colleague. The problem-solving approach can be understood more fully by comparing it to more directive approaches (210, 1973, pp. 103-104) HANDOUT #49. THE HANDOUT MATERIAL WILL BE DISCUSSED BY THE PARTICIPANTS.

THE LEADER WILL GIVEN EACH PARTICIPANT A COPY OF THE STEPS OF THE CONFERENCE STRATEGY DEVELOPED BY THE UNIVERSITY OF HOUSTON (205, 1974, pp. 39-43) HANDOUT # 50. THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN ADAPTED SLIGHTLY TO REFLECT WORKING WITH AN INSERVICE TEACHER RATHER THAN A STUDENT.
### Supervision Approaches

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Tell and Persuade</th>
<th>Tell and Listen</th>
<th>Problem-Solving</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Role of interviewer</td>
<td>Judge</td>
<td>Judge</td>
<td>Helper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective</td>
<td>To communicate evaluation</td>
<td>To communicate evaluation</td>
<td>To stimulate growth and development in a teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To persuade a teacher to improve</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assumptions</td>
<td>Teacher desires to correct weaknesses if he knows them</td>
<td>People will change if defensive feelings are removed</td>
<td>Growth can occur without correcting faults</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reactions</td>
<td>Defensive behavior suppressed</td>
<td>Defensive behavior expressed</td>
<td>Discussing job problems leads to improved performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Attempts to cover hostility</td>
<td>Teacher feels accepted</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skills</td>
<td>Salesmanship</td>
<td>Listening and reflecting feelings</td>
<td>Listening and reflecting feelings</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Patience</td>
<td>Summarizing</td>
<td>Using exploratory questions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Summarizing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Method</td>
<td>Tell and Persuade</td>
<td>Tell and Listen</td>
<td>Problem-Solving</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude</td>
<td>People profit from criticism and appreciate it</td>
<td>One can respect the feelings of others if one understands them</td>
<td>Discussion develops new ideas and mutual interests</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motivation</td>
<td>Use of positive or negative incentives or both (Extrinsic in that motivation is added to the job itself)</td>
<td>Resistance to change reduced</td>
<td>Increased freedom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Positive incentive (Extrinsic and some intrinsic motivation)</td>
<td>Increased responsibility (Intrinsic motivation in that interest is inherent in the task)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gains</td>
<td>Success most probable when teacher respects interviewer</td>
<td>Develops favorable attitude to superior which increases probability of success</td>
<td>Almost assured of improvement in some respects</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Risks</td>
<td>Loss of loyalty</td>
<td>Need for change may not be developed</td>
<td>Teacher may lack ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inhibition of independent judgment</td>
<td></td>
<td>Change may be other than what supervisor had in mind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Face-saving problems created</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Values</td>
<td>Perpetuates existing practices and values</td>
<td>Permits interviewer to change his views in the light of teacher's responses</td>
<td>Both learn since experience and views are pooled Change is facilitated</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
STEPS OF THE CONFERENCE STRATEGY

A. Select conference issues

The supervisor will select a reasonable number of issues for consideration with the teacher in the post-observation conference which will provide maximum support and learning for the teacher:

1. Identify teacher concerns and supervisor concerns not contemplated by the production targets but which appear appropriate for consideration.

2. Identify each teaching behavior which appears appropriate for consideration.

3. Identify (from the analysis and interpretation) each determination of congruency and compatibility or of the nature, extent and causes of any incongruency or incompatibility which appears appropriate for consideration.

4. Select as potential issues from concerns, teaching behaviors, and determinations identified, those which appear to be of sufficient importance for consideration.

5. Determine that each potential issue is illustrated by data adequate to support consideration.

6. Estimate the time required for each potential issue, and anticipate the number of issues which the team can consider without overloading the teacher.

7. Select the reasonable issues for consideration.

B. Sequence the issues for consideration

The supervisor will sequence the selected issues in a logical
order to maintain the empathic relationship and to provide for examination of the organized data for joint determination of congruence and compatibility (competence) and of objectives for further development of the teacher:

1. Identify from the selected issues the one the teacher may want to discuss first.

2. Identify from the selected issues the one the supervisor would discuss first, giving some weight to the selection of an issue which seems likely to promote the empathic relationship.

3. Determine from the nature of the two issues, if different, which should be considered first.

4. Identify, from the selected issues, the issue that will most likely lead to an identification of the next competency to be demonstrated in the next observation.

5. Determine when in the conference the identification of the next observation competency would be most effectively considered.

6. Identify any issues that would naturally lead to the team statement of the next observation.

7. Sequence those issues for the logical recognition of the next competency.

8. Identify those issues that seem unrelated to the next observation.

9. Sequence those unrelated issues for convenient use of the data, maximum support for the teacher and motivation for
the team—giving some weight to sequencing toward the end those issues which might not need consideration and could be eliminated to shorten the conference if time requires or the teacher shows signs of overload.

C. Determine the supervisor's teaching method

The supervisor will determine a teaching method for each of the sequenced issues to provide for either inductive, deductive, or shared exploration of the data to produce maximum learning:

1. Determine the warranted degree of time and attention required by each issue sequenced.

2. Anticipate the teacher's emotional reaction to the issue.

3. Examine the organized data to select specifics to be cited in the conference.

4. Determine whether or not the team needs more data and would profit from shared exploration.

5. If there appears to be no need to develop additional data, determine whether the issue or the teacher's anticipated reaction to the issue requires an inductive or a deductive approach.

6. Select the approach that would best serve the teacher's learning and facilitate the team's consideration of the issue.

D. Detail the procedure

The supervisor will detail the procedure for each issue, in accordance with the instructional method selected, to produce
in the conference a joint rational empathic resolution of each selected issue:

1. State the objective for the team's consideration of the issue.
2. Determine how you will verify the anticipated teacher's concern about the issue.
3. Determine options available for execution of the methods.
4. Select the execution option based on teacher's need.
5. Code, mark, or make the specific materials you will use for the consideration of the issue.
6. Record the statement, directive, or question that would introduce the issue consideration.
7. Record the statement, directives, or questions--consistent with the approach selected for the consideration of the issue--that would produce learning results.
8. Analyze the statements, etc. to insure their producing the expected results.
9. Consider what you will do if ... 
10. Record statements of directives that would conclude the consideration of the issues.
11. Determine and record a statement or question or directive to bridge to the next issue to be considered.

E. Detail plans for remainder of conference

The supervisor will detail plans for the remaining portions of the conference to prepare the team for productive examination of the issues and to apply conclusions drawn from consideration of
issues to the planning of further development for the teacher:

1. Detail an opening for the conference to set in motion the empathic relationship and resolve any revealed anxieties.
2. Detail a procedure to specify objectives for continued growth of the teacher.
3. Detail a procedure to prepare the teacher for the demonstration of the competency selected for the following observation.

F. Organize the total conference plan

The supervisor will organize the plan and materials in sequence for instant availability during the conference:

1. Outline in sequence the considerations for the total conference.
2. Organize all detailed plans and materials to be used in the conference in the order of anticipated use.

G. Prepare self for the conference

The supervisor will prepare self for empathic rational supervisory action in executing the designed conference plan:

1. Identify specific supervisory behaviors to be controlled.
2. Determine how the identified supervisory behaviors will be controlled.
3. Identify and determine how to control the supervisor's personal anxieties.
4. Review detailed plans, reread the questions, directives, and statements to become comfortable with the detailed method.
5. Practice any portions of the detailed method that may be uncomfortable.

6. Determine ways to maintain flexibility.

7. THINK empathic rational action.
As the supervisor plans the conference, he must be cognizant that "the attitude of the supervisor, the way he approaches the conference, is the most important element in establishing an appropriate psychological climate and atmosphere where teachers can express problems openly.

The recognition of the need of the other person to develop self-awareness before any meaningful changes can be made must be the critical factor in the supervisor's attitude" (2, 1976, p. 5).

The supervisor's attitude before and during the feedback conference should contain the following (3, 1976, pp. 5-6):

1. Acceptance of the other person and his stage of development and non-judgmental expression of the supervisor's opinions.
2. Allowing the other person to find his own answers. A person must bring his own problem out before he can begin to solve it. Each person must change himself if lasting change in behavior is to be made.

As the feedback session begins, the supervisor and the teacher should review the agreements which were reached during the pre-observation conference:

1. Teacher's area of concern
2. Criteria level which was set
3. The instrument to be used during the observation

The supervisor has carefully analyzed the data, drawn his own conclusions, and set objectives for the post-observation sessions; however, it is important that the supervisor realize his ultimate goal in this session is to train the teacher to analyze the data himself.
To make the session as productive as possible, the supervisor should show the prepared data display to the teacher, explain how data was collected and summarized, and work with the teacher to analyze the data. Together the supervisor and the teacher can make summary statements, recognize patterns, make comparisons, and determine if the criterion they set has been met.

As this data is presented to the teacher, his inferences, opinions, and feelings should be drawn out (4, 1980, p. 60). To be able to work with the teacher to help him develop skills of evaluating his behaviors and the results of those behaviors the supervisor is making several assumptions (4, 1980, p. 62):

1. Few teachers set out deliberately to do a bad job. Most have reasonable goals.
2. Most teachers have alternative strategies available and can use them if they see a need.
3. We don't see ourselves as others see us; being able to view our teaching from a new perspective can be enlightening experience.
4. Those insights we discover our ourselves tend to be retained and acted on with more energy and better spirit than those we are told about by others.
5. Many teachers prefer a collaborative, collegial approach instead of one in which the supervisor is regarded as superior.
6. Good data can be more persuasive than mere admonishments.

The following is an example of a conversation between the two which might take place as the teacher learns to analyze (57, 1978, p. 160):
Supervisor: Do you see any patterns of behavior in the data display?

Teacher: I...I'm not sure.

Supervisor: Look here at the observation sheet. What do you notice about the higher-order questions?

Teacher: Well, I only asked four of them.

Supervisor: That's true, but what about pupil responses?

Teacher: Gee, it looks like I got three or four answers for each higher-order question.

Supervisor: Right. Anything else?

Teacher: No, not that I can see.

Supervisor: What about the way you rewarded those responses?

Teacher: Why, it looks like I only rewarded the first response in each case.

Supervisor: That's right. So now I come back to my original questions. Do you see any patterns of behavior here?

Teacher: Now I see. Sure, higher-order questions resulted in multiple answers; that's one. But I only rewarded the first response to higher-order questions.

THE PARTICIPANTS WILL DISCUSS THE CONVERSATION AND IDENTIFY THE TECHNIQUES THE SUPERVISOR IS USING.

Once the teacher and supervisor have analyzed the data together, the teacher is ready to begin to solve his teaching problems by (57, 1978, p. 61):

1. Specifying behaviors which are positive in terms of their pupil effect and should be maintained.
2. Specifying behaviors which are negative in terms of their pupil effect and should be changed.

3. Formulating alternative strategies to accomplish the changes.

4. Deciding if it is appropriate to recycle the Process.

The supervisor has already gone through these steps as he analyzed his data. The teacher, however, should attempt to make these decisions for himself with the supervisor's guidance. When change is desired, one of the purposes of the post-observation conference is "to get the teacher to consider several alternatives and choose the most promising. Teachers should be able to give alternative explanations of why things might be happening the way they are and also to suggest several ways to change the situation or the strategy or the activities" (4, 1980, p. 63).

The supervisor must remember to use the same types of "freeing responses" and other interpersonal communication techniques in the post-observation conference as he did in the pre-observation conferences (clarifying questions, paraphrasing, perception checking, attentive listening).

The supervisor should also be careful to take into consideration what the person is feeling. "When the goal is to change behavior, affective aspects cannot be ignored. The emotions that can be expressed in a conference range from rage to despair from exhilaration to depression" (4, 1980, p. 78).

Graphically the clinical supervision process, feedback cycle can be viewed as follows (2, 1976, p. 8):
CLINICAL SUPERVISION PROCESS

1. Pre-observation Conference
2. Observation
3. Analysis of Data

Recycle

5. Second Observation

Clinical Supervision Cycle

4. Feedback Cycle

1. Opening Dialogue
2. Expanding Conversation, Extensive Question
3. Clarifying Thoughts, Intensive Question
4. Providing Information, Suggestive Question
5. Narrowing Future Actions, Selective Question

6. Agreement, Consensus Question
SECTIONS FROM "GUIDE FOR CONDUCTING AN EFFECTIVE FEEDBACK SESSION"
(2, 1976, pp. 9-40) HANDOUT #51 WILL BE GIVEN TO EACH PARTICIPANT.
THE TERMINOLOGY WILL BE DISCUSSED AND THE EXERCISES WILL BE DONE
INDIVIDUALLY BY THE PARTICIPANTS AND DISCUSSED BY THE ENTIRE GROUP.
A GUIDE FOR CONDUCTING AN EFFECTIVE FEEDBACK SESSION

If an effective feedback session is to take place, the responsible supervisor will have to manage six procedural steps, from opening dialogue to agreement on further actions through consensus. Each step includes the type of procedural question that helps the supervisor undertake the particular task and move to the next step. Descriptions of each type of procedural question in the questioning cycle and examples are listed below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type:</th>
<th>Purpose:</th>
<th>Example:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Extending</td>
<td>1. To broaden the discussion</td>
<td>1. &quot;What is the relationship between quality and quantity?&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question</td>
<td>2. To include additional facts</td>
<td>2. &quot;What other factors are important?&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intensive</td>
<td>1. To challenge old ideas</td>
<td>1. &quot;Why do you think so?&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questions</td>
<td>2. To clarify thinking</td>
<td>2. &quot;In what way is this important?&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suggesting</td>
<td>1. To develop new ideas</td>
<td>1. &quot;What ideas have you thought about that we haven't considered before?&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. To offer another possible way</td>
<td>2. &quot;Suppose we did it this way---is this feasible here?&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selecting</td>
<td>1. To make a choice between two</td>
<td>1. &quot;Which of these solutions is best for you, A or B?&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>or more alternative courses of action</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Type:</td>
<td>Purpose:</td>
<td>Example:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---------------</td>
<td>---------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Consensus</strong></td>
<td>1. To reach agreement</td>
<td>1. &quot;Can we agree?&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question</td>
<td>2. To define responsibilities and tasks to be accomplished</td>
<td>2. &quot;Can we plan what to do next?&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Concurrent with progressing through the session from one sequential step to another, the supervisor is also responsible for presenting the collected and organized data to the teacher. More importantly, the information should be presented in a fashion that is conducive to the teacher's making self-conclusions and interpretations. Hence, content-type questions encourage the teacher to gain understanding of the data and gain realization of their meaning. Content questions can be used at any stage of the questioning cycle. Following is a listing of the content-type questions, with examples of each:

**Content-Type Questions**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type:</th>
<th>Purpose:</th>
<th>Example:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>A. Open-ended</strong></td>
<td>1. To broaden the person's viewpoint</td>
<td>1. &quot;What else might be important?&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. To introduce a new phase</td>
<td>2. &quot;Where could we go from here?&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>B. Direct:</strong></td>
<td>1. To request for specific information</td>
<td>1. &quot;Precisely what would your suggestions?&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Addressed to specific area</td>
<td>2. To isolate a special area</td>
<td>2. &quot;Please be more detailed.&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3. &quot;Have you had any experience with it?&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Type: C. Relay: Referred back to previous dialogue or situation

Purpose: 1. To help avoid giving one's own opinion
2. To help establish continuity of thought

Example: 1. "How does this relate to what you said earlier?"
2. "Isn't this connected with . . . ?"

Type: D. Reverse: Referred back to person

Purpose: 1. To encourage the questioner to think
2. To clarify understanding

Example: 1. "First, what do you mean by . . . ?"
2. "Tell me what this says to you."

Type: E. Basic: The "W" questions: Who, What, When, Where, Why

Purpose: 1. To get fundamental information

Example: 1. "What materials were you using?"

EXERCISE: SCRIPT ANALYSIS: IDENTIFYING LISTENING AND QUESTIONING TECHNIQUES

This exercise is intended to provide practice in identifying listening and questioning techniques. The script chosen is of a feedback session between a sixth grade social studies teacher, an elderly woman, and her supervisor. In our opinion, the script represents the type of actual feedback sessions a supervisor undergoes with teachers and it illustrates most of the questioning and listening techniques discussed previously.

Activity:

1. Read script in its entirely.
2. Classify the supervisor's remarks by marking worksheet.
3. Check worksheet with author's choices.
4. Review script analysis.
TEACHER SUPERVISOR CONFERENCE

Teacher: Hi, Bill I realize I'm early, but may I come in?

1 Supervisor: Oh, hello, Helen. Of course, come in and have a seat.

T: Well?

2 S: Uh, just a second, let me get my notes together—uh, how are you feeling?

T: I'm feeling fine.

3 S: Good. Ummm, well, uh, we didn't really make any specific plans about where to go at this point. Was there anything special about the lesson that you'd...

T: I think that was an excellent lesson. (Pause) I think I was excellently prepared for that lesson. But the children, have you ever seen anything like it?

4 S: How do you mean?

T: They're unprepared. They're supposed to know things by the time they get to sixth grade. They haven't taught them things they should know.

5 S: They being?

T: And the materials I am given. They can't read the materials I've been given.

6 S: Some of them can't read sixth grade material?

T: That's right. And lazy—these children do not want to learn. They are rude—restless. They have not been properly prepared. And I'm supposed to teach them things they have not been prepared for properly.

7 S: It must be very frustrating to...

T: No, they just don't care, they're not interested in learning.

8 S: I meant for you.

T: Oh, right, yes. Very frustrating. (Pause) Their background is meager; totally inadequate for the kind of brainwork I would expect. I was told that the children were ready--

9 S: By whom?
T: Uh, that they were ready for sixth-grade work.

10 S: You mean the teacher they had last year—Do you think you were misinformed deliberately?

T: And it's not just in social studies. It's in everything in every subject.

11 S: I'm sorry, Helen, I'm having trouble understanding. I mean, it's almost the end of the year, and I'm not quite clear on why it was that the children did not cover material they were supposed to and on who it was that created false impressions about what they were ready for, ready to move on.

T: Well, I don't know that I want to name names. But I have only had these children for two weeks in social studies and before that other teachers were working with them.

12 S: I didn't realize that and so if I understand correctly you're saying that they weren't adequately prepared by the other teachers and also that the other teachers led you to believe that they were ready to go on with certain material--

T: But they are not ready.

13 S: Ummm. I wonder why communications broke down, or why there seems to be such a difference between--

T: So you see they're just not prepared. They have no background.

14 S: In anything?

T: It's very disappointing.

15 S: Uh, Helen, I wonder if it might help us to get a handle on these things, that is, to understand these problems better if I read through my notes out loud, you know, and tried just to recreate the lesson as it took place--so that we could examine it in somewhat more detail.

T: (no response)

16 S: Would that be useful, do you think?

T: Oh, you want me to say whether we should do that?

17 S: (Laughs) I don't know that I want--sure. How would you feel about doing it that way?

T: Do you feel there were things wrong in what I did?
18 S: Wrong?

T: Yes.

19 S: Yes, I do (Pause) So what?

T: I don't know what to say.

20 S: Look, Helen, I'd be less than honest if I tried to make you believe that I don't have feelings about the teaching I see. I mean, the truth is that I make value judgments all over the place. But first how I feel, personally, about a lesson—at least in certain respects—doesn't make a bit of difference. And second I just about take it for granted that there will always be problems in a lesson. I generally expect that such things will exist in almost any lesson because teaching is tough. It's complicated. It's a very complicated business. And where I see the use of this kind of supervision is in examining just what did go on in a lesson, not as an end in itself but for purpose of clearly defining whatever problems existed in order to be on top of things when planning the next lesson. I don't feel that there's any sin attached to weaknesses or that they should be embarrassing to examine. On the contrary, I think if there's any sin at all, it's in one's failure to search for the problems, to bring them to the surface in order to do something about them. Well, uh, I'm sorry. I didn't want to make a speech. I just do want to say, honestly, yes, I do feel that there were things that went wrong in the lesson. I hope we can look at them closely and try to work things out for tomorrow's teaching, and the next day's, and I hope, too, that I can say this to you without your imagining that I'm expressing negative feelings about you. I mean when I say yes, I think certain things did go wrong in the lesson, I'm not saying any more or less than that.

T: No one has ever said that to me before.

21 S: That--

T: That there was anything wrong with my teaching. (Pause)

22 S: This is the first time?

T: Yes.

23 S: And it makes you feel--

T: (Pause) Relieved. It seems very surprising to feel that way.

24 S: You experience a sense of relief in being confronted directly by the suggestion that there were weakness in your teaching?
S: And you feel surprised to discover that feeling or relief?

T: Yes, I have been afraid of this, but it doesn't seem so terrible right now.

25 S: Yes. I understand what you're saying. (Pause).

T: Perhaps if we just dealt with some of the things, rather than with everything in it.

26 S: Sure, if you'd like. (Pause) Is there anything in particular?

T: Uh, no, uh, I thought perhaps there was something you felt was important.

27 S: All right. I think what matters, in the long run, is what you feel is important, but I can raise some questions, and then if any of them seem like something we should examine to you, we can deal with it. Is that all right?

T: Yes, that sounds very good.

28 S: OK. Let's see (glances through notes). Uh, about this analogy between trips and revolutions— I wondered where that idea came from.

T: That came from the manual, such a clever idea I thought.

29 S: This idea came from the manual?

T: Yes, I have it right here (Teacher reads from her manual). Here it is, "Ask the pupils whether they can see relationships between planning for a vacation and planning for a revolution.

30 S: Ah, yes. I think I understand better now. Ummm. Helen, let me state two questions that may sound very much the same and ask if you can find any important differences between them. Uh, let's imagine that we're pupils in the class and the teacher asked the question, "Can you see relationships between planning for a trip and planning a revolution?" Now, let's try again to imagine the teacher asking a somewhat different question, "In what way is planning a revolution like planning a trip?" Would these questions have different effects upon your thinking?

T: It sounded the same to me.

31 S: Um, they are very much the same, I'm sorry. The difference I'm wondering about is between a question that asks whether relationships actually exist and another question that asks in what ways two things are alike. (while the Supervisor was
S: expressing this question, Teacher shifted posture so that her
face was no longer directly visible to him. It appeared
that she was studying the manual as he made his comment.
Silence followed his statement and as the pause lengthened.
Supervisor became uncertain about what was happening. Al­
though he could not see her face, he began to wonder, correctly
whether she was crying).

32 S: Helen?

T: (Sobbing) I'm not ready yet. (Weeping, Pause) I'm sorry.

33 S: (Passing her a box of tissues) Helen, what is it?

T: I'm very, very sorry.

34 S: No, if anything I'm sorry for not sensing how troubled you
feel. (Pause) Do you want to talk about it?

T: I don't understand what's happening. (Pause) I feel very
bad.

35 S: Is it your health?

T: I don't know. I have been upset recently. I feel confused,
too many things are happening. (Pause) I am fearful.

36 S: Afraid, fearful?

T: Yes, except, except I am--I don't know of what.

37 S: You're not sure what it is that frightens you?

T: That's it, yes. And, like just now, I suddenly find I am
crying or perspiring; I've never had such feelings before.

38 S: A great deal of feeling has come to the surface; feelings that
seem unfamiliar? New feelings, yes. And new experiences.
Having your teaching observed; talking about your work.

T: I suppose that's a part of it. I feel faint.

39 S: Can I help you?

T: No, not now, I don't mean. I mean I have been feeling faint,
very tired, disorganized.

40 S: Have you seen a doctor? A physician?

T: Not in years. I've been meaning to have a physical, but I
just don't seem to get around to it. Perhaps I should see a
psychiatrist.
41 S: In such distress, you know, feeling confused, frightened, I shouldn't hesitate myself to take advantage of a psychiatrist.

T: That's not an easy thing to do.

42 S: No, it isn't. Is there anything that I--

T: I feel as though I am not a part, left out of things. I have always enjoyed teaching so much, and now, somehow, I feel left out of everything. Maybe it's my own fault in some way. Things happen so quickly and time goes so slowly, quickly, and slowly.

THE CONFERENCE CONTINUES ALONG THE SAME LINE

60 S: I am very eager for you to feel better about what goes on here; to play a happier part in it, to feel more satisfaction.

T: (Sighs) Yes, perhaps, well, thank you.

61 S: Shall we meet again later this week or wait til next week?

T: Later this week, I think.

62 S: (consulting desk calendar) How's Friday, same time?

T: That's fine, yes; that's good. (Pause) Will you want to watch me teach then?

63 S: I think that is something we can talk about at our next conference, then together we can decide on which is the best or most helpful course of action. I believe that this conference has served some useful purposes. We have brought your feelings and anxieties about yourself and the changes you've observed to the surface where they can be more easily dealt with. We still have many things to talk over but we have made the first step.

T: Yes, I do believe we have accomplished somethings--at least I won't be as anxious at the next conference. Now I must get back, the children are coming.
LISTED BELOW IS A BRIEF EXPLANATION OF HOW THE AUTHORS REGARD EACH STATEMENT AND THUS WHY THEY CHOSE THE RESPONSES MARKED ON THE ANSWER WORKSHEET. EACH STATEMENT DISCUSSED IN THIS SECTION WILL HAVE THE NUMBER OF THE STATEMENT AS GIVEN IN THE CONFERENCE SCRIPT SO THAT THE READER MAY CHECK BACK AND USE THE NUMBER AS A REFERENCE POINT.

1. Nos. 1 and 2 are remarks which would be classified as opening dialogue.
2. No. 3 is an extending, open-ended question designed to get the conference started.
3. No. 4 is an intensive question aimed at trying to clarify the T's previous statement. It is also an example of a reverse question in which the T's question is placed back to her.
4. No. 5 is another intensive question and also an example of a basic Q. The supervisor is essentially asking "Who".
5. No. 6 is a restatement of the T's remarks which indicates that the S is listening and that he understands the problem.
6. No. 7 has the S using the reflecting type of listening, focusing on the T's own feelings and trying to bring them into sharper awareness.
7. No. 8 is a clarifying remark in which the S tries to make his own intent clear.
8. No. 9 is a basic type of intensive question; again the S is asking "Who".
9. No. 10 is a clarifying statement in which the S is trying to bring the T's vague statements into sharper focus. It also includes an intensive, direct Q.
10. No. 11 is a clarifying listening technique in which the S expresses the ambiguity that he himself feels.
11. No. 12 exhibits both attending behavior and the restating technique. In the first part of the response the S comments on the T's previous statement and thus indicates that he is paying attention. In the second part he briefly restates her remarks.
No. 13 seems to be an extending question aimed at including additional facts in the discussion.

No. 14 is an example of a clarifying statement.

No. 15 is a suggesting Q in which the S tries to offer another way of exploring the problem. It could also be regarded as an open-ended Q used in an attempt to broaden the discussion and yet get it back on the track.

No. 16 could be a consensus Q and it is also relayed back to the T in order to keep the S from expressing his personal opinion.

No. 17 is another consensus Q aimed at getting the T's agreement to the change in the conference format.

No. 18 could be considered either a clarifying statement or an intensive Q which would have the same purpose—clarification.

No. 19 is both a clarifying statement made by the S and also a reverse Q in which the remark is referred back to the T to clarify her understanding of the S's comment.

No. 20 is a summarizing statement by the S in which he puts together his feelings and attitudes about the subject and which he seems to be using as a check point for further discussion.

No. 21 indicates attending behavior.

No. 22 is a brief restatement of the T's remark in order to clarify her position.

No. 23 could be either a clarifying listening technique or a reverse Q.

No. 24 is a good example of a reflecting statement which both summarizes the T's feelings and restates them briefly and clearly.

No. 25 shows attending behavior.

No. 26 is another extending, open-ended Q aimed at broadening the discussion.

No. 27 seems to include both clarifying listening and a consensus Q in which the S is trying to get agreement from the T as to the best way to proceed.

No. 28 is a direct type of intensive Q in which the S is trying to get some specific information and thus turn the discussion to more valuable points.
No. 29 is another direct intensive Q.

No. 30 is a suggesting Q aimed at trying to develop a new idea or an alternative way of presenting the material. It is also a relay Q, going back to previous dialogue.

No. 31 is another suggesting Q.

No. 32 can be regarded as attending behavior.

No. 33 can be considered a basic Q; one in which the S is trying to get information.

No. 34 illustrates both some reflection of the T's feelings and asks a basic Q.

No. 35 is a basic Q.

Nos. 36, 37, and 38 are all examples of the reflecting technique.

No. 39 asks a basic Q and could also be regarded as attending behavior in which the S shows interest and concern.

No. 40 is a very basic direct type of Q which also indicates concern for the T.

No. 41 is an example of the reflecting technique.

No. 42 indicates attending behavior.

No. 60 shows attending behavior.

No. 61 seems to be a selecting Q as it is offering the T a choice.

No. 62 is a direct, basic question.

No. 63 is a summarizing statement which brings the conference to a close and also pulls together some of the decisions reached in the feedback session.
Participants will complete a post-observation exercise (57, 1978, p. 165) handout #52. They will first identify if the supervisor is involved in:

1. Giving feedback or determining a strategy

2. Which communication skill the supervisor is using
   A. Asking clarifying questions
   B. Paraphrasing
   C. Perception checking
   D. Offering information
   E. Active, attentive listening
   F. Cueing

The following example should be put on the board:

T: If I call on Eddie once in a while, he may be willing to wait his turn and not talk out so much in class.

S: Could be. What do you mean by "every once in a while"?

Step: Strategy determination

Skill: Clarifying question

An audio tape of a post-observation conference will be played. The participants will be asked to mark the post-observation checklist they will be given. It will be discussed after the tape is played.
1. S: If you remember, we decided that I would observe your next discussion lesson to see if you were performing the sequence of asking a question, receiving a response, and then redirecting that same question to at least one other student before asking another question.

T: Yes, but I didn't do very well.

S: Do you think that you didn't follow the sequence?

Step: ____________________________

Skill: ____________________________

2. T: But I don't want to stop introducing new words into the discussion.

S: Can you think of a way that you might use new words, and still communicate their meaning to the pupils?

Step: ____________________________

Skill: ____________________________

3. T: I see from your observation that I didn't ask the seven higher-order questions I had planned. But how did that relate to the factual questions?

S: Well, I noted here that you decreased the number of factual questions from ten to four.

T: Great! That must mean I'm on the right track.

Step: ____________________________

Skill: ____________________________

4. S: What would be another advantage of having students answer each other's questions?

T: If I could get the students to answer each other, then they might listen more carefully and participate in the discussion.

Step: ____________________________

Skill: ____________________________

5. T: I know that I didn't do well this time and the data shows it. I keep confusing prompting questions with clarifying questions.
S: It sounds like you're feeling frustrated over your inability to discriminate between the two. Am I right?

Step:______________________________________________________________

Skill:______________________________________________________________

6. T: That was a fun brainstorming session today; I really enjoyed it.

   S: Remember, I was observing to see if you accepted all student answers and did not interrupt their thinking by asking probing questions?

   T: Right, but that was hard to do.

   S: Which one was "hard"? Accepting answers, or not interrupting with probing questions?

Step:______________________________________________________________

Skill:______________________________________________________________

7. S: Do you think you can derive any other information from the data?

   T: No, I think I've mentioned everything.

   S: Well, I noticed that you didn't use any prompting questions.

Step:______________________________________________________________

Skill:______________________________________________________________

8. T: I feel better about lecturing now.

   S: Do you mean you feel that you feel that you can concentrate more easily?

   T: Well, I think the students are learning more because I'm presenting the material systematically.

   S: Good. Now, let's first review the sequence I was going to observe. You were to present your information, give at least one example, then briefly summarize the point you wanted to make, right?

Step:______________________________________________________________

Skill:______________________________________________________________
9. **T:** I was afraid that strategy wasn't going to work. According to the data, I was right.

   **S:** Can you see a reason why it might not have worked?

   **T:** Probably because... Oh, I really don't know.

   **S:** Do you think it would help if you explained what you were doing?

   **T:** That's a good idea.

---

**Step:**

**Skill:**

---

10. **T:** Did you find out anything?

    **S:** These raw data are the result of my observation. What kind of statements can you make about them?

    **T:** Well... one thing is that more students participated in the discussion. But I don't know if that was good or not.

    **S:** What do you mean by "good or not"?

    **T:** Well, even though more students participated, there were more wrong answers given, and I don't like that.

    **S:** Do you mean it bothers you when a student answers a question incorrectly?

---

**Step:**

**Skill:**
SESSION V  1 FULL DAY

The following are the specific objectives of Session V. At the end of this session, the individual participants will:

1. Have reviewed all the steps in clinical supervision through application.
2. Understand the importance of monitoring and improving his own behavior as a supervisor.
3. Have the necessary techniques and skills to monitor his own behavior as a supervisor.

PRIOR TO THIS SESSION EACH PARTICIPANT WILL BE ASKED TO:

1. RECORD A PRE-OBSERVATION CONFERENCE WITH A TEACHER.
2. OBSERVE TEACHER'S CLASS, USING THE INSTRUMENT CONSTRUCTED IN THE PREVIOUS STAGE TO RECORD THE SPECIFIED BEHAVIORS.
3. ANALYZE THE DATA OBTAINED AS FULLY AS POSSIBLE, ACCORDING TO THE PROCEDURES OF ANALYSIS THEY HAVE LEARNED. WRITE OUT THIS ANALYSIS.
4. IDENTIFY POSITIVE BEHAVIORS TO MAINTAIN, NEGATIVE BEHAVIORS TO BE CHANGED, AND STRATEGIES FOR ACCOMPLISHING THE CHANGES.
5. TAPE-RECORD THE POST-OBSERVATION CONFERENCE WITH TEACHER.
6. BRING THE WRITTEN MATERIALS TOGETHER WITH THE RECORDINGS OF THE TWO CONFERENCES TO SESSION V.

COMPONENT OF A "SUCCESSFUL" POST-OBSERVATION CONFERENCE WILL BE DISCUSSED. A VIDEO TAPE OF A POST-OBSERVATION CONFERENCE HELD BY THE COORDINATOR WILL BE SHOWN. THE PARTICIPANTS WILL DISCUSS THE "SUPERVISOR'S" PERFORMANCE USING THE CHART PROVIDED IN THE ARTICLE.

According to Audrey S. Graves of the University of Houston, the supervisor should continue to analyze and assess his own personal competence and refine his objectives for personal growth. She outlines the following steps of conference analyses and assessment (205, 1974, pp. 48-49) HANDOUT #53. THIS MATERIAL WILL BE DISCUSSED IN LIGHT OF THE NEED FOR THE INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISOR TO BE AWARE OF HIS OWN NEED FOR PROFESSIONAL GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT.

As a check on his own growth and development as an instructional supervisor, the supervisor should consider taping a few of his conferences with teachers and then analyzing his own effectiveness in terms of the related professional goals he has set. THE ANALYSIS FORM "COMPETENCIES--SUPERVISOR BEHAVIORS--INDICATORS" FROM THE UNIVERSITY OF HOUSTON'S ERA PROJECT (203, 1974, p. 125) HANDOUT #54 WILL BE GIVEN TO EACH PARTICIPANT. THE FORM WILL BE DISCUSSED IN TERMS OF ITS USEFULNESS AND IN TERMS OF THE SUPERVISOR'S ON-GOING NEED TO REFINE AND EXPAND HIS OWN SKILLS.
CONFERENCE ANALYSES AND ASSESSMENT

A. Determine objectives for production by the supervisor in a selected conference.

The supervisor will select for demonstration supervisory competencies from the process and identify supervisory behaviors for self-analysis, interpretation and assessment which reflect competence in each selected competency; select performance and consequence indicators for each selected supervisory behavior; and identify a production target for each selected supervisory behavior.

B. Collect data

The supervisor will arrange for recording by a compatible observer of objective data consistent with the determined objectives for production and in accordance with selected indicators; or will arrange for recording by mechanical equipment; or will reconstruct objectively, from recollection, any relevant data not furnished by other records.

C. Organize the data

The supervisor will classify specific behaviors (if not already classified according to selected indicators, code any verbatim notes, organize any tallies, and select appropriate portions of any audio or VTR tape, to the extent appropriate for the supervisor's convenience in self-analysis, interpretation and assessment.

D. Analyze and interpret the organized data
The supervisor will determine congruence and compatibility (competence) for each selected supervisory behavior; will determine the nature, extent and cause of any incompatibility, including inference of causes from other supervisory behavior in any phase or cycle of the supervisory process.

E. Assess to determine the category of the action requisite
The supervisor will assess his own supervisory competence demonstrated (congruence and compatibility) and the nature, extent and cause of any incongruence or incompatibility, for each selected supervisory behavior; and will determine the category of the action requisite for each selected supervisory behavior.

F. Revise objectives for supervisor development
The supervisor will determine and revise objectives for his own personal growth.

1. Identify the direction of the action requisite for each selected supervisory behavior assessed from the selected conference.

2. Review and, if appropriate, revise the supervisor's personal growth plan to record any relevant information.

3. NON-CYCLICAL
Periodically, when appropriate, review, refine and revise supervisory identification of personal ideal supervisor characteristics, attitudes and style consistent with the described process of supervision.
4. **NON-CYCLICAL**

Periodically, when appropriate, review the supervisor's action needs for maintenance, refinement or development of specific supervisory behaviors informally identified by the supervisor in his practice of constant instantaneous analysis, interpretation and assessment of his own supervisory behaviors contemporaneously with his performance in each phase of the process for supervision.

5. **NON-CYCLICAL**

Periodically, when appropriate, review and revise the supervisor's personal growth plan to record any relevant information.

G. Prepare for the next selected conference analysis and assessment

The supervisor will select tentatively for demonstration supervisory competencies, and select tentatively supervisory behaviors for analysis and assessment, in the next selected conference.
"KNOWLEDGE IS ONLY A BEGINNING STEP ON THE ROAD TO COMMITMENT AND ACTION. ALONG THE WAY THERE IS A NEED FOR REINFORCEMENT, PRACTICE, FEEDBACK AND SUPPORT. FOR EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS TO FUNCTION CREATIVELY AND EFFECTIVELY IN THE CHANGING AND CHALLENGING SCHOOL ENVIRONMENT, WORKING KNOWLEDGE OF METHODS IN IDENTIFYING AND PRIORITIZING PROBLEM AREAS, DEVELOPING AND IMPLEMENTING APPROACHES TO MANAGE THEM, ANALYZING OUTCOMES, AND DERIVING STRATEGIES TO CONTINUE OR CHANGE ACTION IS ESSENTIAL" (41, 1978, p. 19).

THEREFORE, THE FOLLOWING STEPS WILL BE USED TO PROVIDE THE PRACTICE, FEEDBACK AND SUPPORT NEEDED BY THE PARTICIPANTS IN ORDER TO MAKE THE SKILLS AND UNDERSTANDINGS COVERED IN THE INSERVICE SESSIONS A USABLE PART OF THEIR REPERTOIRE OF SKILLS:

1. VIDEO RECORDING OF A PRE-OBSERVATION CONFERENCE, CLASSROOM OBSERVATION, AND POST-OBSERVATION CONFERENCE WILL BE SHOWN TO THE PARTICIPANTS. THEY WILL ASKED TO CRITIQUE THE TECHNIQUES AND SKILLS USED BY THE "SUPERVISOR".

2. THE MATERIALS BROUGHT TO THIS SESSION BY THE PARTICIPANTS, THE RECORDINGS OF THE TWO CONFERENCES AND THE INSTRUMENT USED TO COLLECT DATA IN THE CLASSROOM, WILL BE CRITIQUED BY THE GROUP.

3. ARRANGEMENTS WILL BE MADE DURING THIS SESSION FOR THE PARTICIPANTS TO FORM TEAMS OF THREE (TWO PARTICIPANTS PLUS THE COORDINATOR WILL BE A MEMBER OF EVERY GROUP). EACH PARTICIPANT WILL WORK (THROUGH THE ENTIRE PROCESS) WITH ONE OF HIS OWN TEACHERS IN HIS OWN SCHOOL WITH THE OTHER MEMBERS OF THE TEAM SERVING AS OBSERVERS AND "CRITICS".