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IN QUEST OF A COMPREHENSIVE MODEL FOR EDUCATIONAL SUPERVISION: AN ETHNOGRAPHIC INQUIRY

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro ED.D. 1983

IN QUEST OF A COMPREHENSIVE MODEL FOR EDUCATIONAL SUPERVISION: AN ETHNOGRAPHIC INQUIRY

by

Larry Douglas Allred

A Dissertation submitted to
the Faculty of the Graduate School at
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro
in Partial Fulfillment
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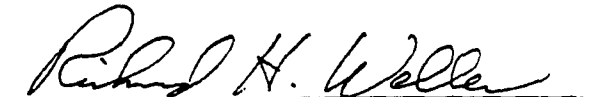

Dissertation Advisor

APPROVAL PAGE

This dissertation has been approved by the following committee of the Faculty of the Graduate School at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

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ALLRED, LARRY DOUGLAS. In Quest of a Comprehensive Model for Educational Supervision: An Ethnographic Inquiry. (1983) Directed by: Dr. Richard H. Weller. PP. 208.

The purpose of this dissertation was to create a comprehensive model of educational supervision. A selected review focusing on supervisory theories and practices provided insights for its conceptualization. Basic components included a unified theory that embraces strengths of previous models, a consultant approach for applying that theory, and a process for effecting change. It was assumed that these components would constitute a viable model for transcending the narrow and compartmentalized manner by which supervision has been historically defined and practiced. A more effective means of achieving the broad goals of supervision might thereby result.

The unified theory encompassed three domains and their interactions: organizational behaviors, human relationships, and professional development. Each domain was an essential element in effecting the broad changes for achieving instructional improvement.

The consultant approach included the spending of an extended time period in a single setting. It was assumed that several months would be sufficient to enable staff supervisors to use a holistic theoretical focus in implementing a change process.

The process for effecting change followed Sarason's (1972) suggestions. He noted that successful change requires time, widespread commitment, sustained relationships,

an understanding of a setting's history and culture, a balance between external and internal leadership as well as continuous support and professional assistance.

To illuminate the operation of this model and as a means of determining its transferability, a field study was conducted for approximately four months in the fall of 1982 at a middle school in High Point, North Carolina. Using the anthropological technique of participant-observation supplemented by formal and informal interviews, the writer concluded that the components of the model functioned together as complementary forces in effecting sustained organizational, professional, and personal growth. The model worked and appears to be a potent means for achieving instructional improvement and other broad goals of supervision.

Recommendations for further research included the replication of this model to establish leadership networks for sharing talents, skills, and resources among several schools. It was also suggested that this model be examined as a means for the continuing professional development of career educators.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Sincere appreciation is expressed to the many persons who provided the encouragement and assistance throughout the doctoral program that culminated with the writing of this dissertation. Of the many who helped in diverse ways, I thank Richard H. Weller for his empathy, patience, and insightful criticism. I express thanks to Dwight Clark, Thomas Fitzgerald, and Lois Edinger for their support and guidance during the learning process.

Gratitude is also expressed to my parents, my wife, Diane, my daughter, Catherine, and my son, Jason, whose patience, understanding and support were sources of strength.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

The current state of educational supervision can be illustrated by the tale of five blind men (Brown, 1978) who, in attempting to discover what an elephant was and how it functioned seized isolated parts and assumed they had captured its totality. Each had captured a fragment of truth about a distinguishing characteristic, but each had erred in assuming that he had discovered the elephant's essence. Similarly, an examination of supervision reveals fragmentation, incompleteness, and confusion regarding what supervision is and how it functions. Diverse perceptions have led to a number of problems described by several sources (Blumberg, 1974; Unruh, 1977; Anderson, 1982) to include a growing sense of distance and aloofness between teachers and supervisors; a growing lack of mutual trust and support; and a failure to comprehend the interrelatedness between teaching and supervision. These perceptions and their accompanying problems have their sources not only within individual personalities, but also within fragmentary theories which in practice have led to ambiguity and compartmentalization.

Rationale

Supervision within an educational context can be conceptualized and practiced in several ways. The literature is replete with models. Within this century, supervision has shifted from an inspectorial model concerned with examining buildings and removing weak teachers (Barr, Burton & Brueckner, 1947; Gwynn, 1961; Mosher & Purpel, 1972; Mark, Stoops, & King-Stoops, 1971) to a scientific model emphasizing uniform standards (Lucio & McNeill, 1979; McNeill, 1982), to a model focusing upon human social needs (Wiles, 1967; Bartky, 1953). Two recent models include one concentrating on the instructional process (Cogan, 1969; Goldhammer, 1973) and one blending the earlier scientific-technical and human models into a "new" model, the neo-scientific (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1979; McNeill, 1982).

These models have colored perceptions about supervision, causing it to be defined in fragments centering around organizational goals, human factors, or the professional techniques and skills related to instruction. They have not comprehensively addressed the multifaceted and dynamic nature of supervision. According to recent writings (Anderson, 1982; Pohland & Cross, 1982), these models, sharing an interest in control, have largely restricted the context within which most teachers and supervisors function. The result is that teacher-supervisor relations have

solidified at the superordinate-subordinate level, contributing to abrasiveness, distance, and denial of human potential (Lucio & McNeill, 1979; Blumberg, 1974; Eash, 1969; Eisner, 1982).

Teachers' and supervisors' perceptions reveal the magnitude of these problems. Many teachers still see supervisors as enforcers, a perception attributed to an early inspectorial function (Gwynn, 1961; Mosher & Purpel, 1972). Other teachers see them not only as inspectors, but representatives of a bureaucratic hierarchy responsible for ensuring conformity to organizational standards (Sergiovanni & Carver, 1980). Still others view supervisors as remote functionaries with little personal and professional concern about teachers (Lucio & McNeill, 1979). Blumberg (1974) described teachers perceiving supervisors as aliens within their environment. Furthermore, Blumberg (1974) indicated that even teachers who sense a connection often admit that supervisors really do not understand their particular situation.

Blumberg and Amidon's findings (1965) indicated that teachers feel that supervision is a waste of time and that it does not improve instruction. Guss (1969) revealed that teachers want to avoid supervision because they consider it a threat. Other teachers are dubious about the human relations base (Neville, 1969). Still others feel that supervision is of limited use and the only meaningful help

they receive comes from peers (Valverde, 1982; Alphonso & Goldsberry, 1982).

Supervisors have their own concerns and perceptions. They feel that they have been delegated impossible tasks, frequently without a voice in decision-making regarding those tasks. They feel like marginal persons, always on the periphery, charged with an ever-widening set of responsibilities without the facilities or authority to carry them out (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1979; Blumberg, 1974).

Supervisors often perceive themselves as operating as part of a central office staff and thus leave direct instructional supervision to principals. Although principals have formal authority for teacher evaluation and instructional improvement, they are charged with such an array of responsibilities that instructional supervision typically becomes a low priority. Furthermore, instructional improvement becomes difficult if not impossible for principals to direct because of the evaluative nature of their jobs. As evaluators, their suggestions are likely to be interpreted as mandates to be obeyed rather than ideas to be weighed and explored (Firth & Eiken, 1982). Instructional improvement involves change. Change, in turn, requires exploration, risk-taking, and exposing oneself to failure (Wiles, 1967; Neville, 1969).

Teachers find it difficult to risk failure with anyone who makes official judgments of them since failure can be

construed as symptomatic or poor teaching. Moreover, change, with its inherent risk-taking, necessitates mutual acceptance, affiliation, and a positive self-esteem, rising from meaningful involvement (Wiles, 1967). Principals, while having decision-making authority regarding instructional improvement, find such improvement difficult to attain since this authority limits their acceptance by teachers. Staff supervisors, who are not involved in teacher evaluation, are in a better position to encourage mutual acceptance, affiliation, and risk-taking. However, without formal authority to obtain resources and to remove obstacles blocking improvement, they must generally rely upon their professional knowledge and influence with principals, who occasionally view them as potential "meddlers." The role of the supervisor becomes one of the most ambiguous in the school system (Lucio & McNeill, 1979; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1979; Blumberg, 1974; Nelson & Petitt, 1982).

Statement of the Problem

It is evident that there are serious problems in educational supervision. These symptoms, highlighting the fragmentation, distance, and confusion occurring in the field are the result of at least three larger issues:

1. The need for a unified theory.
2. The need for a practical vehicle or framework for translating this theory into practice.

3. The need for a detailed process for guiding the implementation of changes basic to such a framework.

A survey of the literature reveals the need for a unified theory. Several authors (Karier, 1982; Rubin, 1981; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1979) have described how supervision has assumed shifting forms reflecting and accommodating the dominant values of a period. One model after another has emerged, faded, and reappeared in a different form. Bartky (1953) indicated that changing models have caused supervision to be defined in one extreme and then another, without an awareness that such models constitute parts of a larger whole. The resulting fragments fail to fulfill the broad goals of supervision. These basic goals, including control, improvement of instruction, release of human potential, and leadership in the reformulation of public education are all important (Wiles, 1967; Lucio & McNeill, 1979; Mosher & Purpel, 1972; Bartky, 1953).

Achievement of these goals requires a unified theory that might bring strengths of separate models into a dynamic whole. A critical review, focusing upon their basic assumptions, definitions, and emphases, and noting the degree to which they fulfill the broad goals of supervision might reveal elements of such a theory. The broad goals could serve as a basic framework for evaluating these models. The basic intent of such a review would be to highlight strengths as well as limitations. Insights gained might

provide the basis for conceptualizing a unified theory with which to reshape supervisory practice.

The application of past models has confined supervision to a hierarchal line-and-staff framework, which, while having advantages (such as efficiency and order), generally limits teachers' participation and leads to specialization and boundaries between individuals (Barr, Burton, Bruckner, 1974; Lucio and McNeill, 1979; Sergiovanni and Starratt, 1979; Firth and Eiken, 1982). A practical model or framework that avoids the problems of line-and-staff is needed. This dissertation proposes that a role similar to a consultant might selectively tap the advantages of line-and-staff supervision while avoiding its pitfalls. This role is described in the literature (Lucio & McNeill, 1979; Firth & Eiken, 1982; Eisner, 1982), but it has been infrequently used in a school setting. It is the intent of this study to use it as a practical means of translating a unified theory into practice. Responding to Firth and Eikens' (1982) call for restructuring supervisory practice, a consultant framework will invite practice to become more informal and formative as it reduces authority relationships and encourages teachers' involvement.

To guide the implementation of this practical framework necessitates what Sarason (1972) refers to as a process sensitive to the socio-cultural forces in a setting. Such a

process might avoid the problems that have traditionally occurred when change has been imposed from the outside without the necessary stages and processes that engender mutual commitment, ownership, and responsibility for an endeavor. Several writers (Arnstine, 1973; Perrone, 1972; Sarason, 1972) note that where change has been successfully implemented, a process accounting for "what was in the air" was evident. The theory, the practical framework, and the process which are the substance of this study are designed to collectively yield a comprehensive model which fulfills "Neville's test": "Where supervision is effective it stands the test of internal consistency; a theory, operational principles and supervisory procedures hold together" (Neville, 1969, p.246).

Purposes and Organization

It is the purpose of this dissertation to create a comprehensive model for educational supervision. The development of this model will involve the conceptualization of a unified theory that will guide thinking about practice, the description of a practical vehicle that will translate this theory into practice, and the identification of a process that will deal with the changes inherent in the implementation of this practical framework. A study that seeks to attain these purposes will address the following questions:

1. How might a selected review of supervisory models and goals provide insights into critical elements and interrelationships for the formulation of a unified theory of supervision?

2. How could insights gained by scrutiny of supervisory practice provide a framework for translating this theory into practice?

3. How might the successes and failures of educational innovations provide suggestions for successfully implementing a practical framework?

4. What will be the comprehensive model?

5. What meaning does this new comprehensive model hold for participants within a particular setting?

A research design compatible with the research questions will be utilized. To address these questions, this dissertation will begin with a review of selected supervisory theories, goals, and practices. Understandings and insights from such a review will identify components and interrelationships within the comprehensive model. Following the review of the literature, subsequent chapters will explain the comprehensive model, describe how it operated in a real situation, and report and analyze the results.

Definitions and Terms

Within the context of this study, the following terms are defined and used accordingly in the text:

1. Supervision -- a process that facilitates the integration of organizational goals, human factors, and professional aspects to encourage greater responsibility for the improvement of instruction.

2. Model -- a representation of a particular facet of reality. It describes and explains a phenomenon in order to help understanding of it.

3. Framework -- a practical model for translating theory into practice.

4. Process -- a series of steps guiding the implementation of a new practice or concept.

5. Control -- the process of efficiently and effectively coordinating activities to attain goals. Control in an organizational sense can be external, internal, or both. External control in an educational setting is typically expressed through purposes, objectives, principles, and positions. Internal control arises out of individuals participating and assuming responsibility.

6. Affiliation -- a feeling of membership and belonging; acceptance and support by a group; a felt sense of caring existing in a setting.

7. Self-esteem -- a feeling of self-respect, confidence in one's self and ability; a sense of significance; ability to influence the course of events. It also refers to the self-respect that accrues from being recognized by one's professional peers.

8. Risk-taking -- the courage and will to transcend conventional ways of doing a task or approaching a problem, and to step outside ordinary existence into the unknown.

9. Theory -- a mental picture of how a given phenomenon might appear and function.

10. Professional -- the aspect of supervision that focuses primarily upon the improvement of instruction and curriculum development.

11. Organizational -- the aspect of supervision that focuses on ensuring the efficient attainment of a system's goals.

12. Human -- the aspect of supervision that focuses upon the satisfaction and release of human needs.

13. Consultant -- a staff supervisor who becomes an invited member of a school for an extended period of time, employing two-way processes of seeking, giving, and receiving personal, professional, and organizational help to effect improved instruction.

Underlying Assumptions

The following explicit assumptions underlie this study:

1. The selected supervisory models and practices utilized for the conceptualization of a comprehensive model are vital and appropriate for this study.

2. Other researchers using similar sources and methods might invent different models.

3. The broad goals of supervision constitute a viable means of critically evaluating theory and practice in order to provide insights relevant to the conceptualization of a comprehensive model.

CHAPTER II

A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

Shifting supervisory models and practices are not unique to the present. Karier (1967) states that "almost in orchestral fashion, different positions come to the fore, are heard, then fade into the background to return again in a different context" (Karier, 1967, p.xvii). Rubin (1982) and Karier (1982) indicate that varying supervisory positions reflect a continuing phenomenon in education: the readjustment of its goals and bases of authority to changing values.

These values become translated into pressures exerted upon schools. Karier (1967; 1982) and Cremin (1977) described how education has periodically shifted its goals to accommodate these pressures. Supervision has assumed forms consonant with these changing goals, values, and emphases, and the resulting supervisory models and practices are revealed in the literature. A selected review will be useful to understand them and to identify elements needed for a comprehensive model.

Lucio and McNeill (1979) reiterated the value of such a review:

> Historical knowledge gives insight into the nature of supervision, for we are wedded in our practice to the

> thought of other eras. Such a perspective also focuses attention upon what is going on today under the name of supervision. (Lucio & McNeill, 1979, p.3)

While recognizing that education and consequently supervision experienced shifts prior to 1900, this review focuses upon selected examples in twentieth century America and uses changes prior to 1900 only to illustrate the continuing accommodation of supervision to changing values and goals. For example, Karier (1982) indicated that the educational goals of 17th-century Puritan New England differed from those of the expanding nationalistic 19th century, which in turn differed from those of the corporate-minded 20th century. A selective review of the literature will highlight these changing goals and the accompanying supervisory accommodations.

Shifting Goals and Supervisory Adaptations

Early supervisory forms in colonial America conformed to an emphasis upon localized goals and private sources of educational authority. Cremin (1979) indicated that:

> Insofar as the colonists transplanted the English village community to America, they transplanted an educational configuration to household, church, and school. . . . The family was the foremost component of the configuration and carried by far the greatest burden of educational obligation, providing the young with their earliest ideas about the world and how they ought to believe and behave in it, serving as the laws of organized work and preparation for organized work and mediating nurturance proffered by other educative institutions. In general, the pedagogy of household education was the pedagogy of apprenticeship, that is, a relentless round of imitation, explanations, and

> trial and error. In addition, a small proportion of households provided systematic tutoring and regular communal devotion. . . . The church carried a somewhat lesser burden . . . but at the same time provided a more efficient conduit for extralocal instructions. Whether "indiscriminate" or "gathered," the congregation was essentially an organized group of families who had submitted themselves voluntarily or involuntarily, to systematic teaching and discipline by an approved clergy. Most . . . youngsters did not go to school at all; those who did went principally to what was euphemistically called a petty school (or dame school) where they studied reading and writing . . . for a year or two. . . . A small proportion . . . might attend a local grammar school. (Cremin, 1977, pp.12-13)

There was thus no cadre of individuals whose specific and exclusive function was supervision (Gwynn, 1961). Supervision in early America was thus the responsibility of local religious officers and special lay committees who had power to visit and inspect. These committees became less interested in improving teachers than in dismissing them if they deviated from expected standards. The goals of education were concerned with imparting the values of home and church, and supervision assumed a form relative to the values, the goals, and the locus of authority of that time (Karier, 1982; Lucio & McNeill, 1979; Mark, Stoops, & King-Stoops, 1971; Mosher & Purpel, 1972).

Political, social and economic changes in the 1800's altered the local perspectives of the Colonial Period. Cremin (1977) stated that there were crucial changes over

time in the institutions themselves and in their relationships with one another and with society at large (Cremin, 1977). The power of the closely-knit household changed as individuals migrated and became more separated. With a shortage of labor in the colonies, apprenticeship was difficult to enforce, and youths moved in search of jobs. The authority of the church eroded as competing sects increased and church membership declined. Several authors (Karier, 1982; Cremin, 1977; Keniston, 1979) suggest that the picture of the family as a cohesive dominant institution providing for all needs began to disintegrate. In addition, Cremin (1977) indicated that the decades following the American Revolution witnessed a search for a national identity, or a means of uniting the country. This occurred in part by an educational system which developed in consonance with principles of national and state constitutions.

> Insisting with Montesquieu that the principles of education be relative to the forms of government, America maintained that while monarchies needed an educational status that would fix each class of the citizenry to its proper place in the social order, republics needed an education...that would motivate all men to choose public over private interest.... And by education they meant the full panoply of institutions that played a part in shaping human character -- families and churches, schools and colleges, public newspapers, voluntary associations, and most important...the laws....So being above all practical, they proceeded in two fronts, establishing educational arrangements that would nurture piety, civility, and learning in the populace at large and erecting a political system through which the inevitable conflicts of class self-interest might be resolved....Beyond this, they argued for a truly American education...designed to create a cohesive and independent citizenry...(and) the deliberate

> fashioning of a new character, rooted in American soil. (Cremin, 1977, pp.42-43)

This character was to be stamped upon an increasing number of immigrants arriving from Europe (Karier, 1982; Cremin, 1977; Meyer, 1957). With this influx, the country, in general, and cities, in particular, grew rapidly: "At least thirty cities . . . could boast a population of 20,000. . . . In Philadelphia some 340,000 men, women, and children . . . rubbed shoulders (Meyer, 1957, p.140). Cities offered industry a cheap source of labor. With the advent of machines and cheap immigrant labor, industrial growth began to mushroom. Work shifted from the household to the workplace as the factory appeared as an important institution (Cremin, 1977).

Education responded by shifting from private forms emphasizing home and church to public tax-supported forms. The era of the common school movement began. These schools were primarily designed to teach the common elements of American society (Karier, 1982).

> What was needed . . . was a school which would induct all the young, whether of low or high estate into the evolving national life. Such a school . . . could not be committed to private hands. On the contrary, it must be of free and general access, and its support must come from the public purse. (Meyer, 1957, p.151)

The goals of education changed from localized training related to household and religious precepts to molding the populace into a cohesive, national, and independent citizenry. The locus of educational authority shifted from

private forms to a state authority which sought revenues to support its rapidly growing schools. Financing became a complex problem and a successful drive for tax-supported schools yielded a solution (Callahan, 1962; Karier, 1982; Meyer, 1957). With public tax monies established as sources of revenue, the state, in the period prior to the Civil War, expanded its regulatory and safeguarding functions by exercising control over the spending of monies.

One aspect of this control was the development of a new supervisory form (Meyer, 1957). Supervision by private and lay committees was replaced by a single position such as a state school official, an acting visitor or an administrative officer whose primary duty was to inspect schools to ensure judicious expenditures of tax monies (Lucio & McNeill, 1979; Meyer, 1957; Gwynn, 1961).

> The growth of the nation during the Nineteenth Century . . . demanded that supervisory responsibilities be placed in the hands of professional school administrators. . . . The position of the principal teacher (or principal) emerged during this period as an outcome of the discovery by the board members that they could no longer administer or "supervise" the rapidly growing school system. . . . Although the principalship was the first administrative position to emerge, it was the last to seek responsibility and authority for instructional improvement. . . . Even at this late date "supervision" is taken by many to imply an emphasis upon inspection and control. (Mark, Stoops, & King-Stoops, 1973, p.9)

The state and its "supervisors" became a coercive force. Supervision fulfilled one of its broad goals (control) through an external source of authority.

More social and industrial changes occurred in the years following the Civil War. These changes set the stage for a new supervisory model: the scientific-technical. A second large wave of immigrants from southeastern Europe arrived and concentrated in cities. The cultural diversity of America expanded proportionately. Disenchantment with farm life increased as weather and economic conditions resulted in declining farm prices and foreclosures. Farmers deserted rural America and moved to cities where immigrants were also becoming established. Cities doubled in population. Crime swelled. Divorce rates soared. The factory and the office, which were on the margins of a predominantly agricultural economy as late as the 1870's, began to move to the center of the economic stage, and with them, industrial values and mechanized relations. Technical inventions of the Industrial Revolution ushered in more than machines: they ushered in industrial ways of thinking (Cremin, 1977; Violas, 1978; Karier, Violas, & Spring, 1973; Spring, 1972).

> The national achievement of industrial capitalism in the late nineteenth century was responsible for two developments which were to have a great effect on American society and education after 1900. One of these was the rise of business and industry to a position of prestige and influence, and America's subsequent infatuation with business-industrial values and practices. (Callahan, 1962, pp.1-2)

The early years of the twentieth century witnessed Americans moving toward a society marked by increasing

differentiation, mobility, specialization, and eventually social fragmentation (Smith, 1979; Meyer, 1957). The factory became a site for matching machines and industrial values with human beings. Corporate and individual identity became inseparable as society became mesmerized by industrial values and management techniques (Spring, 1972; Violas, 1978; Grannis, 1972).

Education and supervision again became attuned to and supportive of these individual values and practices. Growing social and political problems resulting from successive waves of immigrants induced a pervading fear that our national identity was becoming blurred and that middle-class Americans might react in radical ways (Violas, 1978; Spring, 1972). A general perception of lack of educational standards along with social and political problems encouraged the goals of education to shift from forging a national identity to preserving it from dissolution.

An important aspect of this preservation involved the development of a cooperative and efficient work force which would contribute to corporate goals (Violas, 1978; Shapiro, 1980). Schools became responsible for efficiently producing "cooperative" pupils who would assume their place in the state. In many cases, this meant the factory assembly line (Violas, 1978; Grannis, 1972). As the locus of educational authority shifted to an industrial state, the alignment of education with industrial values became a potent coercive

force. By the early 1900's, public education had become compulsory education reflecting and supporting a business-technical ethos.

Supervision sought to accommodate corporate industrial values by assuming a form patterned after industry. This process of supervisory accommodation has continued from these early examples to the present day. At least five models have appeared in this century. They collectively provide contrasting definitions of supervision's nature and how it should operate. To some extent all are still in existence and have a deserved place in supervision. Each has strengths and limitations. Five will be selectively reviewed to identify elements for a more comprehensive model.

The Scientific-Technical Model

The scientific-technical model of supervision arose in the industrial-scientific ethos of early twentieth century America. It was in part a general protest against institutions and specifically against the perceived confusion over educational goals and the lack of clearly defined standards (Lucio & McNeill, 1979; McNeill, 1982; Callahan, 1962).

> After years of being subjected to the steadily growing business influence and about the time that the momentum of reform had reached its peak and Americans had become accustomed to a critical view of all their institutions, the schools . . . were facing problems that would have taxed a professionally excellent, richly endowed educational system. (Callahan, 1962, p.14)

In writing about the early twentieth century, Callahan (1962) noted that massive waves of immigrants as well as the normal growth of population produced a need for thousands of additional classrooms. Taxes needed to be increased:

> Unfortunately this need for large increases in school funds occurred not only at a time when the country had been roused to a concern for economy and conditioned to suspect that all public institutions were inefficient and wasteful but also in an inflationary period in which the cost of living had risen more than 30 per cent. The result was that hard-pressed educators needing additional funds were forced to deal with a suspicious economy-minded public. (Callahan, 1962, p.15)

The general public and some educators became preoccupied with finding the most efficient way to run schools: a way that might produce higher student achievement, preserve the common elements of the national identity, and incur the least expenditures of tax monies (Callahan, 1962; Spring, 1972; Mark, Stoops, & King-Stoops, 1972). The industrialized society seemed to suggest that answers were to be found in industrial-business values and the scientific method as applied to schools (McNeill, 1982).

> (T)he business influence was exerted in the form of suggestions or demands that the schools be organized and operated in a more business-like way....The procedure for bringing about a more business-like organization and operation of the schools was fairly standardized from 1900 to 1925. It consisted of making unfavorable comparisons between the schools and business enterprise, of applying business-like industrial criteria to education, and of suggesting that business and industrial practices be adopted. (Callahan, 1962, p.6)

McNeill (1982) described how the scientific method was also seen as a way of achieving greater objectivity and

and discovering the best or most efficient method of teaching.

> Scientific methods were to help teachers and supervisors collect data and draw conclusions that would be more efficient and systematically organized than the facts and conclusions that they would derive from their uncontrolled opinions. (McNeill, 1982, p.20)

Many school leaders responded to these dominant pressures by not only adopting and assimilating them, but by espousing them: "school leaders were not so much victims of business influence and pressures as they were exponents of it" (Karier, 1982, p.8). After 1910 many school leaders identified themselves with industrial executives and chose their corporate management structure and science as ways to achieve the goals of efficiency and higher achievement (Callahan, 1962). The writings of Frederick Taylor (1916) and Franklin Bobbitt (1913) provided principles for education and supervisory processes. The roots of the scientific-technical model as well as more current ones are reflected in these writings.

Frederick Taylor (1916) in his book The Principles of Scientific Management provided principles which influenced the workplace including its values and relationships. The principles are to

> . replace intuitive or idiosyncratic methods of doing the work of the organization with a scientific method based upon observation and analysis in order to reach the best cost-benefit ratio
> . find the one best way of doing a task
> . select the best person through the use of the scientific method and train him on tasks and procedures
> . divide the work of manager and workers so that the

> managers would assume responsibility for planning and preparing work and for supervision. (Taylor, 1916; Sergiovanni, 1977)

These principles emphasize discovering the one best way of performing a task, establishing it as the standard, and getting others to conform to it. "Best" is interpreted to be those methods that are cost-efficient, scientifically measurable, and capable of documenting results. The final two principles prescribe relationships on the job, including the relationship between employee and supervisor. Relationships are competitive and specialized with distance between supervisor and worker (Callahan, 1962). Participation in planning work and supervision is limited to managers, and workers remain dependent upon them. Efficiently attaining organizational goals through a system of controls becomes a primary concern.

> Efficiency was to be maximized by defining objectives and outputs clearly, by specializing tasks through division of labor, and once the best way was identified, by introducing a system of control to ensure uniformity and reliability in workers' tasks, as well as standardization of product. (Sergiovanni, 1977, p.205)

From an industrial perspective, supervision becomes identified with a person or a position removed from the worker which directs or monitors the work in order to achieve a stated outcome. Bobbitt (1913) provided further clues to the nature of this supervision. He indicated that in any organization, supervisors must clearly define the ends toward which the organization strives. They must find

the best methods and enforce them (Sergiovanni & Carver, 1980). Max Weber (1947) later extended these concepts when he indicated that in the interest of efficiency, the organization should have a well-defined hierarchy with jobs and offices defined according to jurisdiction and location.

It is not surprising that these principles became transferred to education considering the perceived lack of educational standards, the apparent confusion concerning outcomes, and the prestige surrounding industrial-scientific values. Values had again shifted and had become reflected in educational goals. Many educators became interested in efficiency, standardization, and science to promote higher achievement and to preserve the national identity. Confusion about educational goals and a lack of standards might be erased by an industrial-scientific means. Education adopted a corporate-industrial ethos, and supervision, in aligning itself with these values, assumed a scientific-technical form.

According to this model, supervisors are quality control links in a management structure which seeks conformity to "scientific" answers for improving instruction. The "best" methods of teaching are to be found and enforced on teachers (Lucio & McNeill, 1979). It is the supervisors' job to see that teachers meet standards. To help supervisors avoid personal and arbitrary decisions, scientifically

proven methods are utilized.

Scientific-technical supervision means constant presence, monitoring and researching to reach the organization's goal of greater pupil achievement. The process by which goals are attained is not emphasized. Supervision becomes focused upon directing and auditing the performances of others. This directing and auditing involves determining the best procedures for performing teaching tasks and encouraging teachers to acquire them so that maximum pupil achievement results (Alphonso & Goldberry, 1982; Lucio & McNeill, 1979; McNeill, 1982; Mosher & Purpel, 1972; Oucher, 1981; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1979.

Bartky (1953) indicated that the scientific-technical model strives for instructional improvement through classroom observation and objective measurement of teaching results:

> For classroom observation it provides elaborate check sheets, teaching-rating scales, and management charts. For measuring teaching results it employs aptitude tests, diagnostic tests, and achievement tests of all kinds. The person who carries on supervision scientifically enters the teacher's classroom whenever he feels the need to do so. He watches the lesson. He checks on how the teacher starts her class, the way she makes assignments, the time in taking the role, and the efficiency of the routine employed when she collects or distributes materials. He feels that his major task is to direct weaknesses and to make comparative studies of teacher efficiency. (Bartky, 1953, p.20)

Callahan (1962) noted that supervisors suggest methods that are scientific, efficacious, and economical. Teachers

unable to do them are frequently fired.

Scientific technical values pervade interactions and relationships. Relationships within schools emphasize competitive individual performance rather than a collective concern for others. Teacher-supervisor interactions tend to be limited, superficial and short-term. These detached and objective relationships are based on the assumption that teachers and supervisors are "under the laws of science and that supervisors have more knowledge than teachers" (Lucio & McNeill, 1979; Mosher & Purpel, 1972; Ouchi, 1981). Barr, Burton & Brueckner (1947) noted that teachers are viewed as employees to carry out the directives of those who see the ends, and who plan the achievement of those ends.

The scientific-technical model assumes that supervisors have the exclusive right and responsibility to prescribe instruction. Supervisors determine the best methods since this burden is too great and complex to be laid on teachers' shoulders. Teachers, therefore, remain dependent, performing tasks and following directives developed by a hierarchal structure patterned after industry (Eisner, 1982; Mosher and Purpel, 1972; Sergiovanni and Starratt, 1979). Supervisors become visible symbols of control. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1979) described this control:

> The school organization has developed a clearly defined and rigid hierarchy of authority. Although the term "hierarchy" is seldom used in the lexicon... the practices to which it refers are prevalent. The school

> organization has leaned heavily upon the use of general rules to control the behavior of members of the organization and to develop standards which would assure reasonable conformity in the performance of tasks. (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1979, p.43)

Supervisors are thus hierarchal links who help ensure the efficient attainment of organizational goals by advocating the use of "scientific" findings. The scientific-technical model illustrates an organizational theory of supervision. If this model is accepted as its essence, supervision becomes defined exclusively as a means of attaining organizational ends. This theory of supervision is currently surfacing in another form, the neo-scientific (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1979; Sergiovanni, 1977; McNeill, 1982).

The Neo-Scientific Model

Like the earlier scientific-technical model, the neo-scientific developed in response to changes in societal values and educational goals (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1979; Karier, 1982; McNeill, 1982). In view of declining test scores and a perceived lack of educational standards, the general public is currently pressing for a more efficient and accountable educational system. Faced with declining resources, increasing inflation, and a society demanding higher achievement, education is realigning itself to be attuned to these pressures. Supervision is again assuming a form that accommodates this realignment (Karier, 1982; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1979).

The code words of the neo-scientific model are competencies, timelines, cost-benefit ratio, teacher effectiveness training, and "direct" instruction (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1979; McNeill, 1982; Eisner, 1982). Supervision focuses upon auditing objectives, timelines, and urging the application of scientific research. McNeill (1982) described this model:

> Supervisors now emphasize staff development programs aimed at getting teachers to apply a method called "direct instruction," a method derived from research findings regarding the apparent importance of academically focused teacher-directed classrooms. In accordance with direct instruction, teachers are expected to make goals or objectives clear to students, to allocate time for instruction in sufficient and continuing amounts, to match the content presented to that which will be measured on tests of achievement, to monitor the performance of pupils....The "good" teacher is neither laissez-faire nor democratic but controlling. The teacher controls the instructional goals, chooses materials appropriate for the students ability, and paces the instructional sequence. Action research has been reintroduced as a way to sensitize teachers to the importance of time-on-task....In the 1920's, supervisors stressed time-on-task and student attention from a preoccupation for efficiency, effectiveness, and productivity....Now, partly as a result of the process-product studies and the studies of mastery learning, supervisors are looking to this variable as the answer to improvement of teaching and learning. (McNeill, 1982, pp.27-28)

The neo-scientific model, like the scientific-technical shares an interest in control. According to the scientific-technical, control is visibly expressed in the form of an external person who suggests "scientific" answers and monitors performances to efficiently achieve organizational goals. The neo-scientific, unlike the scientific-technical, audits and directs not by a person but by a list of

competencies or timelines. With relationships thus deemphasized, teacher-supervisor interactions tend to become remote or nonexistent. The personal knowledge and insights engendered as two individuals interact is thus discounted. Knowledge becomes viewed as objective and external to humans. However, humans represent the source of such knowledge (Purpel, 1982; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1979).

The neo-scientific like the scientific-technical illustrates an organizational theory of supervision. This theory focuses singularly upon the efficient attainment of system goals developed by superordinates. An organizational theory offers advantages and deserves a place in a comprehensive model. It offers order, efficiency, and control. Authority is clearly delineated. Expectations are precise and stated in observable terms. Reliability is enhanced through impersonal rules. Uniform standards and centralized decision-making become powerful means of moving people toward goals with minimum confusion and conflict. Sergiovanni and Carver (1980) describe the technical values of an organization definition:

> (M)eans-end results are specified rather clearly, and activities and programs are rationally and economically designed to achieve them; education is valued in forms of measurable outputs of the system; and school executives work to achieve productive goals in the most efficient manner. (Sergiovanni & Carver, 1980, p.23)

An organizational definition contributes scientific-technical values to supervision. The focus of these values

is on increased knowledge about the educational process. John McNeill (1982) noted this usefulness:

> It is not surprising then that a scientific approach to supervision -- that we can find out why some people are more effective than others and that we can use this knowledge to help teachers become effective -- is a central dimension in the supervision field. There are other reasons as well. Supervisors want a knowledge base to free them from charges of personal arbitrariness in their supervisory practice. (McNeill, 1982; p.31).

Bartky (1953) pointed out that scientific-technical values at their best enhance supervision. They provide a means of inquiring into current school practices through continuous and critical analyses of on-going activities. However, scientific inquiry represents one form of knowing. Other forms of knowledge have their own validity.

> Other forms of information and analysis including the ordinary knowledge of supervisors and teachers may be more effective than the results of scientific inquiry. Ordinary knowledge is not won by the methods of science but by common sense, empiricism, and thoughtful speculation. (McNeill, 1982, p.30)

It is clear that an organizational theory has advantages. Supervision cannot exist apart from its organizational context and organizations require order, uniformity, and efficiency to achieve their goals.

> Supervision exists so that an organization's goals can be understood, procedures followed, schedules met, and adjustments made when goals are not reached. Supervision is related to and responsible for the productive life of an organization. (Alphonso & Goldsberry, 1982; p.93)

While an organizational theory is fundamental, it is only one fragment of supervision's totality. If it becomes the accepted definition of supervision, a number of critical

factors are overlooked with rather predictable consequences. Eisner (1982) described some of these factors. He indicated that the quality of interactions among individuals in a classroom can be utterly neglected:

> For example, more student-initiated questioning is considered better than teacher-initiated questioning; indirect discourse is better than direct....Discussions are not necessarily better than lectures. Discussions having a high frequency of student participation can be inane and lectures can be brilliant. The reverse, of course, can also be true. Simply recording incidents and adding scores are an inadequate and, even worse, misleading way to appreciate what has gone on in a classroom. (Eisner, 1982, p.55)

An emphasis upon the measurable leads to an emphasis upon concreteness and viewing behavior as the exclusive referent for observation.

> Behavior <u>is</u> a primary referent for observation, but it is not the only referent or the most important. When we observe pupils or teachers we do not merely look at the behavior they display, but also at its meaning and the quality of their experience....To focus exclusively on behavior and to neglect meaning or experience because it requires...empathetic participation in the life of another can be to misinterpret what one looks at. (Eisner, 1982, p.56)

An organizational definition of supervision neglects those aspects of teaching that are invisible to the criteria and instruments that researchers employ (Eisner, 1982). Focusing exclusively on an organizational model decreases the search for alternatives. By prizing the best or most efficient way, the diverse response is neglected. Diversity, however, is necessary for human survival (Dubos, 1972). It adds resiliency. Kimball Wiles (1967) states that the ultimate test of supervision is whether the

divergent creative response is valued. Uniformity has a crippling interpersonal and personal effect:

> People who submit to the standards of others for the measure of their own personal growth soon apply the same ruler to themselves. They no longer have to be put in their place, but put themselves into their assigned slots, squeeze themselves into the niche which they have been taught to seek, and in the very process put their followers into their places too, until everybody and everything fits. (Illich, 1971; p.58)

Barr, Burton, and Brueckner (1947) related how an emphasis upon uniformity inhibits the instructional process. It interferes with the discovery of new techniques and makes difficult intelligent evaluation of techniques already in use.

Several writers noted how a solitary organizational definition neglects essential human factors: it fails to recognize that one way the organization reaches its goals is through the satisfaction of human needs (Wiles, 1967; Bartky, 1953; Sergiovanni, 1977; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1979). To bypass or take these needs for granted is to invite human alienation and the possible frustration of the organization's ability to reach its goals (Sergiovanni & Carver, 1980; Slater, 1976; Bowers, 1974). Conditions necessary for personal and professional development engender commitment to organizational goals (Maslow, 1954; Sergiovanni & Carver, 1980).

An organizational theory tends to perpetuate a dependency that denies the significance of the human will.

Bowers (1974) described how teachers are cast into subservient roles without meaningful participation. Supervisors are assumed to be more knowledgeable and competent than teachers. Once this assumption is accepted, supervisors become the experts who supply answers and correct problems. In this context teachers withdraw and eventually fail to participate in decision-making. Dialogue or interchange between two professionals trying to improve the educational experience of the young tends to get lost. Teacher development may become further blocked since supervisors are restricted by bureaucratic responsibilities and expectations from seeking teachers' involvement and help. Moreover, teachers may be reluctant to ask for assistance since it is likely to be interpreted as a sign of weakness (Blumberg, 1974; Eisner, 1982).

Any model of supervision that limits teacher's participation misjudges the nature of human beings. MacDonald (1981) described humans as active and intentional beings. They need to exercise their will and intentionality. Participation in decision-making is an important source of growth. Limiting teachers' participation to a preconceived boundary results in a crippling sense of paternalism which stunts growth and thereby limits the potential of the organization (Illich, 1971; Bowers, 1974).

A comprehensive model of supervision must recognize the value of these human factors. It must also include an

organizational theory. The scientific-technical and the neo-scientific, while illustrating an essential aspect of supervision, fail to address essential human needs.

Human Relations Model

The 1920's and 1930's were economically and personally difficult. The stock market crash and the Great Depression strongly influenced society and education. The goals of education shifted from preserving the national identity to helping the young adjust to daily living. Cooperation and democratic processes, moving to the forefront of societal values, became reflected in and perpetuated by educational goals. Supervision assumed forms accommodating these values and goals (Karier, 1982; Barr, Burton, Bruekner, 1947; Sergiovanni, 1977).

Arising in this context, the human relations model emerged from the writings of such theorists as Chester Barnard (1938; 1948) and Elton Mayo (1933). Mayo's research revealed that workers subjected to industrial management patterns suffered from alienation and loss of identity. Mayo and Barnard proposed that these patterns failed to recognize that humans are motivated by social needs. Achievement of organizational goals depends partly upon the organization's ability to provide for these needs.

The human relations model has a number of underlying assumptions. Education is conceived as a basic social force concerned with the development of human personality and of a

stable democratic social order. Education is not a mechanical routine fulfilled through mechanical administrators of details. Supervision therefore is a fundamental aspect of education and not enforcement of techniques. Techniques of education and supervision cannot be selected until purposes are understood. Cooperation among agencies is essential (Bare, Burton and Brueckner, 1947).

These assumptions necessitate a different view of supervisors and teachers. Teachers are viewed as whole and unique persons to be inherently valued rather than sources of needed energy and skills. The supervisor is seen not as a monitor, but one who listens, counsels, and encourages mutual acceptance. Supervision thus becomes concerned with supporting, facilitating, and involving rather than excluding, auditing, and discovering the most efficient way. Provisions for high morale, positive intergroup relations, and participation are important. The human relations model assumes that a satisfied staff works harder, is easier to work with, and achieves a better product. Shared decision-making becomes an important vehicle for fulfilling the goal of democratic citizenry:

> If our basic assumption is true that we desire a democratic social order, then members of that society must know to participate and be willing to participate. What is the supervisor doing to develop skill in participation on the part of the teachers?.... If our basic assumption is true that we desire a democratic social order, then initiative is to be prized. What is the supervisor doing to encourage the development of initiative among teachers? (Bartky, 1953, p.17)

However, while all of these practices are laudable, they are subject to misuse. It is possible for administrators and supervisors to use the human relations model to give teachers the feeling of involvement, importance, and appreciation while actually retaining control themselves. Social needs may thus be manipulated to accommodate organizational requirements. This manipulation frequently accompanied the human relations model of the 1930's. Wiles (1967) noted that human relations supervision was a type of manipulation in which teachers were to be treated kindly and maneuvered into doing what the supervisor wanted to do all along.

The human relations model highlights an important element of suprvision. Schools are human organizations in the sense that they have human purposes and pursue these purposes by working directly with humans. Humans have social needs and a comprehensive model must address them. These needs are critical to human development. Kellner and Berger (1981) indicated that humans are social creatures who need to interact, relate, and experience a sense of belonging. Interactions and relationships shape their identity. Spradley and McCurdy (1972) stated that relationships serve to shape the cohesiveness of a group, making it less dependent upon an outside influence.

The human relations model provides valuable insights regarding human social needs. However it fails to grasp the wide spectrum of human needs. Humans are not limited to

social needs. They are also motivated by what several sources (Maslow, 1954; McClellan, 1953 and 1961; Sergiovanni & Carver, 1980) describe as higher level needs. These needs include a sense of achievement, positive self-esteem, challenge, and involvement within the organization. A supervisory theory that encourages meaningful involvement can provide for higher level needs, social needs, as well as the attainment of organizational goals.

Another criticism might be considered. The human relations model does not acknowledge that teachers exist in a bureaucratic organization which exerts a strong influence on the quality of their personal existence. This influence cannot be discounted. It serves either to restrict or fulfill the satisfaction of human needs (Bowers, 1974; Sergiovanni & Carver, 1980; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1979).

Pohland and Cross (1982) noted that the human relations model perpetuates a hierarchal teacher-supervisor relationship. The supervisor becomes a counselor, the teacher, a client. Dependency remains a potential problem. It is however masked by a "nice guy" approach. It becomes difficult to disagree with someone who is so accommodating. External control continues to underlie this approach. A comprehensive model, while embracing the strengths of this model must enlarge it to include the full range of human needs and the organization's influence upon the satisfaction of those needs.

Human Resource Model

Arising in the 1970's, the human resource model sought to achieve an integrated perspective between organizational and human theories of supervision. Thomas J. Sergiovanni (1977; 1979) and Robert Starratt (1979) are leading advocates of this model. In principle the human resource theorists agree with May and earlier writers:

> about the dehumanizing aspects of classical management theories, particularly with reference to loss of meaning in work. But this loss was not attributed to man's social needs as much as his ability to use his talents fully. Certainly lower order needs were not to be denied, but man's capacity for growth and challenge were the needs that received the greatest attention. (Sergiovanni, 1977, p.210)

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1979) indicated that the human resource model is founded on the belief that human beings are active, responsible, and growing persons. Supervisors must be fully aware not only of human needs but also of how schools function. If supervisors know how the organization works, then they can use the potential of the organization for educational purposes, rather than be victimized by unintended aspects of it.

The operation of the model and how it differs from the human relations model is illustrated by its approach to teacher satisfaction. Human relations and human resources supervision are both concerned with this area. A human relations supervisor views teacher satisfaction as a means to a smoother and more effective school. Shared decision-making might be adopted in order to increase teacher

satisfaction. Satisfied teachers would then be easier to work with, to lead, and possibly to control.

By contrast, the human resources model views satisfaction as a desirable end toward which teachers will work. Satisfaction results from successful involvement and accomplishment in meaningful work and these are in turn key components in school effectiveness. The human resource supervisor might use shared decision-making because of its potential to increase school effectiveness (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1979). Based on the premise that humans receive maximum satisfaction and enrichment from achievement at work and that work reaches new levels of effectiveness because of a person's commitment, the human resource model seeks to integrate human development and the goals of the organization (Sergiovanni, 1977).

This model acknowledges that humans have capabilities and potential which often lie latent. It affirms that persons are motivated not only by social needs, but also by higher level needs. Satisfying these needs necessitates organizational involvement. By recommending that the needs of the organization should be integrated with human needs, human resource supervision offers valuable clues for conceptualizing a comprehensive model.

Purpel and Mosher (1972) noted, however, that supervision must also focus upon helping teachers to teach better. Supervision involves a concerted effort toward

improving instruction and developing curriculum. While providing some important insights, the human resource model neglects the professional aspects of teaching and its improvement.

The human relations and the human resource models illustrate a human theory of supervision. Supervision by nature is multifaceted. It necessitates both an organizational and a human theory. However, another theory is also crucial: a professional theory that focuses upon instructional improvement and curriculum development.

Clinical Model

The professional aspects of supervision received particular impetus in the 1960's. A renewed interest in education and instruction followed Russia's launching of Sputnik in 1957. This interest was prompted in part by fear that American technology and its educational system were inadequate. With a concerted effort to advance technology, the goals of education changed to a greater focus upon achieving technological superiority through quality instruction. Massive amounts of federal monies were targeted toward studying and improving teaching, instruction, and curriculum. The locus of educational authority became centered not only in the states, but also in the federal government:

> The national government became interested in improving the quality of education, especially in mathematics, the sciences, and foreign languages. Large curriculum projects were developed through the National Science Foundation and Funds made available under the National Defense Act of 1958. (Wiles, 1967, p.4)

In alignment with these goals, supervision assumed a form that increasingly focused upon improving the quality of instructional processes. Clinical supervision emerged in the context of practice:

> Born in the real world of professional practice, this model evolved from a series of problems faced by supervisors as they worked with teachers and would-be teachers. As problems were faced, a set of practices emerged, at first sporadically, then incrementally, and finally becoming a systematic form now know as the cycle of clinical supervision. (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1979, p.309)

Clinical supervision takes its name, characteristics and basic assumptions from the writings of Morris Cogan (1973) and Robert Goldhammer (1969). It refers to face-to-face encounters between teachers and supervisors about teaching, usually in classrooms, with the intent of professional development and improvement of instruction. Mosher and Purpel (1972) noted that clinical supervision focuses upon what and how teachers teach as they teach. The immediate objective is to study and improve materials and methods of instruction directly at the point of the teacher's interaction with students.

Clinical supervision assumes that the school curriculum is what teachers do day by day. It also assumes that changes in curriculum and in teaching formats require changes in how teachers behave in classrooms, that supervision is basically a collegial process, that the focus of supervision is on teacher strengths, that teachers want to improve, and that they enjoy challenging work. These

assumptions become translated into an intense, mature relationship between supervisor and teacher with the basic intent being the improvement of teaching (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1979; Mosher & Purpel, 1972).

This objective is accomplished by what Cogan (1973) and Goldhammer (1969) described as a supervisory cycle.

> The essential ingredients of clinical supervision, as articulated by Cogan, include the establishment of a health supervisory climate, a special supervisory mutual support system...and a cycle of supervision comprising conferences, observation of teachers at work, and patterned analysis. (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1979, p.309)

Cogan (1973) identified eight phases in the cycle of improvement, including the establishment of a teacher-supervisor relationship, intensive planning of lessons and units with the teacher, planning a classroom observational strategy, in-class instructional observation, analysis of the teaching-learning process, planning the conference, conducting the conference, and critiquing the conference.

As defined by the clinical model, supervision thus becomes a professional face-to-face encounter for the purposes of improving instruction and developing curriculum. Teaching is viewed as an intellectual and social act within which there is an emphasis upon teacher mastery through knowledge and practice. The supervisor encourages greater analysis of instruction in the belief that such analysis with subsequent practice will lead to instructional improvement.

> The basic method of clinical supervision is systematic rational study and analysis of teaching. Its aim is to induce teachers to think about and them implement new ways of teaching. The methodology is didactic: reinforcement of effective teaching, analysis leading to rational understandings or insight, instruction in new curricula and methods of teaching and observation of the teaching of others. (Mosher & Purpel, 1972, p.110)

The clinical model offers strengths as well as limitations. Within its context, curriculum development occurs naturally and continuously as teachers and supervisors focus upon ways of improving the quality of instruction. After examining a classroom science lesson, for example, a teacher and supervisor might conclude that there were considerable "discipline" problems stemming from uninterested students. Through further discussion, they determine that the teachers' exclusive dependence upon the science text might have been a contributing factor. In developing a plan for addressing the problem, they identify ways of involving the students in discovering scientific principles. In consultation with students, they develop a series of experiments, implement them, and make needed modifications. A broader and more flexible view of curriculum is therefore engendered. Teachers are encouraged to assume leadership in developing and modifying curriculum to accommodate their needs. Short and long-range planning become inherent aspects of this development.

Clinical supervision also provides a systematic process for analyzing and changing teaching. Through the clinical

cycle patterns and interactions either enhancing or hindering instruction can be detected through a variety of instruments. Using Flander's Interaction Analysis Scale, for example, the teacher and supervisor might become more conscious of what is occurring and why. They might find a lack of teacher-student interaction, revealing methodological procedures that need correction.

Without the procedures involved in the clinical model, teaching is otherwise rarely analyzed and instruction does not receive the benefit of different viewpoints. Rigid and routinized instruction becomes a real possibility. Mosher and Purpel (1972) related that clinical supervision does provide a viable means by which teachers can confront and modify both the content and practice of teaching.

> The case for clinical supervision rests, in the final analysis, on a set of beliefs concerning how we acquire knowledge about and how we change complex educational phenomena. A first premise is that what and how children are taught in schools now does matter. Greater understanding cannot await upon "pure" research. The clinical supervisor is thus, in a sense, symbolic. He represents training and intelligence applied to the means by which children are taught. (Mosher & Purpel, 1972, pp.111-112)

Through the clinical model, a collegial face-to-face process for improving instruction becomes a possibility. Through daily interaction, teachers and supervisors become sources of mutual support and insight and thus contribute to each other's development. The supervisor becomes a colleague, not a distant hierarchial person. With first-hand knowledge of each other and the situation, the teacher

and supervisor become useful partners in instructional problem-solving and curriculum development.

Through this problem-solving the creative and diverse response becomes prized. Teachers' wills and self-esteem are enhanced as they become aware of their own potential for resolving instructional problems. Exclusive dependency upon one source is thereby reduced.

Clinical supervision does have its limitations, however. Mosher and Purpel (1972) noted that it is a fact that we don't know either theoretically or empirically who the effective teacher is or what effective teaching is. This fact, combined with evidence that the analysis, inferences, and evaluations made by supervisors about teaching behavior have moderately low validity and reliability, indicate the theoretical and practical weaknesses of clinical supervision.

With clinical supervision, it is also possible for teaching to be viewed and evaluated solely as an analytical and empirical process. This view overlooks significant human qualities that enhance teaching. Teaching is more than an empirical process. It is also a spiritual and human encounter between persons. To ignore these qualities is to limit teaching to the intellect and ignore the interactions that provide its ethical dimension.

Implementing the complete clinical cycle requires much time. Supervisors who do not take the time to develop a

meaningful relationship may encounter hostility or indifference. Developing a mutual relationship is a lengthy process as is planning the observation, analyzing it, and evaluating the conferences.

This cycle also requires a well-trained supervisor with skills not often available. A blend of human, organizational, and professional skills is essential. Teachers require encouragement and support but also effective teaching strategies, incisive analysis of instructional interaction, and knowledge of organizational dynamics to effect change. The talented clinical supervisors will use their skills to avoid the dependency that accompanied other models and thus encourage the collective sharing of human, organizational, and professional expertise.

The clinical model illustrates a professional theory of supervision. It focuses upon instructional improvement and curriculum development which should be a part of a comprehensive model of supervision. However, a professional theory cannot be accepted as the theory of supervision. To do so is to overlook the related factors of bureaucratic context of schools, basic human social and higher needs, and the interrelationship between the teacher as a professional and as a human.

A review of selected supervisory models reveals that supervision has assumed a variety of forms to accommodate shifting values. Organizational definitions such as the

scientific-technical and the neo-scientific models emphasize supervision as a monitoring process which seeks conformity to standards and scientific methods for attaining organizational goals. The human relations and the human resource models are human definitions of supervision that seek the fulfillment of human needs and the integration of those needs with organizational goals. Professional definitions, such as clinical supervision, focus essentially upon instructional improvement and curriculum development. None of these theories represents a unified approach to supervision; each is an essential element of a larger whole. Viewed separately and independently, they fail to attain the broad goals of supervision which require elements of all three. A vital component of the proposed comprehensive model will be a theory in which these isolated elements are integrated in a dynamic way.

However, it is not enough to have a unified theory. Supervision needs creative ways to put this theory into practice. It has traditionally relied upon a line-and-staff framework patterned after military-industrial roles. In a military or industrial setting, line officers are individuals who command and direct. With positional authority they efficiently move human and material resources to achieve organizational goals. Staff officers are persons assigned to provide assistance to line officers. They have no official authority to direct, but gain effectiveness through

their specialized knowledge.

Educational supervision has typically functioned in a similar manner. This line-and-staff arrangement offers advantages, but makes it difficult for supervisors to operate in a holistic manner. A brief discussion will examine the strengths and limitations of the line-and-staff arrangement while exploring the need for a role that encourages the integration of human, professional, and organizational elements.

Staff Supervision

Staff supervision is based on the assumption that an effective organization needs a specialist well versed in curriculum content, teaching styles, and functional solutions to typical classroom problems who can deliver these services directly to teachers. Staff supervisors are usually members of central administrative offices who have demonstrated abilities and skills in a given subject area or grade level. They are typically responsible for system-wise curriculum development and coordination, staff in-service, and the interpretation of local and state curriculum mandates.

Within an educational context, staff supervisors may hold such roles as general instructional coordinator, elementary science specialist, or supervisor of secondary education. Having professional and technical knowledge, skills, and expertise not ordinarily available in line

supervisors, staff persons can offer a variety of important services.

As specialists, staff persons have in-depth perspectives concerning their respective fields or disciplines. This perspective, gained through experience and training, can be useful in furthering others' professional knowledge and skills. They are, for example, in unique positions to stimulate interests, to make suggestions, and to appraise teaching within their field. They can provide new knowledge, insights, and techniques and help teachers learn to evaluate critically methods and materials. Principals could use them to become better informed and better instructional supervisors themselves.

A staff supervisor has access to a wide variety of human, professional, and material resources. As members of the central administrative office, they interact with other staff supervisors, consultants, and representatives of publishing companies. Moreover, with responsibility for several schools, they acquire a broad knowledge of diverse human and professional expertise, interests, and talents of individual educators within a school system.

With such networks of professional knowledge, skills, and resources, staff persons can become professional "brokers," encouraging the matching and interchange of individuals having professional interests and/or needs with those having appropriate strengths, talents, and expertise.

They can, for example, offer workshops whereby local educators might assume leadership for sharing their professional strengths, interests, and skills.

Since staff supervisors are not concentrated in a single school, they have greater potential for being unbiased and impartial than, for example, line administrators. As external agents, they are not tied into the complex social and political systems that exist in schools and can therefore exercise more independent input. Staff persons are not as likely to be viewed as a "favorite," an "isolate," or a member of an inner clique. They might be more personally respected by a faculty who, in turn, might be more receptive to their professional suggestions.

Staff persons, moreover, are not generally responsible for formally evaluating teachers. They therefore have the potential to become accepted and trusted professional and human supports for them. Staff supervisors can listen, counsel, and guide teachers into new perspectives on teaching. They can enter a classroom, observe, and involve teachers in examining what occurred. Through a process of listening and asking teachers to clarify what happened, a new awareness of the instructional episode can be generated along with strategies for future directions.

Although personal relationships are possible, they are typically difficult to achieve in practice since staff persons are dispersed among several schools and many

teachers. The lack of concentration in any one hinders the development of intense personal relationships that might produce a collegial sharing of human and professional expertise, interests, and talents.

Since staff supervisors are widely dispersed, they are also limited in providing complex and sustained professional services. Generally restricted to intermittent and occasional visits, they commonly attend only to superficial concerns such as providing lists of possible activities or information about conferences. Important as these may be, more clinical approaches to improving instruction become less feasible. With limited opportunities for providing personal and professional services, the staff person's credibility can deteriorate. Teachers are reluctant to ask for help from individuals they perceive as strangers with limited or unproven expertise.

Staff supervisors' effectiveness may also be lessened by their own specializations. With expertise in one subject or segment of the curriculum, they commonly develop an insular view which fails to appreciate the total curriculum. For example, they may have difficulty in perceiving how their specialty relates to other curriculum areas and in finding ways to interrelate them in daily practice.

Staff supervisors are also limited since they have no formal authority base. Brubaker (1976) described several bases for authority including positional authority,

expertise, succorance, and charisma. Without a positional authority base, staff persons must rely upon personal influences, professional skills, and the line supervisor's direct authority. Firth and Eiken (1982) noted this dependency and indicated that the effectiveness of staff supervision depends upon the importance placed by administrators on instructional improvement.

Decision-making among staff persons becomes limited to creating awareness, persuading, and advising which can lead to feelings of personal and professional frustration and inadequacy. Moreover, effective relationships between teachers and supervisors may quickly deteriorate if teachers perceive supervisors as impotent to implement change. Staff supervision thus represents an important, but limited, vehicle for translating a unified theory into practice. Line supervision offers advantages that might compensate for those limitations.

Line Supervision

Barr, Burton, and Brueckner (1947) noted that line supervisors are those in authority who decide and issue orders. Patterned after the military, authority descends along clearly defined "lines" or positions. Line supervision is based on the belief that an effective organization combines authority and responsibility for operations in the same position. Within an educational context, line supervision refers to such decision-making positions as associate

superintendents for instruction, principals, department heads, and individuals designated by the superintendent or others to direct teacher evaluation or implement an instructional program (Firth & Eiken, 1982; Nelson & Pettit, 1982).

Since line supervisors, such as principals, are concentrated in one setting, they have a "whole unit" or school perspective. They therefore can perceive and monitor how curriculum, personnel, students, and facilities interrelate on a day-to-day basis. With a more balanced internal view, line supervisors are in better position to evaluate critically suggestions and mandates in terms of their possible implications. They can implement changes and make necessary adjustments without unnecessarily disturbing the professional, human, and organizational interrelationships within a school.

A more intimate knowledge of personal factors, professional strengths and weaknesses, and the complex social and political forces that operate within a school can be achieved through line supervision. With such knowledge, a principal is better able to guide teachers through potential problems, match "in-house" professional strengths and weaknesses, and request specialized assistance or staff development for teachers who might become the core of a synergistic resource team.

Since line supervisors are localized and concentrated, they have excellent opportunities to develop their four bases of authority. Through daily sustained interactions, they can develop personal relationships with colleagues and become more accepted by them. This might enable them to provide greater personal support or succorance to teachers while also using their demonstrated professional expertise to reveal new options and alternatives. Line supervisors have the potential to transcend their predominant pattern of exclusive reliance upon positional authority by redirecting it in more positive directions: removing personal and professional barriers, securing needed resources, and generally enhancing personal, professional, and organizational development.

Efficiency is a major strength of line supervision. Using positional authority, the principal can coordinate activities by acting across diverse subject matter and/or grade levels. Thus, greater uniformity of efforts and instruction can be achieved.

Messages from line supervisors constitute clear and direct sources of communications since their authority is bases on rules, regulations, and law. This communication has the intent of removing confusion and doubt while efficiently moving large numbers toward achievement of organizational goals. Since line supervisors have direct authority for communications, teachers typically view them

as capable of resolving difficulties. Teacher concerns such as inadequacy of schedules, textbook adoptions, and room temperatures can be resolved by a single administrative memo.

Administrators can use their direct authority to initiate professional improvement and curriculum development. They can mandate participation in staff development or counseling sessions. They can suggest, recommend, and obtain compliance with a system of rewards and punishments. A teacher who complies might be relieved of bus duties, assignment to certain committees, or lunchroom responsibilities. Those teachers who fail to comply and conform can be reprimanded or even dismissed.

As line officers responsible for school finances, administrators can use their influence to secure needed construction, materials, and personnel. Members of a hierarchal structure, they can obtain needed resources quickly. They have access to purchasing officers or warehouse foremen, and therefore can request and secure additional texts, supplies, and equipment.

These advantages can, however, be mixed blessings. Concentration in one setting can produce a parochial perspective that limits knowledge of newer methods, materials, and changing emphases. Professional and organizational inertia might follow. Immersion in one setting makes it difficult for a line administrator to achieve an unbiased

view. Being closely tied to one school, principals may not fully recognize how instruction has become routinized or how their own policies and procedures might be restricting human interaction and professional development.

Principals' continuous involvement in the social and political sphere within their buildings might also limit their personal and professional effectiveness. They might be perceived as favoring certain individuals or styles of teaching which then might become accepted as models or norms. Teachers with differing styles might be reluctant to acknowledge weaknesses or share strengths, fearing that they might be perceived as different and therefore unacceptable to the principal and their peers. Perceptions of favoritism or exclusion may thus limit the principals' access to the resources within their faculties.

The concentration of authority in a single position such as a principal limits supervision's effectiveness. Supervision is forced to compete with managerial tasks, paperwork, and other concerns for the time, energy, and attention of the line supervisor.

> Difficulty frequently arises in maintaining both perspective and balance in decision-making for the supervisor in a position of line authority. Matters of program and personnel, generally considered to be the perogative of this role, must compete with matters of finance, facilities, and student services. Conforming to existing administrative policies or organizational procedures may take precedence over improving instruction. (Firth & Eiken, 1982, p.156)

Firth and Eiken (1982) noted that the absense of a position

devoted fully to supervision limits the amount of specialized assistance teachers might hope to receive in improving instruction.

Communication from a line supervisor tends to be clear and direct, but is often authoritarian. Since messages are assumed to be directives, teachers may be hesitant to question or propose alternatives. The line supervisor thus operates without the benefit of many suggestions that might facilitate the organization's goals.

Line supervisors may also find it difficult to meet the human needs of teachers because of the evaluative nature of their positions. It is difficult for teachers to accept, include, and trust individuals who issue judgments concerning them. Similarly, it is difficult for line supervisors to develop a meaningful relationship with teachers. The hierarchy exerts a potent influence in its division of labor. Affiliations and close support are typically frowned upon.

A line-and-staff framework thus offers advantages and limitations in addressing the professional, human, and organizational theories of supervision. Line supervision, using external authority, offers an efficient means of directing efforts toward the achievement of organizational goals. However, this authority and the evaluative nature of the position limit the line supervisor's effectiveness in creating a context that satisfies the factors necessary

for human development, instructional improvement, and ultimately the achievement of organizational goals. Staff supervision offers a potential framework for encouraging the satisfaction of human needs and the improvement of instruction. However, its lack of formal authority frequently requires the influence of the line supervisor for effectiveness.

These advantages and limitations highlight the need for a framework that enables supervisors to operate more holistically. A different relationship over an intense period of time might enable supervisors to put a more unified theory into practice.

The Consultant

An alternative possibility for the staff person is a concentrated relationship akin to that of a consultant. Lucio and McNeill (1979) describe a consultant as a resource person assigned to promote the improvement of teaching and curriculum by working with and advising teachers, principals, and assistant superintendents in a wide range of activities including planning, demonstration teaching and counseling. Lippitt and Lippitt (1978) characterized consultants as individuals who enter a setting for a sustained period of time and employ two-way processes of seeking, giving, and receiving help.

While relatively new to the educational scene, consultants have a long and varied history in other fields (Brown, 1979). Caplan (1970), for example, indicates that they have long been a part of the mental health field, helping clients to solve current problems and deal more effectively with similar ones in the future (Meyers, Parsons, & Martin, 1979).

Consultants have also been used as a means of help in such fields as corrections and religion (Lippitt & Lippitt, 1978). The field of social work itself has historically served a consultation function. In its early beginnings, the social worker's primary function was to act as an intermediary between physicians' recommendations to poor immigrant families, helping patients to understand the reasons for the recommendations, and helping them carry out these recommendations. They also helped to educate the poor regarding the causes of health problems.

Consultants have recently become respected adjunct members to business as well as educational communities, providing services in organization, curriculum, and staff development (McGill, 1978; Bennis, 1969; Goff, 1975; Wiles, 1967). An examination of these areas might supply insights regarding the scope and nature of their role in a particular school.

Organizational development (OD), as a body of theory, is relatively new. According to Poetzinger (1981) and Bennis

(1969), its formal history dates only from 1957-1958. Based upon the previous work and research of Kurt Lewin (1935) organizational development is often called planned change. Dillon-Peterson (1981) defines it as a process undertaken by an organization or part of an organization to define and meet changing self-improvement objectives, while making it possible for individuals in the organization to meet their personal and professional objectives. The principle tenet of organizational development is the belief that a change in personal values coupled with a change in the way persons treat one another are primary factors for organizational change (Hampton, Summer, & Weber, 1973). According to OD theory, people who help, trust, and cooperate will be able to build a more efficient organization. The aim of organization development is thus organization health which is a function of the integration of individual and organization goals.

Consultants enter into long-range relationships with organizations as change agents or catalysts in improving its problem-solving and renewal process, particularly by effecting more effective collaborative management processes (Poetzinger, 1981; Huse, 1975; Schein, 1969). This improvement is achieved by using such strategies as team-building, "T" groups, and job enrichment activities (Schein, 1969; Schmuck, 1975).

Various names have been given to these change agents including consultant, OD practitioner, and OD consultant. Lippitt and Lippitt (1969) used the term "renewal stimulator" whereas Schein (1969) prefers "process consultant." Regardless of which term is used, organizational consultants perform essentially the same functions: effecting greater cooperation, creating a climate of openness and trust, improving communication and leadership, and generally helping the organization to be more adaptive and effective in accomplishing its tasks as well as in creating a high quality of life for its employees (Dillon-Peterson, 1981).

Consultants have also been used on a limited basis within educational circles as sources of staff development. Staff development, according to Dillon-Peterson (1981) is a process designed to foster personal and professional growth for individuals within an organizational climate having as its ultimate aim better learning for students and continuous responsible self-renewal for educators and schools. Whereas OD focuses upon interpersonal relations, groups, and subsystems of the organization, staff development focuses more intensely upon an individual's personal and professional development. In its brief history, staff development has broadened from in-service for limited faculty members to institution-wide development of all staff.

Staff development as provided by consultants has generally followed two paths. In the first, consultants

enter a setting for a brief period of time and seek to improve the personal and professional skills of educators through a variety of in-service formats including lectures, workshops, seminars, and discussions. These sessions, formalized and conducted in a setting apart from students, are aimed at imparting knowledge and effecting changes in attitudes. Rubin (1975) indicated that while such sessions can provide valuable information and insights, they are typically organized for "average teachers," presumably under the assumption that all participating teachers are alike. Practitioners complain that such staff development deals with lofty concepts but fails to address how they might be applied (McCarthy, 1982).

Consultants more recently have been used within schools to provide more flexible staff development. Recent research (Howey & Bents, 1981) indicates that teachers have shifting personal and professional needs and vary in the manner in which they change (Meyers, Parsons, & Martin, 1979). Like the previous model, the consultant provides staff development that focuses on improving personal and professional skills of teachers. However, it differs in that the consultant spends an extended amount of time within a setting, and through a variety of techniques collects data, helps determine problems, and involves teachers in identifying and implementing strategies that might enable them to overcome difficulties. These problems can stem from various

sources including understanding, interpersonal dynamics, and teaching-learning processes. As facilitators, consultants provide information-giving, personal support, and help in demonstrating and analyzing alternative instructional approaches. This type of staff development might be extremely valuable in effecting personal and professional improvements.

Wiles (1967) noted that consultants have been successfully used to effect curriculum, and more generally, program changes. He indicates that providing educators with consultants for developing and implementing curriculum has significant merit. Throughout the 50's and 60's, consultants were successful catalysts for programmatic changes. Their success was attributed largely to the notion that they were accessible. They became "firing-line partners" with educators thoughout the process of planning, developing, and implementing curriculum changes (Wiles, 1967). Through on-site observations and periodic meetings, consultants gained the benefit of feedback concerning program effectiveness. Teachers and consultants had opportunities to work out the bugs and make needed resources on a continuous basis. A more viable model of program development thus emerged (Rhodes & Young, 1981).

Consultants have therefore provided a number of services in staff, organization, and program development. However, they have primarily functioned as if each of these

areas were separate and discrete, rather than interrelated. The successful teacher is a key to successful learning for students, but his efforts can be enhanced or blocked by the organizational environment in which he functions. Program change can occur through staff development that enables teachers and principals to acquire new perceptions and skills. Organization, the staff, and the program are thus intricately related.

An alternative practice for staff supervisors would be to assume the role of a consultant and enter a setting over a sustained period of time to function in a manner that recognizes these interrelationships. The consultancy might then become a means of utilizing the advantages of line-and-staff practice while transcending its limitations. A brief discussion will highlight how this might occur.

Spending a concentrated time span such as three months in a school might enable staff persons to overcome dispersion and thus develop sustained personal relationships. Without direct authority for teacher evaluations and being relatively free from complex social and political forces that operate, consultants might be more easily accepted, supported, and included by others in daily activities. Since they constitute a potential source of specialized knowledge and experience, and might provide an unbiased view of what is occurring, principals might welcome them. Intense relationships might develop as consultants gain the

acceptance and trust of teachers, permitting a more intimate mutual support system among teachers, principals, and staff persons.

An intense period of time could enable consultants to become better regarded as respected professional colleagues. Through daily professional activities such as in-service workshops, demonstration lessons, conferences, and curriculum development, the consultant's professional expertise and specialized knowledge might become more recognized and valued and their professional suggestions more responsibly considered.

Over a prolonged period of time, consultants could transcend superficial issues and address themselves to more serious professional concerns. They would have time to involve teachers and principals in a process of instructional improvement and help sustain them through the difficult transitional and trial phases of new methods or techniques. Intense periods of clinical supervision would be more feasible and leadership in program development would become a natural consequence of this approach.

Within this more intensive context, consultants would have opportunities to apply their own specialties, but also gain a broader knowledge of how that specialty relates to the total curriculum within a setting. This could be a powerful means of educating supervisors themselves and could expand the professional expertise upon which most of their authority is based.

Through a consultant approach, the staff supervisor might also help line supervisors to develop their professional skills and insights. An atmosphere might be established whereby both teachers and principals feel impelled to critically explore new approaches and models without loss of self-esteem or debilitating fear of failure. As members of a mutual support network, principals might thus acquire increased self-confidence that would encourage them to improve their own professional knowledge and teaching performance and thus become more widely respected by their faculties. Their professional advice and suggestions might thereby become more credible and therefore more acceptable.

A more complete knowledge and understanding of a particular school's organization and governance would also be possible. Through daily observations, a consultant would be in a better position to note how certain organizational policies and procedures enhance or restrict human interactions and involvement. The supervisor, by developing a trusted relationship with principals, might create an effective team to identify and apply alternative enhancing organizational, staff, and program development.

Intensive approaches patterned in this manner have not been extensively used within schools. Although it appears to hold much promise, it involves change. Its potential therefore depends upon a process that will enable the

consultant to recognize and deal effectively with the complex forces inherent in change.

Change can occur instantaneously, or can be painfully slow; change can be for the better or for the worse; change is complex; definitions alter with context. Change literally means to alter, to substitute, vary, shift, or modify. This involves risk-taking and trading the known for the unknown. Sarason (1971) notes that there are strong patterns of regularity in schools. Introducing change into the school setting means changing patterns of regularity that often provide security and structure.

There are numerous change theories and models based on varied views of human nature. According to the traditional view change occurs from "the top down." This theory is based on a mechanistic view of humans and the change process, according to which persons, organizations, and cultures change as a result of an outside influence (such as God, science, or technology). This model of change still exists in all segments of society. McGregor's (1960) Theory X, noting that humans must be coerced to change, is a recent example.

MacDonald (1981) argued that such a view presupposes that humans are naturally passive with little will or sense of responsibility. He affirmed that humans are intentional, creative beings. A "top-down" view is a powerful and efficient way of securing needed changes, but changes can be

wrought at a great price! This view underestimates the internal commitment and leadership crucial for successful implementing change (Wiles, 1967). Individuals who are not included as co-participants in change might superficially comply, but lacking a sense of ownership, pride, and espirit de corps, they may not internalize and sustain it.

On the other end of the continuum from deterministic models are organic, or personal views of change. Such writers as Maslow (1954) and Rogers (1961) explain change as a function of internal forces that propel humans to attain a fully functioning state and to move toward the highest level of potentiality. Change is an intensely personal process, with inner forces propelling individuals to grow.

It is possible, however, for personal change to spark organizational change, and the reverse is also true. This view of change, referred to as an interactionist model, explains change as an interaction between the person or system and, the environment. The Gestalt School of Psychology was perhaps the most influential force in this conception of change (Lewin, 1935).

Another theory views change as a function of time, maturation, and integration of self. The developmental view focuses on the interaction between inner and outer forces, placing greater emphasis on the inner forces in the person and organization. A developmental view usually is

expressed in terms of stages of growth and development. Erickson (1959), for example, studied the basic stages of physical growth and related them to the environmental forces at work at each stage of life. He maintained that ego qualities emerged from eight critical stages of development. At these stages the person changed in order to integrate self with social institutions in the environment. Each new stage produced crucial conflicts which created conditions of growth in the self.

These are all viable views of change. Changes occur in programs, organizations, and instruction as people change. People and their needs change as they interact with each other, their environment, and as they mature and develop, not because someone else wishes they would or tells them they must. Wiles (1967) argued that many schools and their inhabitants have resisted change with good reason, since they have been lied to, conned, manipulated, and coerced by so-called change agents. Many teachers have therefore learned to ignore, resist, subvert change.

Wiles (1967) stated that change occurs in an idiosyncratic manner in each school and individual, and is based largely on a school's cultural peculiarities and configurations. The cultural configuration of any school has many reasons for being the way it is, some caused by the particular people who assemble there, from historic factors as well as the formal and informal leadership in the organization.

These factors contribute to basic cultural or subcultural features such as interpersonal norms, vested interests, and concerns. To successfully implement a change requires an understanding of the complexity and uniqueness of each school's culture. Successful change, according to Wiles (1967), results from respecting and accepting a school's culture for what it is and what it represents, seeking from it the information and human resources and involvement necessary to help plan and successfully implement it.

Sarason (1972) proposed a process that might enable a consultant to achieve Wiles' concept of successful change. His proposal includes many of the tenets previously described in the change theories and in organization, staff, and program development. The creation-of-settings model is a process of creating change through the recognition and use of the diverse cultural, personal, organization, social, and professional forces that impinge upon any innovation. Through a series of phases and strategies Sarason suggested how to confront and deal with these forces and the problems that might arise as change occurs. Elements of these phases and strategies constitute potentially a viable process for enabling changes to be successfully implemented within a particular setting.

Sarason, for example, suggested a "Before the Beginning Stage" in which individuals involved in change are encouraged to obtain agreement on values, goals, and philosophical

assumptions. He argued that this is an essential step. Within this stage he recommended that the history and existing relationships and forces be recognized and examined as to their possible influence. His suggestions concerning the "Beginning Context," "The Formation of a Core Group," and "The Leadership and Problems of Control" might enable a consultant to effect holistic changes resulting in instructional improvement.

The history of the "open education" movement illustrates the need for such a process. Several authors (Perrone, 1972; Rogers, 1975; Arnstine, 1973) have indicated that while the movement was founded upon important pedagogical concepts, it failed to achieve its potential because educators failed to operationally define the concept in terms of a process for gaining support and understanding of necessary changes. Its principles were in several cases spontaneously seized or dumped upon a setting without considering internal factors that might have engendered understanding and commitment. Commonly overlooked were stages in a process that might have guided individuals into successful implementation.

In cases where change has been successful, careful transitional processes seemed to be apparent. Hawkins (1970), for example, described how an innovative elementary science program (ESS) was successfully implemented through a process using shared leadership and expertise within an

educational setting. A similar process that considers the personal and professional histories of a setting, that uses internal talents, expertise, and the influence of others, and that reveals strategies for consultants becoming helpful partners with teachers and principals might engender the necessary support for implementing changes.

CHAPTER III

A COMPREHENSIVE MODEL OF EDUCATIONAL SUPERVISION

Introduction

Educational supervision is an instrument for effecting instructional improvement. Achievement of this outcome is a complex process encompassing personal, professional, and organizational change. Although they provide valuable contributions, former definitions and practices have lacked the scope and means to deal with the inherent difficulties and interrelationships involved in change.

A comprehensive model might transcend these problems if it included an effective process for dealing with change, an appropriate role for implementing the process, and a comprehensive focus embracing all the basic theoretical elements and their interactions. This dissertation will seek to meet these criteria by using adaptations of Sarason's model as the suggested process, a new definition of a staff supervisor akin to a consultant as the appropriate role, and a theoretical focus including organizational, professional, and human domains and their interactions.

A Process

Sarason (1972) offered suggestions for dealing with change. He noted, for example, that change requires time, widespread commitment, an understanding of the complexities

and uniqueness of each school's history and culture, personal interactions and sustained relationships, a balance between external and internal leadership, and continuous assistance and support enabling internal leadership to assume greater responsibility. A consideration of these may show how each contributes to achieving change.

Altering established personal, professional, and organizational patterns does not readily occur, but usually evolves over an extended period of time as individuals interact, solve problems, and search for meaning and order in their lives. No concise formula for the required length of time exists. Individuals as well as organizations change through diverse means, at varying paces, and by responding to each other's influence.

Regardless of its length, the time interval is typically characterized by stages having their own discrete histories and strategies for achieving desired outcomes. Although they have discernible characteristics, these stages have sequences which cannot be rigidly adhered to in practice, but must be flexible enough to respond to the uniqueness of each setting. Issues and problems from any one stage might surface at any time. A flexible timeline with overlapping stages is necessary.

Successful change can best be achieved when commitment on the part of the individuals and the organization develops through mutual understanding and involvement. Individuals

(from the "top-down" and "bottom-up" of the hierarchy) should have opportunities to develop a clear understanding of what the change may mean in terms of such everyday realities as the required time, needed resources, potential problems, and likely benefits. Opportunities to discuss, clarify, and consciously weigh these factors represent a major step toward developing common understanding and essential agreement on such issues as the purposes of the change; roles, relationships, and responsibilities; and generally how to proceed. Ownership becomes a powerful means of facilitating change.

Any proposed change must recognize and find a way of dealing with a school's unique history and culture. To relate to the school's Zeitgeist or " . . . what is in the air" is essential. What is in the air comes from existing relationships, preexisting personal, professional and organizational histories, and the distinct culture of that setting. The challenge is to acquire a sensitive understanding of the school and people's habits, ways of thinking, values, as well as the symbols, myths, and rituals. These factors, influencing what is presently occurring or what may occur in the future, can either facilitate or obstruct change. Insights gained from an understanding of these factors will affect the quality of an individual's potential contribution to the change process.

The use of the core group is frequently an effective means of achieving greater local initiative and responsibility for change. A core group is usually a small handful (sometimes one or two) of individuals within a setting who assume leadership in effecting change within themselves, others, and the organization. The formation and the continued functioning of this team is critically important.

It is important that the leader openly express a desire to form such a group, involve the principal in their selection, and together with them discuss, clarify, and agree on roles, relationships, what needs to be changed, who will do it, and generally what it is to be done. This group should also agree on how to handle conflicts, to expand its numbers, and to evaluate itself. Valuable as the strategy of a core group is, to be successful its members must experience internal growth.

The core group must have daily assistance and support if the individuals are to become all that they can in relationship to self, others, and the organization. They must find pleasure and joy in what they do. They must also have available sources of technical assistance as they plan and implement changes both within their classrooms and within the school.

A Role

Given this process for change, a staff role similar to that of a consultant appears an appropriate vehicle for

implementation. A staff person might have the time required for extensive involvement. Principals, inundated with competing tasks and responsibilities, often find it impossible to completely devote themselves to such an undertaking. This is not to imply that they should not be involved. The principal's participation, support, and visible leadership are essential. A staff supervisor, however, with a clear understanding of this process and the nature of the consultant role would be in a better position to supply the needed time and effort. The principal and the consultant could become a team with each contributing talents, resources, and the bases of their authority.

Using a consultant approach, a staff supervisor could become a "full-time resident" for several months in a single school. During that time span, he or she might participate in the daily life of the school, attending faculty and departmental meetings as well as engaging in chance dialogue with teachers in the hall, in the lounge, and in the cafeteria. The consultant might, furthermore, become involved in school-wide assignments and responsibilities (bulletin boards, curriculum and social committees, hall duties) as well as demonstrate teaching techniques in classrooms.

While participating, a consultant could naturally observe the general climate of the school, noting, for example, evidences of cohesiveness, leadership, and involvement. The consultant could also listen for concerns, as well as

see the general strengths and limitations of the school's operation, its program, and classroom teaching. Since the consultant would not be directly responsible for teacher evaluation, teachers might candidly express their opinions about curriculum revisions, staff development, communications, decision-making, and personal relationships. Perceiving a source of collegial support and assistance, principals might both undertake and support changes.

The consultant could, furthermore, provide feedback about observations as well as suggest alternative methods and approaches. By asking probing questions, supplying fresh and objective insights, offering daily encouragement as well as inviting others to do likewise, a consultant could raise a general awareness of conditions, needs, and possible changes that might enhance a school's potential.

Individuals might thus gain an increased understanding of the need for change and assume greater initiative, responsibility, and commitment for them. An internal leadership team similar to Sarason's (1972) core group, might emerge and become a catalyst for greater school-wide improvements.

As an accessible resource, a consultant could provide such a core group as well as the entire school with the daily support, expertise, and insights essential for planning, implementing, and sustaining changes that might improve instruction. In helping to effect these changes,

however, the consultant's focus would have to be broad, encompassing diverse areas and numerous individuals. A holistic theory is therefore crucial to the success of a comprehensive model.

A Theory

The consultant role is an appropriate means of implementing changes that would improve the quality of instruction. Sustained improvement, however, will not occur if consultants rely on the limited focus of previous models to guide their actions. Although they have offered valuable contributions, former models have basically concentrated on one of three aspects of educational supervision: organizational behavior, human relationships, or professional growth.

If instruction is to be significantly improved, consultants must be directed by a theory that embraces all three domains as well as their interrelatedness. Each is essential and legitimate. However, they do not operate exclusively. They function as interdependent elements whose combined power exhibits the intrinsic quality of all three. The next section will describe these three domains, their interactions, and the implications for consultants.

Organizational Domain

Schools are formal organizations. The purpose of any organization is to provide the means by which people might

cooperate to attain goals without getting in each other's way or nullifying each other's efforts. Educational supervisors and administrators are organizational members.

As administrators guide, direct and work with teachers, they engage in processes that either hinder or facilitate achievement of these goals. These processes include goal setting, decision-making, and communicating. Consultants could help administrators improve these processes and thereby enhance performance in achieving organizational goals.

Clear and shared conceptions of goals are helpful in any organization, but are vital in schools where members make frequent judgments in complex situations. Goals become a means of coordinating and directing individuals toward desired ends. This direction and coordination, however, can never be optimal if goals are insignificant, unclear, or unsupported in either words or actions.

Consultants might help administrators and teachers overcome these difficulties and thereby have more viable goals accompanied by concerted efforts to achieve them. Through such techniques as informal interviews, scheduled conferences, small group discussions, and directed observations, consultants could ascertain prevailing goals. Information gained through these means would be presented to the principal and the entire faculty for their information and possible action. Using small groups, for example, consultants might involve the staff in setting or clarifying

goals, analyzing the value bases, and considering their organizational, personal, and professional implications.

By spending a concentrated period of time in setting, consultants could identify obstacles blocking progress toward goals. They might, for example, determine instances of conflict between personal and organizational goals or between proclaimed goals and actual goals. Consultants might help administrators initiate practices such as shared decision-making, small group problem-solving, and open communication to enable faculties to become aware of conflicting goals and to assume responsibility for setting mutually acceptable ones. The process of establishing clear and significant goals would not only advance their achievement, but the working and communicating together could foster and deepen personal relationships, and increase professional knowledge.

A communication system exists in any institution whether it is a corporation, family or school. It is a means of transmitting information, emotions, values, as well as setting goals, making functional decisions, and clarifying problems. Communication is more than talk. It is an attempt to share one's feelings, purposes, and knowledge and to understand the feelings, purposes, and knowledge of others. It is a means of developing cohesion and commitment.

Communication is necessary if individuals are to work together toward common goals. Through communication, they discover what they hold in common as well as areas of difference. Since education's functions are largely carried out through interpersonal communications, the importance of clear and accurate communication cannot be overemphasized for the success of a school program. Inaccurate information causes confusion and blocks movement toward goals. Effective communication is a two-way process based on a sensitive understanding and respect for another's position.

Administrators, as leaders of schools, and teachers as classroom models, share a major responsibility for communication. Consultants can provide services to enable both to become more aware of the content, quality, and impact of their messages. Collaborative deliberations might become the basis for acquiring a deeper appreciation of and sensitivity toward other viewpoints. More open communication involving the articulation of organizational, personal, and professional concerns could be a valuable by-product.

A consultant's daily observations and involvement in meetings, teaching, and casual conversation can help educators develop an understanding of formal and informal communication networks and how they operate to facilitate or obstruct communications. Consultants could help individuals to acquire understandings, skills, and attitudes to effectively deal with such networks

while also enhancing their interpersonal relationships and professional expertise. These same understandings and skills would enable individuals to have a clearer conception of organizational goals and make more effective decisions.

Decisions must be made in every organization. Administrators and teachers engage in what seems to be an endless array of daily judgements. As leaders of the organization, principals facilitate or obstruct the making of decisions. An administrator (or teacher) who views this process as an exclusive right loses the benefit of shared expertise, talents, and skills. Teachers (or students) who rarely participate in decisions develop little commitment toward school and classroom goals and frequently become convinced of their own powerlessness to effect change.

A growing organization that is effectively achieving its goals usually has an administrator who knows how to make prudent decisions and is able to translate requisite understandings, skills, and attitudes to staff members. Effective decision-making is thus a recurring phenomenon at all levels.

A consultant could provide a number of services to improve the quality of decision-making in a school. The consultant could help administrators and teachers examine and evaluate their decision-making patterns, noting how they influence relationships, perceptions, attitudes, and involvement.

A consultant, after observing a classroom teaching episode, could discuss with teachers the types of decisions that were made, who made them, and what effects on student participation came as a result. A more inclusive classroom climate with extensive involvement might be an outcome of such conversations.

Similarly, a consultant might observe a core group or a program improvement committee in action, noting general cohesiveness and who typically performed what functions (clarifier, informer, encourager). Insights could be shared with the group as a means of helping it to evaluate its own effectiveness. Principals might profit from teachers who could increasingly share their knowledge, improve the effectiveness of their decisions, develop more positive interpersonal relationships, and gain a deeper appreciation for involving others. These skills and insights could be readily transferred into classrooms.

Organizational processes are thus related to each other and to other theoretical domains. Open, clear messages improve the accuracy and impact of communications. Accurate communications enable individuals to better become informed and make more effective decisions regarding, for example, organizational goals. Involvement in the processes of goal-setting, communicating, and decision-making enhances relationships, increases professional knowledge, and provides educators with a better understanding of their roles in achieving goals.

Although these processes contribute to other domains, they also depend on them. Effectiveness of organizational processes is vitally related to the professional knowledge and skills of participants and the personal satisfaction derived from the experience. Individuals find it difficult to become involved in these processes as well as professional development unless their human needs are met.

Human Domain

Schools are human organizations in the sense that they have human purposes and pursue these purposes by working directly with and through humans. Schools and teaching cannot be divorced from the human element.

Educators have a variety of unique needs. Opportunities for satisfying them provide intrinsic satisfaction to those involved and lead to greater accomplishment. Three such needs are affiliation, self-esteem, and risk-taking. Their satisfaction is essential to personal, professional, and organizational change.

Affiliation is a feeling of belonging, of being accepted and supported by others. All persons experience this need. Through affiliations, individuals learn to help each other and work as a cohesive unit. They also acquire the basic attitudes and values that aid in their development of higher needs. Among these values are an awareness and acceptance of self -- its limitations and uniqueness; a validation of self as capable of influence and

accomplishment; a commitment to build and maintain an interdependency with others in which help can be freely given and received; and a positive appraisal of the differences and conflicts among members.

Strong affiliations with colleagues are important to teacher growth. People change as they are accepted, included, and valued by others. They are more likely to explore, to tinker, and venture into the new since they can count on the acceptance and support of the group. Through affiliations, individuals acquire new understandings, skills, and attitudes. These do not automatically occur, but emerge as individuals interact and participate with each other.

Responsibility for satisfying the need for affiliation lies with both principal and teacher whose joint decisions and policies either foster or deter it. A consultant can help teachers and administrators focus upon this need and the extent to which it is being experienced by providing opportunities for them to develop rapport as they develop curriculum, make school decisions, and analyze instructional problems. In essence, educators could satisfy affiliation needs as they work together to improve the organization and to extend their professional knowledge.

A second basic personal need is self-esteem. This is basically a person's conviction of his fundamental efficacy and self-worth. It is the integrated sum of self-confidence and self-respect.

A person's good feeling is vital to his or her optimal functioning. It develops from nurturance and involvement. It is largely a social product. This self-esteem is acquired through supportive relationships and open communication where individuals are accepted, included, and recognized as beings of inherent worth. It is also achieved and maintained as persons intentionally wrestle with new ideas, make choices, and become involved in decision-making. Its collapse is not achieved in a day or a week, but results from an accumulation of experiences in which individuals are rejected, excluded, ignored, or uninvolved.

When self-esteem needs are met, individuals become more aware of their interdependency with others and begin to assume responsibility for relationships and decisions. With positive self-esteem, they are able to take criticism, admit shortcomings, profit from advice, face problems, and enter new learning situations without fear. With increased self-confidence, individuals become active, intentional doers. They are changed and in turn they become a catalyst for change.

Teachers whose self-esteem needs are not satisfied may become "closed" individuals who doubt their own effectiveness. To do so is to be stopped, paralyzed, and condemned to self-doubt and a sense of impotency. In order to grow and achieve teachers must view themselves as worthwhile individuals capable of making a difference. A satisfied

self-esteem gives them the confidence and courage to reach beyond and effect change.

The consultant would be in a unique position to create an environment in which the self-esteems of teachers and administrators could be enhanced. He or she could, for example, praise and recognize individuals for their efforts and accomplishments. A periodic newsletter or a faculty social initiated by a consultant and a core group might become a tangible means of recognizing and sharing successful classroom strategies and techniques.

Daily encouragement and positive feedback from a consultant could give teachers and principals the confidence to examine personal, professional, and organizational limitations, to identify needed changes, and assume greater responsibility for seeing that targeted changes occur. The consultant's insights could also help individuals to become more aware of strengths. Observations might serve to validate a successful program or procedure.

Persons who are accepted and challenged by others, and who have a positive view of themselves, are more ready to take risks. People are curious. They feel the need to explore, to manipulate, to test and discover themselves and their environment. Risk-taking impels an individual to transcend conventional ways of performing a task or approaching a problem. It is a need to go farther afield and explore new and unknown territory. It is often an

irrational process in which individuals reach out for further understandings and skills they need to be increasingly effective. Confirmation, correction, change and self-validation result from taking risks.

Risk-taking is a function of trust in self and in the support of others. A positive view of self gives one the desire and courage to take risks. It is associated with openness in relationships, communications, and an environment that encourages individuals to test their adequacy. As a result of risk-taking, teachers usually gain something to hold on to whether it be a vivid memory or a sharpened awareness. More frequently it leads to the emergence of new insights and interrelationships that need to be tested. In its wake risk-taking leaves a richer base of experience and, in most cases, a changed individual.

A consultant can help principals and teachers recognize the value of risk-taking by personally encouraging and supporting it. This support could assume several forms. A consultant could point out how much teachers trying a new instructional approach need the principal's support. The consultant might encourage principals to pay registration and travel fees to appropriate conferences where teachers could gain an increased understanding about ways to implement a new approach.

A consultant can also make administrators aware of the readiness of teachers to try an alternative approach.

By citing benefits to teachers, students, and the school, the consultant might gain the principal's participation.

The consultant who involves teachers in decisions regarding curriculum, staff development, and instruction fosters an attitude of ownership, commitment, and willingness to try that may continue long after the residency ends. A consultant as a team member in problem-solving may also increase risk-taking and the sharing of successes as well as failures. An improved program could result.

Furthermore risk-taking may occur when a consultant joins a group of individuals who want to try some new instructional approaches. Initial fears can be overcome by a consultant who admits doubts and mistakes, provides information, models the approach being considered and promises to stand by to "bail out" teachers who could become "head over heels."

A small band of individuals such as a core group might thus lead in taking risks that could benefit everyone. Opportunities for risk-taking could become a daily occurrence as individuals sought to improve classroom instruction, to implement curriculum changes, to engage in relevant staff development, and to improve the daily operations of schools. Through such risk-taking, educators might experience self-validation as they improved themselves and the organization.

These three human needs (affiliation, self-esteem, and risk-taking), relate to each other as well as to the organizational and professional domains. Affiliations provide individuals with deepening self-esteem expressed in growing confidence in relating to others. A broadened self-esteem affords individuals a sense of inner confidence and self-worth that frees them to transcend self-doubts and look beyond conventional ways of doing things in effecting change. As individuals bring about changes through taking risks, they affirm their own self-adequacy, acquire and share new insights, and reach out for support and advice. A widening circle of affiliation, enhanced self-esteem, and new insight emerges when these human needs are satisfied. Their satisfaction leads individuals beyond the status quo to become involved in improving themselves and their environment. Fulfillment produces greater cohesiveness, commitment to organizational goals, and desire for continued personal and professional improvement. These needs can be satisfied within the context of schools as individuals improve it and their professional knowledge.

Professional Domain

This domain consists of the continued growth and development of educators which may result from efforts to improve classroom instruction and from experience in both staff and curriculum development. This growth involves knowledge, skills and attitudes. All of these are

important, and they interact daily within the context of classrooms. In the final analysis it is what the teacher decides to do day by day with students that really matters. If teachers are to continue to grow and if instruction is to improve, then the quality of this daily encounter needs to be a primary focus for professional development.

A consultant's help can be instrumental in effecting significant improvement in the teaching-learning process. In collaboration with consultants, teachers could acquire knowledge, skills and the needed self-confidence to take risks to enhance their personal and professional effectiveness. Teachers, consultants, and principals, for example, might initiate a clinical model of supervision to increase teachers' professional options, help them resolve problems, and bring the faculty closer together.

Principals may also increase their professional knowledge and personal effectiveness by participating in these efforts. They could initiate instructional problem-solving groups or instructional resource teams to provide the faculty with continuing information, insights, and support. An instructional council might emerge as a viable decision-making body.

Staff development, a basic component in the continuing preparation and growth of teachers and administrators, is a multifaceted process of providing diverse learning opportunities for individuals working in schools. It assumes

that educators want to grow and that learning experience will improve the quality of the school's programs.

In practice, staff development has traditionally assumed the form of a series of leader-directed lectures, seminars, workshops, and mini-courses conducted apart from students. It has tended to be highly prescriptive. Seldom have teachers experienced opportunities to determine their professional needs and form problem-solving groups to address them. Teachers have also rarely participated in staff development enabling them to acquire progressively a more sensitive understanding of what was occurring directly in their classrooms and have support as they sought to improve what they were doing.

Principals, as leaders, administrators, and supervisors of schools, are largely responsible for helping their staffs grow professionally. With the consultant's help, administrators could initiate a continuous process of relevant and meaningful staff development. To accomplish this, consultants might provide a number of services. They might observe the total school program, noting the quality of work performed and how organizational processes and human needs influence professional growth. They might ask teachers to respond to the surveys, and/or invite their participation in discussions aimed at clarifying their own needs, interests, and identifying skills, talents, and knowledge they collectively share.

Through a consultant's help, schools could transform faculty meetings into staff development sessions in which individuals might exchange information and insights. Principals could invite teachers to visit other classrooms, and share ideas and materials. Consultants, as on-site coaches, might provide valuable suggestions, demonstrations, and support as individuals attempted to implement ideas acquired in formal and informal staff development sessions. Staff development would be a valuable means of facilitating instructional and personal growth. It could also complement and support curriculum development.

Curriculum development involves planning (individually and collectively) what to teach, how to teach, and then implementing and evaluating those plans. In practice, the locus of responsibility has generally shifted among several levels including state, federal, and school system. A common pattern has been for outside "experts" to decide when curriculum change was appropriate and then to draw up (or have centralized committees devise) curriculum plans without the direct and widespread involvement of teachers. Staff development has been noticeably absent from these plans. Although a few of these curriculum development projects have been effective, generally they have not been successful in creating major changes in what students learn, how teachers teach, and how schools operate.

A consultant could help teachers and principals to initiate curriculum development processes in which these individuals could assume responsibility for planning, developing, and implementing curriculum. Curriculum, therefore, would not be externally planned, but would emerge from the daily needs and interactions among teachers, pupils, principals, and consultants in a specific school site. The organization might profit from such curriculum development; instruction in the schools might improve, and teachers might experience positive change in their own performance.

Curriculum development, staff development, and the improvement of instruction are interrelated processes for improving a school's total program. Participation provides teachers opportunities to grow professionally, to satisfy their human needs, and to influence the quality of the school's operation.

It becomes increasingly evident that while each of these domains makes unique contributions, they do not operate independently. Accurate communication, effective decision-making, and significant goals depend on viable interpersonal relationships and relevant professional development if they are to be effective. Professional development will never be optimal in organizations that restrict human interactions, deny participation in decision-making and goal-setting, and fail to provide opportunities for individuals and the organization to jointly become all they

can. When human needs are not met, individuals may view themselves as impotent and choose not to participate in activities to improve their own performance as well as the quality of the school's daily operations. To satisfy these needs, individuals must have opportunities to relate as they effect significant change within themselves and the organization.

Since these elements are interdependent, they can either enhance or nullify each other's contributions. In initiating changes to improve instruction, consultants must therefore move beyond an exclusive focus on one domain. They must consider how organizational processes, human needs, and professional development interact to influence and be influenced by change.

CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH STRATEGY AND METHODOLOGY

Introduction

A comprehensive model holds much promise in addressing the supervisory problems that have been described. Ultimate fulfillment of that promise is related to its generalizability to everyday school settings. Transference to these situations, in turn, necessitates a detailed, first-hand knowledge of how the components actually function. Implementation on a limited scale could supply the operational insight and understanding essential to the model's wider adoption.

Research Strategy

A pilot study conducted during the spring of 1982 at a junior high school in High Point, North Carolina, provided the impetus for a more extensive field study. Six weeks at that site provided enough time for the researcher to initiate some aspects of the model. He was able, for example, to help two teachers who wanted ideas for interrelating their disciplines (language arts, social studies) and to involve them in a clinical approach for improving instruction.

Although these efforts were positively received, the researcher concluded that this interval of time was

insufficient to enable him to develop a viable leadership team who could become catalysts for effecting change. Other systemwide demands forced him to leave after six weeks.

This pilot study, however, convinced him that the consultant role did have the potential for translating a unified theory into practice. A longer period of time would enable him to develop the interest, enthusiasm, and commitment of an internal leadership team who would accept the challenge of improving themselves and the school setting.

The researcher, therefore, decided that an extended field study of several months at another site was necessary to supply insights that would address these questions: How is a comprehensive model implemented? How does it operate? How is it perceived by participants? What does it do for them? Data gained would be invaluable in helping others to acquire a detailed understanding of how the model functions. That information could expedite the model's transference to other potential sites.

To collect this necessary data, however, required a research methodology that recognizes and uses immersion, involvement, and human relationships as legitimate vehicles for acquiring an understanding. Ethnography and the technique of participant-observation satisfied this requirement.

Methodology

Ethnography has long been a part of the research tradition in anthropology. It is based on the belief that the researcher who lives with people, engages in their activities, and sees things from a participant's viewpoint acquires a unique perspective about a setting or phenomenon. An ethnography is a written account of an individual who immerses himself in a particular field setting for a specified time period and then describes, analyzes, and interprets his experiences (Nanda, 1980; Spradley and McCurdy, 1972).

To gain a deeper and more extensive understanding of how the proposed model functions, an ethnographic approach was used in a school in High Point, North Carolina. This method consisted of the researcher's assuming a prolonged period of "residency" to implement and examine critically the model's operation. As a part of this field study, he compiled a written report that describes and analyzes his experiences.

Data for this report were collected primarily through participant-observations in meetings, classrooms, and in the general school setting. Kluckhohn gives a description of what this technique involves:

> Participant-observation is conscious and systematic sharing insofar as circumstances permit in the life activities and . . . in the interests and affects of a group of persons. It's purpose is to obtain data . . . through direct contact and in terms of specific situations. (Kluckhohn, 1940, p.331)

According to Crane and Angrosino (1974), participant-observation is field research in which the ethnographer is not merely a detached observer.

The researcher also becomes an active participant in the daily routines and events of a setting. Inherent in such participation is the development of mutually beneficial relationships between the researcher and his "informers." The sense of identity, trust, and community that flows from these relationships can open up fresh insights typically hidden or unexplored in other research modes.

Data from participant-observations were supplemented by informal and formal interviews with principals, teachers, supervisors, and superintendents. Events, interactions, and conversations were recorded in a journal for reflection and analysis.

Participant-observation offers a number of advantages as well as disadvantages. It offers greater flexibility in collecting data. Researchers are free to utilize formal techniques or to rely upon informal means including non-directive interviews and personal documentation strategies such as diaries, journals, or essays.

With this flexibility, the ethnographer can capture understandings and meanings in whatever forms they are expressed. Information and insights eluding formal tools might be revealed through informal means.

The range of relevant and reliable information is thus significantly increased. Kluckhohn noted:

> In rather obvious respects, the range of data would seem to be increased. . . . First, it affords access to the data which comes from observation in the current situations in which members are involved. . . . Secondly, there are in all groups certain kinds of data which are guarded more closely than other types. Direct questions . . . may be met with evasions. Indirect questions may also fail. . . . Participation may, however, open the door to this guarded realm. (Kluckhohn, 1940, pp.337-338)

Immersion in a site affords the researcher an opportunity to check the reliability of data being collected. Through continuous interactions and involvement, the ethnographer sees informants over an extended span of time rather than a single 3-5 minute session and can thus judge the reliability of what is seen and heard.

Participant-observation enables researchers to express their insights and emotions. This process affirms their significance in the creation of knowledge. They are not divorced from the sources of their knowledge.

Since ethnographers are not divorced from knowledge and others, a number of potential problems might arise, especially in such areas as objectivity and representativeness. Wilson (1981) indicated, for example, that because participant-observers do not use familiar quantitative methods of standardizing subject's expressions or researcher observations, those not acquainted with it often fear the data will be polluted with the observer's subjective bias.

Addressing this problem requires a scrutiny of the meaning of objectivity. Berreman (1968) noted that no one can be completely objective in any undertaking since humans are by definition subjective. To deny bias is to mask the problem. Wilson (1981) stated that ethnographic research is as "objective" as other kinds of research.

> To explain this assertion, we must refer back to the qualitative-pehnomenological hypothesis about human behavior. . . . Human actions have more meaning than the concrete facts of who, what, where, and when an outsider can observe; they have more meanings than even the responses subjects could give being retrospective. The ethnographer strives to uncover these. . . . He uses the technique (participant-observation) . . . to be in touch with a wide range of participant experiences. In order to understand . . . the researcher must learn to systematically empathize with the participants. . . . This assumption . . . calls for such techniques as empathy and non-standardized observation.
>
> There are, however, important differences between the subjectivity of the participants and that of the researcher, who is careful never to abandon himself to the perspectives. . . . In addition to systematically taking the perspective of the subjects, he also views actions from the perspective of the outsider. . . . These tensions in point of view -- between outsider and insider and between groups of insiders -- keep the careful researcher from lapsing into the feared subjectivity. (Wilson, 1981, pp.198-199)

Wilson furthermore noted that one observational definition of "objectivity in science is the assertion that any independent scientist viewing the same reality with the same techniques would gather similar data." The same claim can be made about an ethnographic design.

Informants became valuable sources of data and perhaps the best information will come from only one or two individuals. A problem of representativeness might arise.

Berreman (1968) indicated that there is a wide range in the representativeness of a sample. According to Berreman, Raymond Firth derived information from all of 1,300 subjects whereas Cornelius Osgood worked some 500 hours with a single Ingladi Indian informant. There is no simple answer. A prolonged field experience with a combination of techniques, however, would enable a researcher to perceive whether the information received was representative. Despite these potential problems, participant-observation offers a unique and valuable means of gaining an inside understanding of a phenomena.

In summary, gaining the operational information essential for wider adoption of a comprehensive model necessitated a prolonged field experience similar to that of an anthropologist who spends a concentrated period of time participating and observing in the lives of people in a given location. This researcher selected a school and immersed himself in its daily activities for several months. During that time, he attempted to implement and analyze the proposed model as he participated in the daily activities of that school. His experiences and insights as well as those of participants were recorded in a journal and then compiled into a written report that describes and analyzes the model's operation.

CHAPTER V

A FIELD STUDY

Introduction

Analyzing how a theoretical model operates in a practical setting is an essential step in the development and testing of that model. To acquire an understanding of how the proposed model functions, I undertook a field study at a middle school in High Point, North Carolina. During the span of four months, four overlapping stages, comparable to Sarason's, were identified. These will be used to describe and analyze the implementation of a comprehensive model of supervision.

Before the Beginning (August 17 - September 10, 1982)

The three weeks prior to entry were marked by extensive self-reflection as well as attempts to anticipate problems, gain personal and organizational commitment, select a potential field site, and obtain preliminary information concerning that setting. The resulting insights, information, and commitments provided the foundation for the consultant approach.

In arriving at this approach, I considered my personal values and preferred method of operation, my experiences as a beginning teacher, and my experiences as a staff supervisor. These personal observations were supported by comments

from principals, one of whom had been a former staff supervisor.

In reflecting about my own values and modus operandi, I discovered that I am basically an action-oriented individual who is nurtured by the daily relationships and problems that occur in schools. I enjoy examining educational problems from several viewpoints, involving others in seeking fresh solutions, and working together on problems of mutual concern. I've found that there are diverse ways of approaching such problems, and that no one individual has "a corner" on insights, leadership, or expertise.

Recalling my own teaching experience, I remembered my embarrassment and frustrations in attempting to obtain supervisory help. Such assistance was typically regarded as symptomatic of personal and professional inadequacies. I was also aware that although teachers knew that administrative policies and procedures limited their classroom effectiveness, they were reluctant to complain. It was easier to ignore problems than either request supervisory assistance or confront a "superior."

As a staff supervisor, I knew the difficulties of providing meaningful professional and human service to teachers. The bureaucratic responsibilities, the diffusion among several schools, and the lack of formal authority restricted a meaningful contribution at the school level.

Conversations with two principals confirmed my perception of problems faced by line supervisors. Sarah, a principal with only two years of experience, indicated that competing organizational demands combined with lack of specialized professional expertise frequently limited a principal's effectiveness. Instructional supervision inevitably fell to a lower priority. Suzanne, a former staff supervisor, revealed an additional problem: "teachers are afraid or at least reluctant to approach principals with their problems."

Competing demands and the evaluative nature of their jobs thus compelled principals to turn to staff supervisors to provide meaningful help. Although staff supervisors had the potential of helping, their time was typically so splintered that they rarely could make a significant contribution at the school level.

As a result of this self-reflection and dialogue, I became convinced that educators were being denied services that could enhance them as well as the school. I decided to reshape my role as a staff supervisor by expanding a pilot project initiated the preceding year.

Six weeks at Griffin Junior High School had enabled me to become an accepted and trusted member of the faculty. I was able to help several teachers try some blending of disciplines (language arts, science, and social studies units), a cycle of clinical supervision, and the sharing of

ideas and materials. Since this pilot project had been enthusiastically received by teachers and principals and had been favorably reported to the central office, I felt that it was an opportune time to approach the Associate Superintendent about the consultant role. The following section from my journal recounts what occurred.

August 18, 1982

I was going to get a cup of coffee this morning when Dr. Andrews stopped me. He asked me to stop by his office around 2:30 to discuss working with _____ Middle School. Susan, the principal of instruction, had voiced the need for some help. I indicated that "I too want to share some ideas about working in one of the middle schools this fall."

After inviting me into his office, Dr. Andrews stated, "Larry, you did a spendid job at Griffin last year. Fred and John (principals) said that you accomplished things that they couldn't possibly have done."

I indicated that I felt very pleased about the Griffin project: "I believe the supervisory process piloted there is a powerful means of addressing the needs of teachers as well as school and systemwide goals. I'd like to discuss extending it this fall."

Dr. Andrews wanted more information on the approach I used. He related that he understood that I went in and worked with teachers on a daily basis. The following dialogue followed:

L.A.: That's a big part of it. I believe that you really have to be a part of a setting to develop the credibility that's necessary to help teachers and the setting grow. During the first few weeks in a setting, I interact informally with the teachers involved. I also learned from the Griffin experience that you first work with teachers who are interested in working with you and have credibility with their peers. These are the ones who can really sell the process to other teachers.

Dr. A: A kind of ripple effect?

L.A.: Yes. When I go into a school, the first few weeks are spent in developing meaningful relationships. These relationships become a vehicle for mutual growth. Throughout this early period, until trust is developed, I do a lot of small projects with teachers. This process gives us time to discuss and clarify who we are, how we prefer to work, how we view the teaching-learning process, and other professional problems. It also gives me a chance to view the interaction between the school, teachers, and classroom instruction.

Dr. Andrews asked if principals were involved. I indicated that their involvement was essential.

> Before entering, principals and I discuss leadership styles, come to an understanding as to each other's role, their involvement, and the fact that if this model is to succeed, teachers must be meaningfully involved in decision-making. We also discuss their needs and how two or three respected teachers might be catalysts for improving relationships, the setting, and instruction.

Susan had discussed some needs with him. She felt that sixth grade math-science teachers needed help in getting beyond a textbook approach. She also had expressed hope that I could be there to help in the area of language arts, demonstrating strategies for helping students having difficulty in reading.

After hearing these remarks, I wanted to stress to Dr. Andrews how important it was for those in the setting to assume some responsibility:

> Bill, both areas sound exciting. However, quite frankly, teachers and principals must eventually assume responsibility for their own needs. I see myself as a resource helping them to see possibilities. I cannot mandate solutions. I have ideas, but the teachers and principals must involve themselves in addressing these problems. That's the only way that the school will grow and assume continuing responsibility for its development once I leave. If I enter as "the supervisor," they will depend on me to supply answers. There is no one answer and both teachers and principals have insights which need to be tapped.

A question arose as to the amount of time I needed. I related that I had spent about six weeks at Griffin, but I felt I needed 3-4 months. "It is critical that I have a

concentrated amount of time in a setting. That's the only way that I can help generate trust and grasp some insights about teachers, the setting, and instruction and help them effect needed changes."

After relating this, Dr. Andrews assumed a more serious tone when he stated:

> Let me be the devil's advocate. Suppose the Superintendent stops me and asks me to justify that period of time in the field. How do I sell him? How would I sell principals? What are the merits of this approach?

I replied with a number of points he could make:

> You know how declining resources are forcing us to shift more instructional responsibilities to principals. Principals, however, already have a multitude of responsibilities. This model provides a person who can assist principals to improve their personal, professional, and organizational skills while releasing the huge reservoir of expertise among teachers. Bill, each teacher can conceivably become a contributing supervisor.

I noted that he was jotting down notes and I continued:

> This approach also provides a means of challenging and motivating the career teacher. They can experience tremendous growth by assuming greater responsibility for effecting changes in themselves and the school. It is cost-effective since expensive external consultants are unnecessary. It is also a viable means of continuously updating the knowledge and expertise of both line and staff supervisors.

I then made a remark that really seemed to please him:

> Bill, I can eventually see an interchange of knowledge, skills, and expertise among several of our schools. . . . The entire system might profit.

Indicating that he would like to share it with principals, he asked me to write a brief paragraph explaining the consultant approach and its benefit. I then asked what I felt was a vital question: "How responsive is Susan to making changes?" I wanted both principals' involvement, but especially Susan's. Dr. Andrews replied that he definitely believed that Susan would be responsive. The meeting ended with the following exchange.

Dr. A: You know Susan was our former math-science supervisor. You really need to discuss this with her.

L.A.: Good idea! Bill, before we decide on _____, I'd like to gather more information on it and its leaders. There are some things that must be present if this is to succeed.

Dr. A: For example?

L.A.: I want to determine the interest and commitment of the principals and teachers, how they view change, items that need to be addressed, and have some sense of the obstacles present and the potential for success.

Dr. A: How can I help?

L.A.: Informally speak to the principals and give your endorsement. I would also like to talk with Susan and study the setting before making a firm decision.

Dr. A: Fine!

L.A.: I'll get back with you. I'd like you to later complete a questionnaire about how you see my role.

This dialogue illustrates a mutual process of inclusion, involvement, and support in response to professional problems having human and systemwide organizational implications. The Associate Superintendent had an opportunity to develop a clearer understanding of the proposed supervisory approach while also securing help in solving problems. I had a chance to share interests, underlying beliefs, and a framework that might address these and other problems. Personal, professional, and organizational goals became synchronized.

The Associate Superintendent's involvement was extremely valuable. His understanding, commitment, and involvement greatly enhanced my own self-esteem, giving me the desire and courage to continue the new endeavor. His support was invaluable in developing credibility for this role with principals. By the end of this session, I felt that he understood the approach and would give me the freedom and flexibility to initiate the process. In essence, our human needs were met as we identified a means of solving professional problems that were inhibiting pupil performance.

Having consciously decided to effect changes, I knew that the success of the consultant approach depended upon widespread involvement and commitment of others. Having served as the director of a federal project written without extensive involvement, I attempted to anticipate the possible morale problems and the lack of ownership inherent when innovations are externally imposed. I knew that the involvement of principals and other supervisors was essential. The following conversations and reflections, selected from my journal, indicate how mutual involvement and understanding developed between myself and the principal of the school where I proposed to work.

August 24, 1982 -- Telephone Conversation

L.A.: Susan, Dr. A indicated that you wanted some help, possibly in science and reading. Could we meet Friday for lunch and discuss this?

Susan: Fine! Where? Oh, no! I'm sorry, I've got an appointment at 12:30. Could you stop by here, say around 11:00?

L.A.: Sure! Susan, by the way, could I ask a favor? I'm thinking of possibly using your school as a site for my doctoral study. Any problems with me interviewing, taking notes, or making tapes?

Susan: Not with us, I'll let you judge that.

August 27, 1982 -- Susan's Office at the School Site

I introduced myself to the secretaries, who took me on a brief tour. During the introduction to the guidance counselors and media specialists, I felt strangely alone, as if I had moved into a new town or neighborhood with few acquaintances or friends. Although I had experienced this previously at Griffin, I had forgotten its powerful message. I was reminded anew of my interdependency with others.

After this brief tour, Susan met me and we went to her office. The following conversation followed:

L.A.: Gee whiz! What beautiful plants and furniture.

Susan: You like them?

Sam (Principal of Administration): That cost a pretty penny.

L.A.: Have a seat Sam. You got the time?

Sam: No, but I'll do it anyway. (Chuckle).

Susan: This is going to be a busy year with all the new middle school organization. I'm looking forward to it, but I know its going to be hectic.

I acknowledged that it was also to be a busy year for me. I stated again that I was planning to write my dissertation and was considering using this school in a field study. I explained that such a study would have merit for enhancing the school. When I remarked that Fred and John (Griffin's principals) had found the pilot study a positive experience for all concerned, Sam asked for more details. An extemporaneous explanation followed.

L.A.: I believe that you need to spend a concentrated period of time in a setting to be effective. I

also believe that if teachers and a setting are to grow, they must have daily support, encouragement, and professional assistance.

Susan: I agree, but that's sometimes hard for us to do. Just look at this desk! (Chuckle).

L.A.: Precisely! This approach provides help to you, teachers, and generally to the school.

Sensing both individuals' interest, I continued:

L.A.: Susan and Sam, I enter a setting as a colleague, someone who has insights to offer, but also someone who wants teachers and you to share your thoughts and insights. I don't have all the answers and I readily admit that.

Susan: This is the first time I've heard of principals and teachers getting this type of help. Go on.

L.A.: A sustained period of time encourages the development of mutual relationships. These relationships emerge through openness and a team approach to solving problems. Once trust develops, we openly discuss problems and explore options. Teachers need to be involved in this process -- and you do, too.

Susan: I don't have any problems with that. However, quite frankly, I feel the need for us to keep our heads together concerning progress as well as problems that might arise.

L.A.: By all means! I should also say that this approach might mean changes in the way you do things.

Susan: What do you mean?

L.A.: This role depends heavily upon teacher involvement in decisions, greater exchange of ideas and materials -- in essence, a group working together and assuming responsibility for effecting changes that could benefit all concerned. It could well mean changes in the school's procedures and policies as well as in instruction.

Susan indicated that "it sounds risky but beneficial. I'm open to it." She then asked Sam his opinion. Sam nodded in the affirmative and stated, "I'm going to need your guidance."

L.A.: By the way, the teachers that I usually begin with are leaders, widely respected by their peers. If they really become involved they could become a nucleus of a group that can spread changes to others. We may become a nuisance. If you see problems developing, let me know.

Susan offered me a cup of tea and a sausage ball and indicated that "this is the first time in the last few days that we've had time to sit down and talk. We've got a new faculty and need to do more of this."

I asked her to elaborate. "We need occasions to eat together...just do some fun things...this faculty is new... coming from widely different schools...we're going to need a sense of togetherness."

I then suggested possible directions:

"Have you ever considered having breakfasts or covered dish luncheons? By the way, you have Pat Marr as an aide this year. I know her from Griffin. She's quite talented. She initiated "Secret Santas" of "Elves" (I believe) last year at Griffin and also got teachers involved in preparing luncheons on workdays."

Susan: Larry, that's what I mean. Promise me one thing -- help us with things like that.

L.A.: Would love to. Let me ask this question. How open are you all to teachers' involvement in school decision-making?

Susan revealed that she had grown in shared decision-making:

I used to be quite authoritarian and still believe there are situations requiring L-1 decisions. However, I've also found that teachers must increasingly be involved, if they're going to support things -- change that is.... They've got to have commitment...I used to be really excited about a new idea and would urge teachers to try it. They did -- half-heartedly -- I guess to please me....They've got to have ownership and --

Sam: I agree, and by the way, Susan and I work as a team. I've got to run, but if I can help, just mention it.

L.A.: Susan, is there any area you want to focus on?

Susan: I'd like to again suggest science and reading. Requests came to me last year as well as the beginning of this year.

L.A.: Fine! Any ideas of a group to work with me?

Susan: Sally McDougle is good and I believe would be interested. She's got a lot of potential. Dee Marshall is another science teacher that might be interested. Larry, I'd like you to see if you can encourage us to get beyond textbooks in science -- to help us develop ways of involving students in discovering things. The same is true of reading. Tully, our reading facilitatow, will go a great job, perhaps you can team with her.

L.A.: This sounds great. Let's wait until the opening rush is over to make some definite commitments. Could you, however, touch base with Sally and perhaps Tully?

Susan: Sure.

This initial meeting at the site served a number of purposes. It enabled me to gain some insights into how the school operated and how the principals seemed to work together. Furthermore, my explanation to them about the proposed model and their reaction to it gave me a feeling for its acceptability at this site. The principals welcomed the opportunity to propose reading and science as possible foci. I was encouraged by their sensitivity to teacher needs.

In addition to consulting with principals, I also wanted to determine my fellow supervisors' reactions about the proposal as well as their knowledge of the site and its personnel.

August 30, 1982

I talked with Susan today on the telephone. She again suggested that I might want to begin with Sally McDougle and then move out from there. Sally is apparently receptive. I also talked with Betty, another supervisor, about the consultant approach. She said that she could really identify with being stretched in so many different directions that you begin to question your own effectiveness. She had previously taught in a school with Sally. Betty indicated that Sally has been teaching for about six years, was reserved, but apparently enthusiastic when it came to teaching. She is also quite respected by her peers. Betty offered her science resources if we needed them.

After talking with Betty, I felt excitement and ambivalence, as well as the desire to acquire more information. I reviewed a Southern Association Report and, finding little help, I asked to meet again with Dr. Andrews.

A conference on September 2nd provided me with additional information on the school and its leaders, the names of potential core group members, and further evidence of Dr. Andrews' personal support. I indicated that "Susan, Sam, and I have met and discussed my being at their school this fall....I feel satisfied that they pretty much understand my approach."

Dr. Andrews replied, "Let me tell you a little bit about both of them. As you know, Susan was previously our math-science supervisor. She is quite intelligent, does a good job, and was extensively involved in the middle school reorganization study last year. She's been at this site for, I believe, about six years."

I then asked about Sam and Dr. Andrews stated: "This is the first year for Sam as Principal of Administration.

He came from Northfield Elementary School where he has been principal for about five years. Previous to that he was assistant principal or dean at one of the junior highs. He's not as outgoing as Susan, but he's solid."

Dr. Andrews continued, "Now your site has almost a completely new faculty plus a new organizational plan. Most of the faculty members have been involved in some aspect of the middle school in-service. There are some real leaders there, but many are new."

I indicated that Susan had mentioned Sally McDougle as a possibility for the core group. He felt that she would be a good choice but advised me to "branch out and see if Jeff Jones or some other teachers might be interested."

The meeting ended with this conversation:

Dr. A: Are you aware that I've talked to Susan and Sam about you and this approach?

L.A.: No.

Dr. A: I told them that I had every confidence in you and together I thought you all could do some great things.

L.A.: That makes me feel better! I was getting a little shaky.

Dr. A: When do you plan to begin?

L.A.: Around September 13th.

Dr. A: I've got a meeting. Sorry, but I've got to go. Did I help?

L.A.: Yes, I guess I needed more info on the site and also some self-assurance.

This meeting renewed me. I had greater self-confidence and was ready to begin entry into the field site.

This stage shows how I developed the rationale, and secured the initial understandings and commitments for implementing a comprehensive model of supervision. Closer scrutiny of the data reveals the underlying components of the model. Although the term "consultant" was rarely used, the role was to be one of indirect service to the school as well as to teachers. The following excerpts show the nature of this role. It becomes clear that I did not intend to impose my program, but rather to join with others in devising ways to improve teaching, the operation of the school, and relationships.

> Teachers and principals must eventually assume responsibility for their own needs. I see myself as a resource helping them to see possibilities. I cannot mandate solutions. I have ideas but the teachers and principals must involve themselves in addressing these problems. That's the only way that the school will grow and assume continuing responsibility for its development once I leave. If I enter as "the supervisor," they will depend upon me....I also believe that if teachers and a setting are to grow, they must have daily support, encouragement, and professional assistance....This approach provides help to you, teachers, and generally to the school....I enter as a colleague, someone who has insights to offer, but also someone who wants teachers and you to share your thoughts...relationships emerge through openness and a team approach to solving problems....Teachers need to be involved.

My journal also reveals that I was concerned about a process for effecting change that combined organizational, human, and professional elements. This process demonstrates that change is complex, requiring considerable time and a

holistic focus:

> I need 3-4 months. . . . That's the only way that I can help generate mutual trust and grasp some understanding concerning how relationships, the school, and instruction interact to influence life in that setting. It takes time for people to identify needed changes and assume responsibility for them.

Another important consideration within this process was the gaining of widespread understanding and commitment. This is apparent in dialogue with the Assistant Superintendent, principals and supervisors, as well as in references to teacher support and involvement. I placed a premium on obtaining "top-down," "bottom-up" and what might be called "lateral" support. This is further illustrated when I asked for the Assistant Supervisor's endorsement and sought suggestions, encouragement, and advice from fellow supervisors.

An emphasis on human relationships as a catalyst for change is also revealed:

> When I go into a school, the first few weeks are spent in developing meaningful relationships....These relationships become a vehicle for mutual growth....Over a sustained period of time, relationships develop. These relationships develop through openness and a team approach to solving problems.

Recognizing that a school's history and culture are potent forces promoting or hindering change, I indicated that:

> I'd like to gather more information on it (the school) and its leaders....I want to determine the interest and commitment of the principals and teachers, how they view change, items that need to be addressed, and have some sense of the obstacles present as well as the potential for success.

A core group is seen as a means of helping confront and deal with the school's history and culture as well as a means of developing internal leadership and responsibility for change. Several references point to such a group and to their need for daily assistance and support:

> I also learned from the Griffin experience that you first work with teachers who are interested in working with you and have credibility with their peers. These are the ones who can really sell the process to other teachers.
>
> I usually begin with . . . . leaders, widely respected by their peers. If they really become involved, they become a nucleus of a group that can spread changes to others. I believe that if teachers are to grow, they must have daily support, encouragement and professional assistance.

I was very careful not to limit the focus of change to any one domain. A unified or holistic focus is evidenced by the following:

> This process gives us time to discuss and clarify who we are, how we prefer to work, and how we view the teaching-learning process....It also gives me a chance to view the interaction between the school, teachers, and classroom instruction.
>
> Before entering, the principal and I discuss leadership styles, and come to an understanding as to each other's roles, the need for their continued involvement, and the fact that if this model is to succeed, teachers must be meaningfully involved in decision-making...two or three teachers might be catalysts for improving <u>relations</u>, <u>the setting</u>, and <u>instruction</u>.
>
> How responsive is Susan to making changes?
>
> This approach might mean changes in the way you do things....It could mean changes in school procedures, instructional techniques, as well as in how people interact.
>
> You know we need to do more of this -- with the faculty...social things -- like eating together.

> The sixth grade...teachers need help in getting beyond a textbook approach....You could help in the area of language arts, demonstrating some strategies for students having difficulty in reading.
>
> The first few weeks are spent in developing meaningful relationships.

This preliminary stage enabled me to become more aware of my own values and assume leadership for initiating change in supervisory practice. This change (resulting in a closer alignment among underlying values, preferred mode of operation, and current position) would enable me to initiate a potentially self-sustaining process in which educators in a middle school could together assume more responsibility for solving professional, human, and organizational problems.

The Beginning (September 13 - October 18, 1982)

Initial entry into the site was perhaps the most taxing experience of the entire field study. This transitional period, marked by ambivalence, suspicions, and a type of "culture shock" reminded me again that I was indeed a stranger. The first few days were especially difficult since I was viewed as a marginal person or oddity. I felt that most teachers perceived me more as a central office "snoopervisor" than as a bona fide colleague. I overheard one teacher ask, "Who is he checking up on?"

Denied the accouterments of central office, I had to rely on my own personal and professional influence plus the testimony of others to gain acceptance and support. Susan, the principal of instruction, and two teachers helped me

gain the acceptance and trust of other faculty members. I soon noted less distance between some individuals and myself and more casual conversation with others. Tully, a reading facilitator, told me that "the word had gotten around." I later learned that teachers in the pilot study had spoken favorably of that experience to friends here. Informal networks are powerful!

Acceptance and trust brought me insights that would not likely have been disclosed to traditional supervisors. I learned about personal and professional strengths and limitations, influence of informal leaders, school norms, and the general responsiveness of the school and its leaders. These data were invaluable in gaining acceptance and support for change. It led to the identification of individuals who would accept the challenge of change and who would help select the targets of its focus. Having earned trust and support, I felt intense responsibility for maintaining it.

Although the goal of this "Beginning Period" was acceptance, a number of other activities became possible as trusting relationships developed. I was able to identify members of an initial core group, to arrive at tentative agreements and ground rules for daily operation and to collect data about needed changes. Selections from my journal illuminate my entry feelings, how I gained acceptance and established working relationships as well as how I identified perspective core members. Data collection

occurred throughout this period.

Entry began with a formal conference with both principals. This meeting confirmed previous agreements and understandings and provided a forum for suggesting members for the core group. During the last part of the meeting, Susan asked, "What do you need in terms of equipment and materials?"

I replied that I only needed a few things. "Give me an old table, a filing cabinet, and perhaps a small corner somewhere....Later on I plan to move into some classroom."

Susan then said, "Let me show you a spot. Sam, we'll be back in a few minutes."

Susan directed me to the former location of the media center and gave me a small room next to the reading facilitator. I recognized that it was an isolated area and knew that I would use it only as a home base.

Since few events occurred at the beginning of this period, Tully and I got to know each other quite well. We shared highlights of our personal and professional biographies as well as our personal concerns. A bond of friendship developed that enabled us to become mutual sources of support. She asked, for example, for advice in tackling her new role as a reading facilitator, and after sharing my thoughts, I suggested that she consult Susan and a group of teachers about how best to provide services to the school.

Throughout this early period I made a point of chatting with teachers, attempting to convey why I was there and what I would like to do. I described myself as a resource to them and the school. One seventh grade teacher, Joan Davis, suggested that I speak to the newly formed program council. I, in turn, asked her to suggest this to the council. On September 20th, Susan and Sam invited me to attend a meeting of this group. An excerpt from my journal recounts what transpired:

September 20, 1982

I was formally introduced to the school's Program Improvement Council this morning. This is a representative group of teachers who, along with principals, meet periodically to discuss policies, procedures, and concerns. Discussion centered basically around such routine matters as obtaining textbooks and furniture, obtaining more information on the minimum competencies, and dates for team meetings. I was impressed by Susan and Sam's responsiveness to teacher concerns.

Susan introduced me to the group, indicating that I was to be a "helper" and that I would be here for 3-4 months to provide support and technical assistance to those wanting to make improvements. I explained that I saw myself as one resource among a group of resources:

> I don't have all the answers and I'm not here as a missionary to convert you. Furthermore, I don't feel that there's any one way to teach. I'm here to work with a group of individuals or maybe one person interested in trying an alternative, a new approach, or refining what is currently going on in classrooms and the school generally. If you want to make some changes, I will work with you to plan and implement those changes. I believe both of us will profit.... I'm not here as a "snoopervisor."

The room was silent for what seemed to be an eternity. Finally, Sally McDougle, a sixth grade science teacher, mentioned that she had heard several individuals express the need for help in science. Another teacher nodded. Sally

smiled and jokingly said, "Come on up to the team room at 9:40."

This council meeting afforded me an opportunity to meet the formal leaders, to explain my role, and to invite them to take part in trying out some new approaches. In retrospect, my expectations for this group were totally unrealistic. I had hoped, for example, that they would readily welcome me and would identify areas for us to pursue jointly.

A combination of factors prevented this. It was too early in the school year and in their experience as a functioning group. They seemed to be preoccupied with "opening of school" tasks. They were, moreover, new to their group role, the school, and to each other. A group leader or spokeman had not yet surfaced.

After the meeting, I remarked to Susan that the meeting seemed to be quite "stiff." She indicated that she agreed but felt that given more time, it would become a functioning group:

"As I mentioned before, the organization and the faculty is new. . . . Proceed with Sally, I think she's got a lot of influence."

I stated that I would like to meet again with the group and suggested to Susan that "some leadership training and get acquainted activities might be appropriate. . . . I've seen Sally Crawford do some 'We Agree' Workshops. . . . Perhaps the group needs to come to some agreement on who they

are individually and collectively and what they want to do."

Susan replied, "Larry, I was thinking the same thing! Let's get our heads together and see if we can get Dr. Andrews to help us get her. In the meantime, go with Sally."

I later joined Sally in the team room and said, "Say you need help in science?"

She replied, "I didn't want to say too much in the meeting, but we sure do."

I asked her why she didn't feel comfortable discussing it in the meeting and she remarked, "Well, I just don't know how those folks would take it. . . . I'm new. . . . I don't know Susan that well either, and she's the one who will be evaluating me." I didn't pursue the topic, but knew that these remarks confirmed Susan's and my own observations about the group, the school, and the principal's limitations.

Sally and I agreed to meet the following Thursday in the media center and to bring a "goodie." As I was departing, Liz Moffitt came into the room. Sally introduced us and Liz remarked, "We're glad to have you. I've heard from another middle school that you have a lot to offer us."

The period after these first meetings was personally excruciating. I didn't want to enter Sally's classroom until she felt more comfortable. Since Susan had given me the small cubicle in the media center as a temporary home,

I remained there for several days, continuing to help Tully compile some reading activities. On one occasion, I met with Pat Marr and found that she had already initiated the "Secret Elves."

It was a lonely time. Emptiness was a constant companion. Even when I attended meetings, I felt alone. I was quite bored. My journal highlights these feelings as well as the first act of acceptance I experienced:

September 22, 1982

Tully and I had a gripe session this morning.

L.A.: Tully, this is the absolute pits. I'm bored, lonely, and feel that I need to be doing something.

Tully: I know what you mean. I've been here for about a month and I'm still learning my way. Kiddo, do teachers look strangely at you? I've felt excluded . . . especially from the gossip. (Chuckles).

L.A.: Yes! Yes!

September 23, 1982

I brought some donuts for the faculty today. I wrote a note for them to take a break and enjoy them. Later in the day, I found a "Happy Box" containing a coffee mug, coffee, and cream with this note attached -- "Welcome to our school. We're delighted to have you -- A Secret Elf." This kindness sure helped. It is unnerving to be a stranger in a new setting. You feel the lack of trust and increasing curiosity about why you're there. For example, I went into the lounge and conversation abruptly stopped.

My first formal meeting with Sally occurred today. We had agreed to meet in the media center at 9:30 and to bring some goodies. While we were eating, I remarked that "as I work with teachers, I like to begin by a mutual process of examining our styles, personalities, and how we work best. . . . I gives us a beginning point in developing

mutual understanding. . . . I feel I do my best in a relaxed give-and-take atmosphere with face-to-face interactions. I also feel that supervision must be a process of awakening each other to new possibilities, and exploring them together. It cannot be a boss-employee relationship."

I noted that Sally was smiling and continued: "I've also found that there is no single best answer. A teacher must have a broad knowledge and methods base and with a keen understanding of students, orchestrate these methods to accommodate diverse needs and styles, including her own."

Sally stated, "I agree, but that is a tough process."

Having experienced classroom difficulties, I knew where she was coming from: "Sally, I know, I've been there. I know there are days when everything falls apart. Believe me, I've experienced it firsthand. By the way, I'm not here as an expert. I believe that both of us have insights and skills that can enhance each other's growth. Together, we can begin a process that I believe you will want to continue. I want you to have the freedom to do some things you always wanted to try. . . . We may both fall on our faces. That's o.k. . . . I believe failures are just benchmarks for eventual success. Also, if at any time you feel uncomfortable, yell, scream, and holler! How does that sound?"

S.M.: Larry, may I call you that, --

L.A.: Sure.

S.M.: I appreciate your sharing of these things. When Susan mentioned the possibility of our working together, I was, to be honest, frightened and a little unsure. This helps. I, too, am the type of person who is honest -- perhaps too honest. I'll tell you if something is not right. I feel my strongest point is that I like kids -- no matter what level. I derive a sense of satisfaction from teaching. One thing I do want to get away from, and I know Susan has mentioned it, is the science text. It's horrible. If I can get kids into activities that interest them and provide some critical thinking, I'll be pleased.

I felt that I could help Sally and indicated that to her. I also asked, "How do you feel about sharing your ideas and materials with other teachers?"

S.M.: I would welcome it. Some of my best ideas are from other teachers. We, as a faculty, need to share more of our ideas and resources.

L.A.: Sally, could I ask you to do something? Between now and next Thursday, would you, Dee (the other sixth grade teacher), and your students brainstorm some topics, strategies, or possibilities for us to explore -- perhaps two or three, and we'll sit down together and discuss them.

S.M.: Fine, could I ask you to do something? I'm going to need some materials on snakes. Could you see if you have some.

L.A.: Rick Estes with the Environmental Center is a rich source of knowledge on snakes. Perhaps he has some materials. Maybe we need to think about plant and animal interdependency or an ecological unit?

S.M.: Could we visit the Environmental Center?

L.A.: Let's talk about it. You've got some good ideas.

S.M.: Cool it Larry, you'll make me too confident.

L.A.: Sally, let me mention one other thing. I mentioned in the PIC meeting that I would like to initiate a small group who would assume leadership in responding to some perceived problems. Would you consider being a member of that group . . . at least think about it?

S.M.: What will it be doing?

L.A.: It will examine what we as a group feel are needs. It could be a professional problem, something that would help the operation of the school, or simply something like you mentioned -- something you always wanted to try. It could also be something that would simultaneously enhance relationships, improve the operation of the school, and upgrade instruction. Do you know of another person who might like to become involved?

S.M.: Jim, in the 8th grade. Let me do some talking first. You know this is the first year of the middle school organization. Every academic teacher is teaching reading. I've heard that

> some are really struggling. Perhaps we need to examine that, too!

L.A.: Think about it.

This conference served to develop understandings and agreements essential to viable professional relationships. As a result, we had a clearer understanding of each other's style of operation, personal values as well as some tentative ideas about needed changes. It also served as a forum to openly discuss the purposes, operation, and membership of the core group. An atmosphere of mutual support and encouragement seemed definitely possible.

An analysis of these episodes reveals elements of the proposed comprehensive model. First, an emphasis upon an extended collegial relationship that is mutually beneficial underlies most of the conversation. The consultant approach surfaces most clearly in these remarks:

> I'm not here as an expert. I believe that both of us have insights and skills that can enhance each other's growth. . . . I want you to have the freedom to do some things.

A second component of the model, a process for change, also undergirds the dialogue. Characteristics of that process include an emphasis upon relationships, personal commitment, a core group to effect changes, and provisions for providing specialized assistance and support to members of that group.

Preliminary conversations give promise that the core group's focus will not be limited to one element. The

following remarks speak to the third component, a comprehensive theoretical focus: "It could be a professional problem, something that would help the operation of the school."

Evidence of all three domains was emerging. Sally and I were beginning to apparently satisfy our human needs (affiliation, self-esteem, and risk-taking) as we engaged in a process for effecting changes. We hoped that these changes would benefit us, the students, and the school. Understandings reached in early meetings provided a framework for Sally and me to continue to develop a meaningful professional relationship. That she had come to trust me was evident when she invited me "to move into the classroom."

This "classroom residency" was a mutually beneficial experience. It afforded me an opportunity to model the involvement of students in instructional planning while also demonstrating some alternative methods. As Sally observed the successes and the failures of these lessons she became increasingly interested and we began to plan each day's lessons together.

After teaching a lesson, I always compared my observations to Sally's. We focused on both strengths and limitations of strategies as well as my performance. I followed some of Sally's suggestions and I watched her self-confidence grow. Later she volunteered to take the lead in

teaching. In the meantime, a joint critiquing process had evolved which gave me the opportunity to observe and weigh her effectiveness while offering encouragement and professional suggestions.

Entries from my journal show how our professional relationship developed as well as the nature and scope of problems we addressed.

September 27, 1982

I saw Sally outside the media center this morning. I asked her if she had thought any more about our science focus. She said that she "had been covered up." I then replied, "I've got an idea! I'd like to come into the classroom for about fifteen minutes tomorrow. I believe that if we involve the students, they will give us some leads. I also need to get the feel of the classroom and the students.

Sally agreed and said, "You know, I think this is going to be fun."

I was elated.

(About noon)

Sally came into my area of the media center and stated, "I've got a problem. I've thought about the kids going on a field trip to the Environmental Center. I want them to plan some of it, for example, their lunch -- what to take, why, and how much. I want the cafeteria to help us. Do you think that's reasonable? I've heard some tales about the lack of cooperation."

I responded: "By all means. Go to Susan and tell her that you need the cooperation of the cafeteria and why you need it. Get her involved and both of you explain it to the manager."

September 28, 1982

Sally met me in the parking lot and the following conversation ensued:

S.M.: Hey Larry! Guess what?

L.A.: You're fired!

S.M.: No! We got the cafeteria's help. The kids will be planning the menu and the cafeteria manager agreed to help. Susan helped a lot. She also suggested that I should share this idea with other teachers!

L.A.: Great!

S.M.: Thanks for your encouragement. This has really boosted my morale. Are you still planning to come in -- say 11:00?

L.A.: Sure.

Sally introduced me to the class as "another teacher." I used a Sherlock Holmes activity "to break the ice" and for the students to discover how they were alike and how they differed. After giving them instructions to interview each other, Sally and I observed -- noting student's interests and how they generally operated. I asked the students to complete a science interest inventory. After the lesson I asked Sally to meet me after school.

The meeting after school focused on reviewing the lesson, identifying the interests of the students, and determining the directions for future instructional activities.

L.A.: Sally, I felt good about the class today. I prefer a very open style of teaching. However, I recognize that some situations require structure.

S.M.: I agree with that!

L.A.: If at any time you feel I need to tighten up, let me know. Don't feel that my style has to be your style. Today I gathered some good beginning data. I noted that John, David, and Molly were the most verbal. They definitely emerged as leaders. Did you notice that Barbara and Tim didn't really participate?

S.M.: Yes. You know I feel that I haven't reached them yet. I'm going to pull them together tomorrow and have a conference with them. I'd like to know what's going on in their heads.

L.A.: Let's examine the interest inventories. . . . Barbara would like to find out some strange facts about animals -- um -- Tim says he wants to go to the Nature Center. Take these papers see if you can find out any more about their interests.

S.M.: Good idea.

(Later)

L.A.: Just glancing at the student's interest, I would say there is an interest in snakes, dogs, birds, and plants. You mentioned a field trip yesterday. Do you see that as a place to begin?

S.M.: Yes.

Sally then made a remarkable gesture: "I have an extra desk, why don't you just move in and use the cabinets to store your materials."

I asked, "Would you feel comfortable about that?"

Sally answered, "You'll probably see me goof up. . . . I sometimes do it a lot."

I replied, "I do, too, and you'll see me -- I'm sure. I'll give these areas some thought tonight."

After talking with Sally, I checked my mailbox and stopped to see Susan.

L.A.: Susan, I want to thank you for helping Sally with the cafeteria manager.

Susan: Glad to help! How are things going?

L.A.: Beautifully. Sally and I have tentatively agreed on some target projects and I started teaching today. She's asked me to move into the classroom.

Susan: You know I couldn't do that very well without teachers feeling threatened.

L.A.: Susan, later on, I would like to meet with other sixth grade science teachers. I'd like Sally to share some of her ideas and experiences and see if they'll do likewise.

Susan: Fine.

October 1, 1982

Faculty relations still seem very formal. Maybe I need to give people and myself more time. Classes also seem very formal. The predominant pattern is large group instruction. After observing Sally in several formal and informal situations, she seems to be widely respected by her peers. Tully said that other teachers "look up to her." Sally is receptive to new ideas and the suggestions of others. I believe she would be an excellent core group member.

October 4, 1982

I worked with Sally's class again today. Sally and I had previously agreed to focus on ways of getting students involved in an environmental unit. As one activity, I divided the students into two groups -- one to plan a trip to Disney World; the other to plan a Halloween Party for fifteen. The students were asked to think individually of decisions that would have to be made and then collectively agree on the three most important ones. This information was shared and the students were then asked to brainstorm decisions that needed to be made if we undertook an environmental unit. One student, John, mentioned that the class needed to decide on the field trip. We then talked about the necessary steps for planning a field trip and the responsibilities of such a project. We reach agreement on what we wanted to do and who was going to do what.

After this teaching episode, Sally commented that she had never seen this process before. She said, "and you had their attention!" I asked her to try to see why I had their attention. We both concluded that it was because students were interested and involved. Sally indicated that she wanted to try a similar strategy with another class and asked me to observe and give her suggestions.

October 6, 1982 (In the back of Sally's classroom -- at the beginning of her planning period)

L.A.: Sally, take a look at these and give me suggestions. They are outgrowths of students' ideas as well as our own.

S.M.: Gee, I love the creative writing idea. I have a poem that would be a perfect introduction for the writing session. It's "The Toad and the Kangaroo" in A Light in the Attic.

L.A.: What about the classification activity in which we'll be using buttons. You know I bet Tully has some ideas and materials that we could use.

S.M.: What about Mrs. Thompson, our media coordinator? I'll ask her to pull filmstrips and books. I'll also stop by and see what Tully has.

L.A.: I'll look through them and compile some ideas.

S.M.: Let me do my homework, too. I'll also ask the students for ideas and materials. Let's keep going.

L.A.: Thanks Sally. I feel that I am really helping and I'm learning, too. You saw how my lesson flopped yesterday.

S.M.: Yes, I know you were embarrassed -- but it's good to see that we're all human.

L.A.: Absolutely!

During this interval of time, Sally and Tully became leading spokespersons for me. My credibility and involvement mushroomed. I, in turn, encouraged teachers and principals to become more involved in professional and organizational concerns. My suggestions seemed to carry more weight. Several incidents show how increasing trust and improved professional credibility led to increasing involvement as well as an abundance of data.

On October 4th, for example, I walked into the lounge to get a Coke and found Sally, Jim Palmer (an eighth grade language arts-math teacher), Jill (an eighth grade language arts-social studies teacher), and Tully (the reading facilitator). Sally asked me to examine some activities that she had just completed.

I remarked, "These are terrific. You interrelated science, math, and language arts. You mind if I take them home and examine them more closely?"

Sally told me to "go ahead" and I was about to turn away when Jim called me: "Larry, I don't know if you know me, but I'm Jim Palmer. Sally and Tully have told me how you've helped them over some hurdles. I really need some help in reading. My last period class is driving me crazy."

I asked Jim and Tully to get with me later in the week. Sally stated, "I'd like to come, too. Maybe I can pick up some reading ideas."

I then said, "Give me a few days. I'll see what we can do."

As we left, Tully and Jill called me outside the door and started whispering. Tully said, "You know Jim really does need help. For him to admit it takes guts. He's a good reading teacher."

Jill noted that "He's also a building leader. If you can help him, you'll have other doors opened."

Tully supported Jill's viewpoint and Jim's skill by stating, "You said it kiddo. He's got more skill than I. The faculty really admires him."

Jill continued, "By the way, when either of you get a moment, I'd like someone to sit down and listen to what I'm planning on biographies."

I told Tully to "go to it and let me know if I could help."

Jill then stated, "You know our school really does need some activity books to stimulate our thinking." I then said, "Let's see Susan. She's got the money."

We went to Susan and she told Jill and Tully to find out what teachers needed and let her know. After the meeting Jill remarked, "You know, sometimes it just pays to ask. . . . I believe she will get them."

Tully then stated, "Spread the word! You know I was afraid of her. I'd heard that she was tough."

I replied that "I believe Susan and Sam are interested in having a school that responds to kids. If you approach them with ideas that will help you help them, I don't see how either can turn you down."

We were about to leave when Jill asked Tully to see if other teachers would be interested in sharing their ideas for alternative ways to do biographical book reports. I suggested that perhaps they could begin a newsletter of ideas to spice up book reports. Tully agreed to try a newsletter or flyer.

Several other entries show how my advice gained increasing credibility and how greater patricipation subsequently followed.

October 7, 1982

Susan and Sam asked me for my impression about the school. I related that based upon limited participation and observations, the school seemed awfully formal. "There needs to be more opportunities for teachers and pupils, teachers and teachers, and teachers and principals to get

together." I indicated that I had heard and seen some neat ideas that should be shared. I also reported that Pat Marr had started the Secret Elves. They said that it was their opinion that the "elves" were doing fine. Susan and Sam revealed that they had identified a group of teachers to work on a covered dish luncheon on one of the teacher work days. I commended them for that and suggested that they might want to periodically host a breakfast for teachers. Both seized the idea, indicating that they would do it in November. Sam suggested that it be a means of commending the faculty for the first nine weeks and open the meeting for suggestions concerning goals or ways to improve the next nine weeks.

I mentioned that I was going to mention to Tully and Sally the need for students and teachers to do some things together AA (Home-base guidance).

October 11, 1982

I went by the sixth grade planning room today. Sally was there getting some coffee and invited me to have cake and coffee. After Sally introduced me to the other teachers, I started eating while also listening to what was being said. The group was discussing another teacher who apparently had some good self-concept activities. They wanted to ask for them, but were reluctant. I asked, "Is there any formal sharing of ideas and activities?"

Sally said, "There is a big need for that."

Liz and Janet, two other teachers, agreed.

John felt that we were acting like elementary teachers and walked out.

Janet told me, "Ignore him today -- he's in one of his moods."

After more discussion, I agreed to pursue the idea of sharing with seventh and eighth grade teachers. These teachers said that regardless of what others wanted to do, they were going to put a box in the team room and periodically contribute activities. Susan walked in and I related what was occurring. She said that she had a box and would get the secretaries to duplicate and distribute materials if we needed this service.

October 14, 1982

Jim, Sally, and Tully asked Susan and I to join them. They all expressed a concern for making instruction more meaningful for the "slower" student -- especially in reading and science. I praised them for taking the initiative to express this concern. Susan and I asked them to do more thinking, identify some strategies and we would meet within the next week.

October 18, 1982

I was invited to share my observations with the instructional council. I stated, "I've been in your building for over a month and I have observed some outstanding instructional activities. There is tremendous potential here if we will just share some of our successes and failures with others." The group seemed more responsive. I related that Tully and Jill were getting together a newsletter of book report ideas. Sally indicated that the sixth grade teachers were going to start a "Sharing Box." Jim expressed an interest in both the newsletter and the box. One teacher indicated that she had "101 Ideas for Book Reports."

Susan and Sam noted that they would like to periodically have a covered dish luncheon as well as a breakfast and "we need help to pull them off." Two teachers volunteered.

Sally noted that we were having some good results in science. I then asked, "Is there a need for us as a school to focus upon increasing our effectiveness in reaching all levels of students?"

Jim said, "Exactly!"

I then related that I felt there was a need to share some alternatives to traditional lectures. There was consensus and I related that Jim, Sally, Tully, Susan and I were going to meet to plan and implement such strategies in science and reading. I told them that anyone was welcome to join us. Doris, a seventh grade teacher, said, "I'd like to observe some lessons once you all get things going." I agreed to keep her posted.

The process initiated in the first stage continued and intensified during this stage. An analysis of the data reveals an intensive effort to develop understanding and

commitment at all levels of the school. I, for example, met with the principals, with the instructional council, and with individual teachers to explain my role and encourage their involvement.

Even at this beginning stage, there is evidence that I wanted to avoid their dependency upon me. I perceived that other individuals must be involved and attempted to communicate this to others. Several statements affirm this: "I'm here to work with a group of individuals or maybe one person interested in trying an alternative. . . . I'm not here to convert you. . . . If you want to make some changes, I will work with you to plan and implement those changes. I would like to form a small group who would assume continued leadership in responding to perceived problems."

This period was also marked by intense efforts to develop and maintain viable interpersonal relationships. The data supports the viewpoint that the relationships did not automatically occur, but rather evolved gradually as individuals interacted and developed understanding of each other's professional roles and expertise, established tentative ground rules, delineated preferences for certain styles of functioning and began to work on problems of mutual concern.

I believe that the consultant approach encouraged the development of these relationships. Individuals perceived that I wasn't there to evaluate or monitor their efforts. Therefore, they opened themselves to me as I did to them.

These relationships not only helped individuals personally and professionally but strengthened the organization as well. Participants, for example, were developing personal relationships characterized by mutual acceptance, support, and trust. Individuals were becoming less threatened by each other and were thus beginning to disclose and discuss problems impeding their progress. Would it be likely that Sally, Jim, or the principals would have disclosed their feelings and problems to a supervisor who only visited occasionally? Through continuing personal support and professional advice, Sally, for example, not only acknowledged her own needs and those of the school, but developed the courage to improve her professional effectiveness.

Daily participation enabled educators to become more receptive to my ideas as well as to the ideas of others, including students. I was able to share my own expertise and skills through a process enhancing my own as well as other's professional development. Sally, for example, became more aware of her own capacity to solve problems when she used her own talents and skills. I, too, gained.

These relationships also provided me with a deeper understanding of the school's formal and informal leadership structure and how people viewed each other and the concept of change. That knowledge was invaluable in guiding my interactions, responses, and decisions. It helped me

differentiate between significant and lesser ideas. I began to see those whose ideas and suggestions "carried weight" and those who were receptive to change. I was, therefore, able to see who could make powerful contributions as members of a core group.

Data collection occurred naturally and continuously through observation and participation in classroom and school events. The information gained was then shared with individuals as a means of enhancing decision-making.

Classroom teaching episodes as well as general observations about faculty relations, administrative support, and formal and informal leaders provided insights about needed changes and individuals who might accept responsibility for them. I saw, for example, how both professional growth and organizational processes were being diminished by formal relations. I became absolutely convinced personal and professional development were remarkably intertwined and that the administrators' participation and support were the catalyst that made them happen. The "school residency" afforded clues regarding the extend of this support as well as the general participation of the faculty.

Through observations and participation in meetings, I was also able to develop a "feel" for the principals' style of operating, how they viewed and were viewed by their faculty, and the general responsiveness of the school to professional and human concerns. In retrospect, I focused

upon all three domains as is especially evident in these two examples.

The episodes in which the environmental activities for the classroom were developed reveals how the three domains are interrelated. With acceptance and support, Sally articulated a professional need to transcend a textbook approach. The field trip was a means of doing that. One phase of that experience was having students plan the menu. With support, Sally was able to change an organizational procedure and in the process enhanced teacher-pupil relations, her own as well as her students' self-esteem, and classroom instruction. Students became interested and involved in learning and the resulting improved achievement reflected positively upon the school. Through the development and implementation of this project, Sally and I had an opportunity to satisfy our human needs as we effected changes in instruction and in the organization. Sally increased her professional skills as she improved the setting for students.

The interplay among the domains is also seen in the emerging plans for the faculty breakfast. Meeting informally in a relaxed atmosphere fosters good morale, that in turn makes teaching a more satisfying experience and the school a more desirable place. Human needs are satisfied when individuals come together to share knowledge, feelings, concerns and attempt to resolve problems. Instruction and the organization benefit.

This beginning period provided an opportunity to develop important relationships which provided benefits to both the individuals involved and the organization. Through them, I gained an understanding of personal, professional, and organizational needs, the culture of the school, and those individuals who were challenged by change. They would become my core group.

The Climax (October 19 - December 1, 1982)

This stage emerged naturally: broader in scope than originally imagined, it became a period of increasing collective leadership. A core group assumed greater responsibility for school and classroom direction as they grew in their capacity to identify and analyze problems, to suggest strategies for addressing these problems, and to implement and evaluate them.

Efforts initiated by the core group mushroomed. The faculty became more cohesive as the school became more responsive to human and professional concerns. Principals, for example, attended more meetings, suggested ideas and resources, and assumed responsibility for obtaining them. A number of teachers, perceiving this responsiveness, became more concerned about curriculum development, the improvement of instruction, and efforts to generally improve the operation of the school. They made suggestions, expressed their needs, and increasingly assumed responsibility for reaching goals that had been mutually derived. A wider circle of collective involvement appeared.

Throughout this stage, a group of individuals who previously had little opportunity to know one another coalesced into a dynamic working group. Susan, a principal, Sally, a sixth grade science teacher, Jim, an eighth grade language arts teacher, Tully, a reading facilitator, and I combined our efforts to improve the quality of the school's impact. In the process we experienced significant personal and professional growth. Each of us brought a unique background of experience, insight, and skill to this group.

Tully Reed contributed a sense of contagious enthusiasm as well as professional knowledge. As a middle-aged teacher with twelve years of elementary experience, Tully brought to the new position of reading facilitator a unique background of diverse methods and experience which she willingly shared with others. Her responsibility was to help middle school teachers improve their reading knowledge and skills.

An interview with her offered me several personal and professional insights. She told me, for example, that she had obtained an undergraduate degree from High Point College and a Master's Degree in reading from UNC-G. In reply to a question about her professional goals, she said, "I would like to help spark teachers' and students' interest in reading so that they can experience the joy and pleasure that I've found."

Her conception of supervision was also revealing: "Supervision should be a means of providing a helping hand

to teachers, and supervisors shouldn't be stuck off in a distant place. Supervision has to be closely related to teacher and school needs and it can't be imposed. It has to evolve."

Throughout the entire study, Tully modeled this philosophy by serving as a personal and professional support to all individuals.

The core group included Susan Jones, the co-principal, who had previously taught math and physics in several school systems, including Burlington, North Carolina, and Guilford County. Before becoming co-principal of the site school, she had been a math-science coordinator in Guilford County Schools and later in High Point Schools. Susan had been principal of instruction at the field site for approximately five years.

In an informal interview, Susan acknowledged that she had been deeply influenced by a former high school chemistry teacher who had asked her to become a lab assistant. Susan noted that this was an invaluable experience. "I gained insights into how to work with people." Susan indicated that the lab experience had prompted her to enroll in Wake Forest University and enter the teacher education program.

A former principal in Guilford County had exerted a strong influence on Susan's becoming a math and science supervisor and eventually, a principal. "He released me from teaching for part of the day. In the mornings, I

taught and in the afternoons I helped teachers enrich the math-science curriculum." Susan disclosed that she viewed supervision as a "means of upgrading the quality of a school." As a representative of the school's administrative team, Susan's visible presence, support, and involvement were instrumental in creating an atmosphere where change was possible.

Jim Palmer, a 53-year-old eighth grade language arts-math teacher, made several personal and professional contributions to the core group. Jim was basically a calm but creative individual who encouraged us "to map out" our ideas. His insistence that "I have to see where I'm going" impelled us to carefully examine our goals and structure our directions for attaining them.

Although he was new to the site, Jim was not a novice in language arts. He had previously served as a Title I, E. S. E. A. reading teacher for nine years and had taught at the elementary level for seven years.

A graduate of Appalachian State University with a Master's Degree in Reading, Jim had a deep commitment to helping all students value reading in their daily lives. His concept of reading transcended a basal textbook approach. In his opinion "basals are just resources. Good teachers will not limit themselves to one book, but will pull in classics, comics, newspapers, and will build upon student's interests. Students will then understand the

importance of reading." Jim had served in several leadership positions within professional organizations. As a widely respected teacher, he exerted tremendous influence and was a valuable member.

Sally McDougle and I became very close. She was a warm, caring individual who, along with Tully, helped sustain me during the difficult entry period. I found Sally to be personally refreshing and professionally insightful. She would "go the extra mile" and was always open to suggestions. As a sixth grade team leader with seven years of classroom experience, Sally was instrumental in spreading the insights and ideas we piloted.

Although members of this group had informally interacted on several prior occasions, we had never before functioned as a formal group. Based on previous observations, I knew that these individuals were accepted leaders who really wanted to initiate change. Although they were diverse in age, sex, and classroom approaches, they shared a deep interest in students and fellow educators. This common concern convinced me that they could operate as a viable group in effecting change.

The first formal meeting on October 19, 1982, was designed to achieve a better mutual understanding and to seek agreement about purposes, goals, and specific directions for proceeding. The meeting was held in the old media center. I had previously baked some pumpkin bread and had

asked Tully to prepare tea and coffee. Susan contributed some donuts. While the group was eating, I expressed appreciation to them for their advice and friendship. During the previous five weeks, I believed that I had developed an understanding of how they and their school operated.

> Over the last few weeks, I've received from you and others, several ideas about possible new approaches to apply to some persistent problems as well as some ideas for needed changes. One thing I've learned from past experience is that effective change is based on widespread support from people deeply involved in planning and implementing it. I would like us to join together and see what we can do for each other and the school. How do you feel about that?

Susan agreed, "Believe me, I can identify with what you said about change."

I added, "I believe the faculty is extremely competent in terms of its knowledge of content areas. However, I feel that you all need some techniques and strategies for reaching more students. Most lessons I've observed have been basically textbook-oriented. I see little pupil-to-pupil interaction or opportunities for students to question as well as apply content."

Sally said, "You're right on target. You know, Larry, I've told you about my needs in those areas. I feel we need to continue what we've started. I feel good about it."

I then asked other members of the group to respond. Jim restated that "teachers in this building need help on reaching the lower-achieving student, especially in reading."

I then said, "I hear you saying that there is a need to focus on acquiring some alternative methods -- things to spice up instruction -- anything else?"

Sally noted that we really needed to examine the sixth-grade science program. "We have next to nothing on physical science and very few things even on some aspects of biological science."

I asked if there was a need to develop some curriculum materials. Sally and Susan nodded in the affirmative. I continued, "Could we keep on involving the students, tieing in their suggestions, and then develop some units that incorporate alternative, open-ended, maybe inquiry approaches that could be implemented and shared with others."

Susan was very supportive, offering to purchase resource materials, duplicate what was developed, and encourage teachers to try these approaches in their own classrooms. Jim seemed quiet and I asked him if he could add to the list. He indicated that he was still concerned about his eighth grade reading class.

I then noted, "Jim, I've been thinking about those eighth graders . . . " Jim stopped me and said that he had an idea "for us to try on."

Jim asked, "Larry, are you familiar with the Sweet Bess Series?" I admitted that I wasn't and he then gave this explanation: "It's a compilation of students' writings. It

was developed in the mountains of western North Carolina. . . . Students interviewed older people about changes they had witnessed and wrote these interviews down."

I replied that it "sounds like you're describing a language experience approach."

Jim said that he had seen the series when he was taking some classes in Boone. "I've always wanted to try a similar project, but haven't had the nerve or resources and since we have cornered Susan. . ."

Before Susan could respond, Tully asked Jim if he was familiar with the language experience approach and Jim indicated that he had seen it at the elementary level, but never at the middle school level. He wanted Tully to get him some more information about it.

I suggested, "Jim, why don't we prepare an experience lesson which either Tully or I could use with your students. We can watch to see how they respond. We could throw out some possible approaches for them to consider."

Susan inquired, "If you all did a book, wouldn't you want photographs?"

Jim said, "Good ideas."

Susan went on, "We're getting some old dark room equipment which need to be set up. . . . Both Ralph Barbee and Wayne Cockrane (other science teachers) could help teach your students."

Sally noted, "You know I could do something similar in my reading class. Tully, how about helping me?" Tully was glad to help.

I asked, "Is there anything else?"

Susan spoke up, "I mentioned this before, but I feel that since we are a new faculty, we really don't know each other very well. We need to do some things together.

I beamed, "I heartily concur!"

Susan continued, "Sam and I discussed a covered dish luncheon. Mrs. Marr is helping with that idea. We've also thought about a breakfast meeting to perhaps commend the faculty for the first nine weeks, maybe identifying some common concerns, and hear suggestions for improving the next nine weeks."

Jim replied, "That's a good idea! It would certainly overcome some recent gripes I've heard!"

I asked Jim to elaborate, "Well, it's not a major thing . . . just a few people wanting more say in decisions about general directions the school is taking."

Susan then pleaded, "Listen, we want you all to be involved. We've got to have it. I don't know all the answers. . . . I guess the breakfast would help demonstrate that we want the faculty's ideas and suggestions."

Jim volunteered, "You need any help with it?"

The group then discussed ways of helping at the breakfast. Jim agreed to prepare the coffee and serve the ham

biscuits. Tully offered to help Mrs. Marr with some centerpieces.

Wanting to avoid the faculty perceiving us as a secretive group, I asked, "Susan, could we as a group share some of the ideas we've been discussing? Group, how do you feel about that?"

Sally replied, "I've gotten several questions about what we're doing. . . . Sounds good!"

Other members nodded and I then summarized, "We've got three big areas to focus on: One, to improve the sixth grade science program; two, to explore a language experience approach; and three, to continue to support efforts to bring the faculty closer together as well as involve them in more decisions."

Sally interjected, "I feel we need to let them know that we do care about their concerns. . . . We also just need to do plain ol' sharing of ideas and problems."

Reminding the group that a lot of work would be involved, I asked if they were willing to "give these a try."

Jim said, "O.K., but I'm going to need help and a road map!"

I indicated that he would get both and then asked the group, "How do we go about it? Who will do what?" The group response follows:

Sally: Why don't we continue our science activities while trying to include other teachers?

L.A.: How do we go about curriculum development?

Sally: Involve the students, get ideas from them as well as from other sixth grade teachers. Dee has some excellent activities that I've seen. Help us to compile ideas and then try them out.

L.A.: How do we go about teaching those activities?

Sally: Just like we've been doing. You take the lead for a while and let me observe, then we can switch.

L.A.: What about having other teachers observe?

Sally: Let's first get our feet wet and then see. We do need to do that though.

Susan: Let me come in and try my hand -- see if I'm too rusty!

L.A.: Jim, could Tully, Susan, you and I get together to map out your reading idea?

Sally: Keep me posted! I want to try some of that with my reading class.

Susan suggested that we should contact Harry Calvery, a media specialist from central office. "He's got some excellent ideas." Susan agreed to contact him.

I then reminded the group, "You know we're going to encounter some problems with each other, with others, or the tasks. How do we handle them? How do you want to work?

Jim stated, "I tell you, Larry, the only way I can work is openly. If you and I disagree, we need to sit down and talk out how we feel and where we're coming from. . . . We don't need to formally vote here; at least, I feel that way."

The group agreed. We said that we would meet again in two weeks. Sally said, "I'd like to invite Dee. Is that alright?" The group responded in the affirmative. I was

delighted because I didn't want others to perceive us as an elite group.

This meeting served a variety of purposes. It provided an opportunity for us to come together formally as a group and to begin making decisions about courses of action. It resulted in a clearer understanding of the group's purpose and future directions. It gave me the chance to give my observations as well as to invite others to do likewise.

Throughout the meeting individuals participated wholeheartedly. They offered excellent ideas and suggestions that enhanced the quality of the decisions that were made.

We grew in our understanding of each other as we jointly undertook efforts to improve the school's general atmosphere and increase our own professional effectiveness. We seemed to grow more cohesive and committed to the welfare of each other, to students, and to the school. By the end of the meeting, we had a clearer understanding of our roles and responsibilities and of how decisions were to be made.

I personally felt a sense of intense pride and accomplishment. I perceived that I was able to encourage the group, helping to release their potential as they moved toward a greater sense of responsibility. Teachers as well as the principal had begun to interact freely, providing valuable ideas and suggestions that could enrich teaching, promote relationships, and improve the operation of the school.

Commitment and enthusiasm increased as group members proceeded with varied activities. The following episodes highlight some of these activities and the manner in which individuals and the group functioned.

October 20, 1982 (Outside Sally's Room)

Sally returned from the office and asked me to examine a card she had received from Karen Becker at the Environmental Center. "Karen says that the activities we developed are excellent and they will relate well to their outdoor program."

I asked, "Doesn't that make you feel good?"

Sally smiled, "It makes me want to do more."

I told Sally that Dee had stopped me and wanted to join us Thursday to brainstorm some ideas on teaching volcanoes.

As we were chatting, Tully, Susan, and Joan Davis came by. Tully announced that Dee had an article in the Journal of North Carolina Middle Schools.

Tully said, "Hey, look at it."

Susan, seeing the article for the first time said, "She deserves some recognition."

I suggested we post a sign in the office where everyone could see it. Joan then remarked, "Look what I received yesterday. I got this pin for four years of work with the deaf."

We agreed that both should be recognized and that I would pass on word of these accomplishments to Mrs. Frye, the central office public relations liaison.

Pat Marr approached and Susan said, "Did you know that Margo's in the hospital?"

"Yes and we need to do something," responded Pat.

I suggested that we send her some flowers. Pat thought that it might be a good idea to send her family a box of food. She agreed to bring a box, put it in the office, and ask the faculty to contribute some food.

October 21, 1982

I met with Dee and Sally today after school. As we shared ideas on teaching earth movement, Sally mentioned again that the sixth grade needed help in developing ideas for physical science experiments. Since I had been working on such activities and brought them to the meeting, I said, "I've come up with these. Please review them. There is a multitude of possible directions we could go. We need to narrow the field."

We agreed to focus on time, distance, and motion, and that each of us would take an area to further develop. We also agreed to get ideas from students before proceeding. Activities would then be shared with other sixth grade teachers. Sally indicated that she would ask teachers to "check their files and put any ideas and suggestions into a 'sharing box' in the team room." We spent the last few minutes helping Dee identify some possibilities for her unit on geology.

I later stopped by Susan's office and she asked me how things were going.

I replied, "Great! I just had a meeting with Sally and Dee. We 'threw out' several good ideas. We've narrowed our scope in physical science. . . . Susan, teachers have the capacity to solve many of their problems if we can just help them to clarify those problems and look for possible solutions.

Susan stated, "I get so frustrated at times by the many petty things that have to be done. I need to be out there in classrooms more often and I will. . . . I do appreciate all that you're doing."

I expressed my appreciation and then said, "I'm going to ask a favor. Check to see if you have or can get any science materials on time, distance, and motion. Give them to Sally. Once we get further along, would you also encourage teachers to visit and observe what's going on in Sally's room?"

Susan replied, "Sure, I'll bring that up at our November 11 breakfast meeting."

October 23, 1982

A teacher asked me to deliver a gift (flower arrangement) to her Secret Elf, Joan Davis. I took it to Joan's room and she remarked, "It's gorgeous and the colors will

fit beautifully in my den. You know this little 'elf idea' has really brightened our days. It makes a difference when you know people care."

I was about to leave when Joan said, "Larry, you got a minute?"

I sat down and Joan explained that "I haven't had the best attitude this year. I really wanted the eighth grade. I said that to Susan. Sometimes I don't think she really listens."

I asked her to explain and she continued, "I have the most years of experience and I think I'm a pretty good teacher. An eighth grade position was available. Why didn't I get it?"

I asked, "Have you discussed this with Susan?"

She hesitated, "Not really."

I suggested, "You'll never know until you've talked it over with her."

October 25, 1982

Joan revealed that she had approached Susan. Susan had told her that she realized that Joan wanted the eighth grade, but she had skills that really needed to be on the eighth grade level. "Susan showed me the choices she had. We both concluded that the decision made was the only one that could have been made under the circumstances."

Joan then continued, "In any case, I feel relieved to know why the decision was made. I think I can go back and do a better job."

The human side of a teacher and principal is an integral part of their performance. These episodes reveal that teachers must have opportunities to clarify their feelings, to feel the support of a group, and to be recognized as worthy individuals. These entries further testify that human needs for affiliation, self-esteem, and risk-taking can be routinely satisfied as teachers engage in efforts to

improve themselves and the school. Fulfillment of these needs boosts morale and enhances the accompanying productivity.

The last days of October and the first week of November were filled with numerous events. Sally, Dee, and I continued to develop and field test ideas for teaching the physics unit. Sally continued to increase in her capacity to analyze a lesson, suggest alternatives and then to "try her own hand." The following entry illustrates this growth.

October 26, 1982 (Sally's classroom before school)

I told Sally that I had "some more activities on friction and inertia for the afternoon group. How about the kids doing some friction and inertia 'grafitti.' I'll create some posters and it will be the students' responsibility to use any resources, magazines, dictionaries, or each other to record in their own words what friction and inertia is."

Sally added, "Then they could think of some experiences or activities that could illustrate or verify their definitions. . . . Let's do it!"

We did the activities and met after school to discuss them. I stated that the "kids really came up with some neat answers."

Sally answered, "Did you note George's response? He ate up the approach."

I added, "Yes, and did you see that the kids could give the meanings of friction and inertia in their own words!"

Sally continued, "A lot ot things became clearer to me as a result of today's lesson. You had researched the topics and pretty much knew them. However, you didn't give the students that information -- at first. You involved them in developing their own definitions -- which was more meaningful. I also noticed that you didn't begin until you had everyone's attention and you got it by writing those ideas on the overhead."

I indicated that the use of the overhead was completely unplanned. "I saw the kids talking to each other and rather than asking for their attention, I involved them in figuring out the hidden message."

"You also did a lot of clarifying and asking students for their interpretation of what was being said."

I then asked, "Did you notice anything about choices or options?"

Sally replied, "Yes, they knew what the task was and they had different ways of doing it."

"And what was my role?"

Sally noticed that I helped the students and did "a lot of questioning."

I asked Sally what she meant by that.

"Well, you asked George to explain how inertia and the drawing of his seat belts were related. . . . I've got to get beyond recall questions."

I then replied, "From what I have seen you're improving. . . . I observed the morning class when you were working on animals. You asked several open-ended and higher level questions . . . and were you aware of the kind of questions students were asking each other?"

I told Sally that the students were asking some keen questions that required reflection and interpretation of information.

I then offered a lab sheet which I had developed and she said, "That gives me some ideas. Let me do some playing around and see what I can do. I like the idea, but want to change it a bit."

Sally continued to develop a variety of activities, sharing them with other teachers in this site as well as with teachers in another middle school. She also took the major responsibility for a field trip to the Environmental Center. I gradually moved from a teaching role to one of observer and finally to one of encouraging two other science

teachers to use the materials and to have me observe their classes. By the end of October, Sally had a small network of teachers sharing ideas and activities. Susan observed different occasions and even taught a lesson!

On October 28, she asked Sally and me if the core group could meet after school. After contacting everyone, we met briefly in the media center. Susan noted that the school's new greenhouse was nearly complete and she needed some ideas on supplies, instructional possibilities, and scheduling. Susan said, "We have parents who will donate an assortment of plants."

All were very pleased. Sally spoke for the group, "Susan, we can help you, but I feel the whole faculty needs to be involved now, particularly the science teachers. Why don't you bring it up in the PIC meeting. We'll get behind you. Maybe PIC can suggest a sub-committee of science teachers."

Susan agreed and after the meeting I told Susan that I thought the group made a wise decision. "It's essential to involve other faculty members -- those nearest the problem."

I felt that this meeting had been quite productive and was feeling rather optimistic generally about how things were going. That optimism quickly turn to frustration. I had assumed that Program Involvement Council meetings, informal principal and teacher conferences, and the use of an internal leadership team would provide an adequate forum

for translating the daily work of core members and myself to the larger faculty. I underestimated the power of rumors and misperceptions.

An incident arose which, while being personally and professionally frustrating, taught me a valuable lesson. I was returning from the lunchroom on October 29th, when Sally stopped me saying, "Boy, have we got problems." I asked her to explain and she said that Mrs. Jones, a seventh grade science teacher, had told her that she had heard that we were not using our science books. "I tried to explain," said Sally, "but she would not listen. She said that my students would really suffer next year."

I tried to reassure Sally even though I was blessing myself out for failing to anticipate this problem. I really didn't know whether to confront this teacher or just ignore the problem. After some reflection and discussion with Susan and Sam, I concluded that it might be advisable to schedule a meeting between sixth and seventh grade science teachers to discuss the curriculum for each grade level, to share instructional strategies, and identify problems that might occur. Susan agreed that we should meet immediately and I asked her to chair the meeting.

We met the next Monday even though Mrs. Jones was absent. After stating the purposes of the meeting, Susan asked Sally and Dee to review the sixth grade curriculum. Sally distributed copies of the text and pointed out the

dearth of information on plant and animal interdependency as well as the lack of depth in physical science. I pointed out flexibility in state department guidelines and described the curriculum units that had arisen from our work together.

> Many of Sally's students, quite frankly, find the text difficult and uninteresting. We're using the text only as one resource. We're trying to develop interest in these topics by having the students to engage in some everyday problem-solving about them.

Dee discussed the activities on earth science that had been planned a few days earlier. Sally then said, "Larry, I'd like to say that for the first time I feel my students are really involved. I feel good about what I'm doing."

After Sally made these remarks, Dee described the Sharing Box idea. Next, Kevin, a seventh grade teacher, reviewed the life science curriculum and reported that he had heard of very few problems except the need for the greenhouse to be completed. "When that's ready we can really have some neat projects." Susan promised that the greenhouse would be finished within a couple of days and she was going to involve the faculty.

I then asked, "Do you see the value of what we're trying to do in the sixth grade?" Mike, another seventh grade teacher, replied, "Of course, kids are learning by doing!" Sally then laughingly interjected, "I'm learning while doing, too!" Mike asked for copies of the environmental unit and Sally agreed to furnish these.

After the meeting Susan asked Kevin and Mike to review the meeting with Mrs. Jones. They agreed and Kevin added, "She needs to loosen up. You know we need to meet together more often. It might help us all!" In the future, I'll take Kevin's advice and provide opportunities for the core group to share systematically with their colleagues.

As I decreased my work with Sally and the sixth grade, I concentrated on helping Jim explore his new approach to reading. Tully, Susan, Jim and I met several times to plan the development and implementation of an eighth grade language experience approach. Sally asked to join us on two separate occasions. Selected entries from my journal reveal the initial planning as well as the continuing human, professional, and organizational support that was being given.

November 2, 1982

Tully, Jim, Susan, Sally, Harry (media specialist from central office), and I met in the old media center. We enjoyed some banana bread as I gave an overview of where we were in terms of the project.

I stated, "Just as a type of prehistory, let me review what has occurred up to this point. Tully, Jim, Susan, and I recently met and heard Jim describing a problem he was having. Jim mentioned that there was a particular approach that he wanted to try out. Is that correct Jim?"

Jim replied that I was correct and stated, "I want the kids in my last period class to become turned on to reading. . . . I would like to see them producing some original writing that could eventually become a classroom reading book. We could also use cameras and add some real class to it."

Jim continued, "Frankly, I think it's got the possibilities for helping us here and elsewhere in the system. Jill, my teammate, has also expressed an interest. . . .

I'm going to need a lot of technical assistance. I believe I can carry the ball if you all will help."

Susan noted that "it's definitely got some school-wide implications."

I asked Jim "to describe the steps you see us taking . . . what do we need to do?"

Jim replied, "I'd like to start with some simple instructions on how to use the camera."

Tully added, "You could emphasize vocabulary related to the camera."

Jim thanked Tully and continued, "I'd like for students to take a simple shot, develop it, and do some photograph writing. After the first booklet, I'd like to have students produce a historical montage, perhaps interviewing some older people about the history of High Point.

I knew that Jim would need some photographic resources and asked Susan to verify what the situation was. "As I mentioned a few days ago, the school is getting some used equipment for a dark room. Several teachers have interest and skill in photography and would be glad to help out. I think I can get some film, but let me know early so that I can get a purchase order through."

Harry then stated, "No problem. I've got some film in stock at central office. I'll advance you some and you can pay us back."

"Would you help us kick this project off?", I asked Harry. "Could we get you here for half a day a week?"

Harry said that we needed to clear it with Dr. Andrews and Susan agreed to contact the Associate Superintendent. Knowing that Susan had another meeting, I suggested, "let's meet Thursday to firm things up. Jim, would you jot down how you perceive the project's going -- steps? Enlist the kids. Susan, you're going to check with Dr. "A." Harry, you're checking on the film, right?"

The meeting ended with this conversation:

Harry: By the way, I brought these instructional packets from central office. They were ordered from Eastman Kodak. Jim, you may want to examine them for additional ideas.

Jim: Sure.

L.A.: A good meeting!

Jim: Yes, this is the type of support we teachers want.

Susan: I agree! This is the type of leadership we need in this school. Jim, would you share these plans at our breakfast? Would you also serve on our language arts resource team?

Jim: Would love to. However, I've got some strong ideas about getting some of these kids away from these basals.

Susan: That's one of our goals!

November 4, 1982

We met again for further planning on the reading project. The following decisions were reached:

1. The first emphasis would be on involving students in ideas about the booklet. I agreed to come into Jim's classroom and using photos from magazines to demonstrate the steps in a language experience lesson. Students would compile their photos and writings into a mini-booklet.

2. Jim would describe his booklet idea to students and request their ideas for its focus.

3. Tully would also go into the classroom and team with Jim on planning and developing a similar lesson.

4. Harry would be available to provide instruction in the use of the camera.

5. Susan would ask two other teachers to become involved in setting up the dark room. Jim and Harry agreed to help.

6. Jim would work on the booklet two days a week if the students were interested.

We agreed to meet on November 8 to finalize further steps in the process.

November 8, 1982

Tully, Sally, Jim, Susan, Harry, and I met at 9:30. Jim reported that he had discussed the booklet idea with students and they were interested. Tully and I also shared observations from our participation in Jim's classroom. We gave out the students' papers, reviewed them, and thanked Jim for his involvement. Jim indicated that he wanted to begin on November 10th. Students wanted to develop a booklet about themselves, their friends, and their favorite places in the school.

We then tentatively "mapped out" the project Harry suggested. "On November 17th, let me work with a group taking shots, while the other half works with you and Larry."

I related that "we can involve the kids in making a list of their favorite places, explaining why, and also give them some tips on interviewing their friends."

"On November 24th," Jim commented, "let's take the students' list, have them take snapshots of each other, their favorite places, and begin writing about them."

Susan said, "concerning the interviews . . . Mike Pierce, the Assistant to the Personnel Director, does a good job on getting people to think about the types of questions to use in an interview. Jim, would you like for him to come to the class before November 17th?"

Jim replied in the affirmative and Susan agreed to contact Mike.

I stated, "We also need to think about Christmas and perhaps getting some closure before vacation."

Jim replied, "Well, on December 9th and 16th (if those dates are agreeable) we can devote one session to style and format of writing and then have the teachers put their photographs and writings together."

Harry stated, "On December 16th, they could design a cover and compile their stories. We could run them at central office and then bring the binder over for the kids to put together."

Tully agreed to help with the binding as well as "anything else." Jim asked her to be available to assist students in describing their thoughts, and then in recording them on paper. Jim also mentioned that Jill was planning to start a similar project.

I suggested "we need to stop with these ideas and ask students about them. We need to evaluate as we go along so that changes can be made." I then asked Susan if she would take responsibility for coordinating the project and she agreed.

Throughout the planning and implementation of the science and language arts activities, the core group stayed in touch. We met informally on numerous occasions and again formally on November 10th to finalize the plans for the faculty breakfast. Sam joined us.

I opened the meeting with a progress report about our three goals. Sally discussed the environmental field day, the projects in physical science, and the sharing that was occurring with Dee and other sixth and seventh grade teachers.

Jim told our plans for reading. Sam asked if we could report at 7:30 a.m. on November 11th to get the breakfast ready. We agreed and then discussed what we wanted to say to the faculty. Susan agreed to introduce me and I would, in turn, have Jim and Sally report our progress.

The first faculty breakfast occurred on November 11th. Sam told the faculty that this was a way "of saying thank you to everyone of you. It's been a hard nine weeks. You've been swell! Enjoy yourselves and we'll do some talking in a few minutes."

After we had freely interacted for about fifteen minutes, Susan spoke to the faculty. She again expressed appreciation for their work and asked, "Would you like to

continue these breakfasts?" Several individuals called out "yes" and then the faculty began clapping. Susan continued, "as many of you know, Larry has been working with us for the last eight or nine weeks. Several faculty members have taken advantage of his invitation to explore some new approaches. Larry, you all take it from here."

After expressing gratitude for the courtesies that had been extended to me, I asked Sally to explain what we had accomplished in science, and Jim and Tully to elaborate on the reading project. Dee, a sixth grade teacher, indicated that she had periodically joined us and had found the experience "personally and professionally rewarding." We distributed copies of the science activities and Kevin, a seventh grade life science teacher, remarked, "I really like these environmental activities. I'm about to start a unit and need some ideas. Y'all come to see me." We agreed.

Jim then described the reading approach that he was undertaking. Linda, an eighth-grade language arts teacher, Susan, a seventh-grade language arts teacher, and Marie, a sixth-grade social studies teacher, asked Jim about the possibility of having his students share their books in all these classes. Jim agreed and then remarked, "Just wait til you see what we come up with!"

After Jim's report, Sam asked the faculty for the perceptions about the preceding nine-week period. Several faculty members indicated that it had generally been a

productive and enjoyable time but expressed concern about the scheduling and "traffic flow" to intramural events. Daryl, one of the coaches, asked, "Are you all saying you don't want intramurals?" Sally denied this, "I definitely want a strong intramurals program. It's so much better than the star system with only a few kids participating. I believe we're saying that the idea of intramurals is fine but there are a few minor problems -- like excessive hall noise -- that need our attention. Also, we need to know of changes in the play-off schedules at least a day in advance."

After a brief discussion concerning the problems, it was agreed that teachers would discuss intramural responsibilities with students and demonstrate their support by accompanying students to the playoffs. The coaches agreed to put schedule changes on memos and also announce them over the P.A. system.

Joan Davis, a seventh grade teacher, spoke to another concern, "I've also heard several teachers discussing the need for high interest, low vocabulary materials."

Tully replied, "You all come see me. Have I got materials for you!"

"I want to thank Tully or whoever was responsible for the book reporting ideas," Joan added. "They're great."

Susan then added, "Is there anything else that you all feel we need to aim for these nine weeks?" Kevin said, "The

project on the greenhouse is underway and needs to be finished soon." Susan then smiled, "I know, tell me again what needs to be done."

Kevin responded, "We need to get the plants that have been donated. We need to get some potting soil, containers, fertilizers, and check out the water system." Hazel, a seventh grade science teacher, offered her truck to pick up plants. Susan promised, "If you will give me a list of your needs, we'll send a purchase order through." Susan asked Kevin to get the science teachers together and "work out a plan so that we can use it." Kevin agreed and asked Hazel and Sally to help him.

The meeting ended and I went to thank Sam and Susan for what I thought was a major milestone for the school. As I approached the two principals, I overheard the following conversation between them and two teachers:

Sarah: This was simply great!

Sam: You liked our biscuits, um. (Laughing).

Sarah: You know I really felt included today. . . . I felt a part of this school -- for the first time. Let me know if I can help you all with other breakfasts.

I complimented Sam and Susan on their leadership and I was about to leave when Kevin called me to come over and join the science teachers. "Larry, don't you think kids could help us set up the greenhouse?"

I replied, "You better believe it! Go to it! Let me know if I can help."

An analysis of this breakfast meeting shows, on a small scale, how the components of the proposed model functioned. As a consultant I was able to observe and participate in both formal and informal events over a period of time, and thus gained an understanding of faculty relationships. I knew that many faculty members were new and I saw how this "newness" was affecting instruction. Formal interactions seemed to be inhibiting the sharing of professional ideas and skills which could eventually have an impact on student performance.

By using a process that stressed mutual involvement, commitment, and personal relationships, I was able to help a small group to see this problem and encourage them to assume responsibility for an event that enabled faculty members to relax and get to know each other, to share their ideas and to gain new professional knowledge and ideas as well as identify peer sources of help. This breakfast also gave the core group an opportunity to be recognized for their insight and work.

Principals welcomed the opportunity to commend the faculty and to involve them in setting practical goals that not only could enhance them personally and professionally, but also improve the school's operation and bring credit to it. The faculty saw their leaders' responsiveness and joined them in addressing identified areas. Human needs were being satisfied as individuals worked on problems that

could improve the quality of life of all, especially students. Members were not coerced, but willingly invested their energies in the welfare of the organization.

Throughout the remaining days of November, I worked closely with Jim and Jill, and gradually passed on to Tully and Susan responsibility for the reading project. Several teachers requested some "short-term" assistance. An eighth grade science teacher was helped to analyze some discipline problems she was encountering and a sixth grade social studies teacher joined me in developing some activities on "Greece and Rome." I encouraged Susan and Sam to continue the informal "get togethers."

Throughout this period as well as the previous ones, I shared my experiences with fellow supervisors at the central office and also with Dr. Andrews. We met periodically as an instructional staff and I took that occasion to report our progress.

Toward the end of November, I began to observe further examples of individuals identifying problems and jointly working on them. The faculty voiced a need for a variety of materials to address the minimum competencies. Tully assembled some individuals and they developed some activities that were distributed to the faculty. Members of PIC recognized that they needed additional in-service and Susan assumed responsibility for obtaining a resource person. I concluded that it was time for me gradually to end my

services. I asked the core group to meet with me again.

Ending and Follow-up (December 6 - December 15, 1982)

Our core group agreed to meet in the media center on December 6th. I began to suspect "something was up" when Sally detained me outside the center with what seemed to be a trivial issue. Upon entering, I was surprised to learn that the group has planned a "punch, cookie, and dip affair" and had invited the entire faculty. They had become quite perceptive and knew that I was beginning the exit process.

Susan motioned for me to join her at the punch table where she expressed appreciation for my helping to bring the faculty closer together and "helping us see what we can do."

I replied, "You know I came here as a stranger to most of you, but I'm leaving with the knowledge that I've gained some close friends and new insights. I hope you will continue what we've started."

After the social, I met with the core group to announce that I would be leaving on December 15th. I then asked, "Do you feel comfortable in continuing what has been started? Was it worthwhile?" All agreed that it had been rewarding.

Sally expressed confidence that she could continue as well as expand the science and reading projects. She said, "I feel I know our sixth grade teachers better. I know who's interested and where I can go for help."

Jim stated, "Larry, a few extra hands need to be available just to help students assemble our books. Things are going smoothly and I would like the kids to take booklets home for Christmas."

Tully said, "Don't worry, kiddo!"

Susan added, "We'll be available!"

I then remarked, "I'd like to talk with each of you before I leave. I'd like some idea of what this experience has meant to you." They agreed to meet with me.

I interviewed each one of the core group, but the most revealing interview was with Sally.

I asked, "First of all Sally, prior to this experience what was your impression of supervision and what contributed to that perception?"

Sally responded, "Before this experience, the word 'supervision' would have been threatening to me. The idea that someone would come in and watch me teach and they would be someone who would know everything, was frightening. They would come in, take notes, and go out. . . . I would feel very threatened."

I asked, "How does this approach differ?"

Sally replied, "Well right now I see you as a supervisor, yes, but someone who can talk over things with me, not someone who has all the answers -- someone to encourage me to see new things."

I responded, "What has this experience done for you personally and professionally?"

Sally said, "First of all it helped me to identify some sources of help here. It's also been fun to see you teach and then to have me teach. I've grown. I'm more likely to venture out. . . . I guess I'm also more self-reflective about my own teaching."

I asked, "Anything else?"

She replied, "Well I just think the whole idea of supervision has changed and made me see that supervisors are human too and that is so important to teachers. . . . We can open up to them (supervisors)."

In responding to the question, "Has it (this experience) enlarged your perceptions of possibilities for the classroom?" Sally replied, "Yes. There are resources out there that we don't normally tap and you have been a terrific resource person. I think that it is helpful to know that there are contacts . . . people I might not know that you might know."

I then asked Sally, "If you had to pinpoint some strengths of this approach, what would they be? What made it work?"

Sally thought a moment, "One thing was that you were available. You helped us to clarify our directions, you gave us support and insights. You helped us get to a point where we could take the ball and run with it."

I probed, "How would you characterize our relationship?"

Sally said, "I looked at you more as a co-teacher. I believe that gave you more credibility with me and other faculty members."

The interview ended with this dialogue:

L.A.: How did this effect you in terms of participation in the school? Have you gleaned anything from this experience that will help you as you deal with others?

Sally: Well, I think it helped me in my relationship with my principals. I've learned that my principals can help me if I help initiate a relationship with them. I've seen that they are human, too.

L.A.: Would you recommend this experience to another teacher? If so, why?

Sally: I definitely would. It increases your self-confidence. I think that in order to teach well, you have to feel good about yourself and you have to feel good about your teaching. This has helped me feel good about myself as well as my teaching. . . . I think if you feel like you are a good teacher you're going to become more involved. It's going to affect your whole view of things.

I have returned to the field site on three separate occasions and have been pleased to note that the breakfasts are continuing. Sally and Jim are also continuing to work on their projects. Jim's class finished their "Favorite People and Places" booklet and have started another one, "A Historical Review of High Point." Sally has developed some activities in chemistry that she sent me and I have shared these with other schools. The greenhouse is

functional! On my second visit, I chatted with Susan. I told her that I was gratified to see that many of the things we initiated were continuing and asked, "Why?"

Susan replied, "You got us to a point where we felt comfortable in continuing . . . we wanted to continue."

I again returned to the site in early May to find the principals and the Program Improvement Council (PIC) making plans to cook breakfast for the faculty. The vital leadership of Sally, Jim, the principals, and the faculty was indeed evident.

CHAPTER VI

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

This field study was undertaken to gain an understanding of how a comprehensive model of supervision might function in a particular setting. In quest of that understanding, the anthropological technique of participant-observation supplemented by formal and informal interviews was used. The four stages which emerged show how a consultant approach, a change process, and a holistic theoretical focus were employed to effect change within the field site. These three components of the comprehensive model operated together to produce the reported results.

Assuming a role similar to that of a consultant, a staff supervisor spent a concentrated period of time in a single school. This decision was viewed as a means of helping to effect changes that might enhance the setting for both students and educators. This particular consultant approach consisted of spending approximately four months at a middle school in High Point, North Carolina.

Several benefits accrued from this "residency." It gave the supervisor the opportunity to advance from being considered a relative stranger to being an accepted colleague. Perceiving that the supervisor could be trusted,

individuals included him in conversations where personal and professional strengths and limitations were discussed. Candid opinions about the need for change and an honest concern for improving themselves and the school were also aired.

Three examples from this field study highlight how growing trust among supervisors, teachers, and principals encouraged participants to reveal problems as well as assume an active role in addressing them. Jim Palmer, a veteran reading teacher, disclosed serious problems with a reading class and a desire to implement an alternative language experience approach that might have systemwide implications. Sally McDougle, a career science teacher, wanted to develop a relevant sixth grade science curriculum and also to improve her own classroom teaching. Susan Jones, a principal of instruction, began to perceive the lack of cohesion among the site faculty and the need for involving them in decisions.

The residency period gave participants opportunities to know each other personally and professionally. Since they more comfortable with each other, discussions became more open and common understandings resulted.

Being based in the school enabled the supervisor to acquire empathy with individuals as they confronted everyday problems. It also enabled him to use his professional skills, insights, and understandings as he involved participants in making changes that enhanced their own as well as the school's effectiveness.

Over the time span of four months, the supervisor's personal and professional credibility grew steadily. Individuals had numerous occasions to observe him and began to acknowledge his competence and effectiveness. His reactions, advice, and suggestions for change were sought.

In implementing change, the staff supervisor used a process that incorporated several of Sarason's (1972) suggestions. For example, he maintained that change takes time, involves widespread commitment, requires an understanding of a setting's unique history and culture, a balance between external and internal leadership as well as continuing personal and professional assistance.

An examination of this field study shows that a sustained period of time was involved. Four stages, extending through the four months were observed. Although these stages had their own distinct identity and characteristics, they tended to overlap and to merge. Experience showed that the underlying assumption that change required time and commitment was justified.

Gaining commitment from all directions, including "top-down," "lateral," and "bottom-up," was essential. The goal of the initial meetings with the associate superintendent as well as with principals was to increase understandings of the model and to enlist their support since top-level endorsement and understanding were crucial to its success.

However, top-level commitment alone was not sufficient. The consultant also sought the support of his fellow supervisors whose suggestions and advice were invaluable in furthering his understanding of the setting, his pool of potential leaders for a core group, and his identification of resources that would be helpful. Communication with fellow supervisors was not just a "one-shot" deal -- through regularly scheduled staff meetings, the associate superintendent and the supervisory staff learned about developments as they occurred.

Commitment of leadership, both formal and informal within the site school, was another critical factor. Periodic meetings with the Program Improvement Council, principals, the core group as well as informal discussions with other teachers attempted to clarify the purposes for the residency and to allay fears and misconceptions that might develop.

In retrospect, bottom-up commitment and communication could have been better. The supervisor should have provided more opportunities for dialogue between himself and other faculty members as well as more contact between the core group and the general faculty.

An increased awareness of the history and culture of the school as well as its formal and informal leadership patterns resulted from this approach. Daily participation and observation brought insights about relationships in the

school's daily operation, the quality of its teaching as well as attitudes toward change. For example, the consultant discovered that formal relationships were obstructing the sharing of talents, skills, and information that could have improved teaching as well as the quality of everyday existence at the site school.

The supervisor also became increasingly aware that principals were responsive to teachers' concerns and perceived a need for greater faculty cohesiveness. Responsiveness was manifested in Sally's dilemma about the cafeteria, the duplication of materials for a Sharing Box, the purchasing of dark-room equipment, and the principal's active involvement in the faculty breakfast.

Although the principals were attempting to be responsive, it became apparent that several of the teachers tended to avoid contacts with principals. They were hesitant to offer suggestions for improving the school's operation or the quality of teaching. Believing that this reluctance was caused by not knowing one another, the consultant attempted to arrange situations that would lead naturally to greater teacher-principal interaction.

The consultant continuously sought opportunities to make suggestions and to observe teachers' reactions to his own as well as others' suggestions for change. Over a period of time, he was able to identify individuals who would likely assume leadership in effecting change and who

could provide data about the directions and nature of suggested improvements. A core group of five individuals provided a balance between internal and external leadership. It began to identify problems, to propose alternative solutions, and to reach out to fellow faculty members in a process characterized by sharing and caring. A luncheon and breakfast for the faculty, Jim's process for achieving more meaningful reading materials, the greenhouse project, and the concern for a sick faculty member are just a few evidences of an ever-widening circle of involvement.

Throughout this experience, the consultant provided the core group with the professional guidance and encouragement that enabled them to grow personally and professionally, as they assumed greater responsibility for themselves and the school. In partnership with each other, participants envisioned more possibilities for themselves, students, and the school, and willingly assumed an active role in translating these possibilities into reality. In this process they became more self-analytical, self-confident, adventuresome, and more interdependent. The final interview with Sally highlights this growth.

Close relationships, emerging from daily encounters, helped to establish a climate favorable to change. Fresh insights about traditional problems were shared as individuals gained the confidence to try something new. Relationships were not imposed, but rather evolved naturally as teachers and principals worked together.

Principals provided formerly untapped sources of skill and support in addition to their traditional authority role. Susan, for example, progressively demonstrated support and encouragement by her presence as well as by using her authority to secure resources and central office services. Perceiving how professional development could enhance school goals, she promoted that development. Others benefited from her insights and expertise while she, a former math-science specialist, gained a specific understanding of language arts. Her participation was invaluable in developing support for change.

Susan, Sam, and the entire core group helped make the school and the school system seem less remote, more personal, and more responsive to individual concerns. In this climate, individuals assumed more responsibility for improving themselves and for caring about the school's goals. Jim Palmer's statement "this is the type of support we need," indicates he felt that he and his needs mattered and consequently offered to assume the risks involved in a new reading approach as well as help with the breakfast. Furthermore, two teachers developed a meaningful and relevant science curriculum for their sixth grade.

Change was also aided by extensive modeling by the consultant who attempted to openly admit personal and professional inadequacies as well as to level with persons about his feelings of acceptance, loneliness, boredom and

frustration. This, in turn, encouraged others to accept and include their peers, to disclose shortcomings, and generally to evaluate their own performance and planning.

Modeling was also apparent in attempts to involve individuals in making decisions, setting goals, and solving problems. The modeling of these behaviors within the core group and with other teachers appears to have prompted the principals to invite more input on the part of the teachers in making some school decisions.

Sarason's proposals for dealing with change worked well in this situation. They helped individuals to assume greater leadership in identifying changes and in making accompanying adjustments. Furthermore, they encouraged action on the part of this particular leadership team and provided a viable process for fostering continued growth and development.

Although they were invaluable, Sarason's suggestions do not represent a complete program for change. Other strategies, such as modeling, may prove to be valuable additions. It should also be recognized that these change strategies have potential "side-effects." The staff supervisor discovered, for example, that there must be continuing dialogue and involvement between the core group and the general faculty. The core group otherwise might gain the appearance of an elite group and nullify its own potential. Sarason's process, nevertheless, does appear to be a potent means for helping effect and sustain change.

The theoretical focus for change in this field study was very broad. All three theoretical domains (professional development, human relationships, and organizational behaviors) were considered in effecting instructional improvement.

Program development was an important aspect of this professional domain. Program development appeared in several forms including opportunities for curriculum development, the systematic improvement of instruction as well as on-site staff development. These professional endeavors were not, however, regarded as separate entities. They became integrated components of a comprehensive means of improving the school's total program.

Program development included several related processes such as acquiring information on a new classroom approach or subject matter content, applying that information in developing and implementing curriculum, and analyzing and evaluating classroom implementation and teaching performances. Since the consultant was not a direct evaluator, teachers had the freedom to risk failure and learn from their mistakes. As a trusted colleague, he gained the benefit of valuable insights and suggestions about what did and did not work as well as needed changes. These might not have been revealed to a formal evaluator or "distant" staff person. Teachers gained the presence of a "firing line" partner who demonstrated proposed instructional strategies.

As a result of participating in these experiences, individuals had opportunities to satisfy more of their human needs for affiliation, self-esteem, and risk-taking as they attempted to improve themselves and the school. The school, by supporting professional development and the satisfaction of human needs, gained potential leaders who began to use their talents, skills, and influence to solve problems.

Principals gained a more competent, cohesive, committed, and involved faculty. These results would have been difficult to achieve without the principals' participation and the willing involvement of the core group, PIC, and the larger faculty in decisions about problems and goals. This involvement supplied the context for addressing human needs as individuals shared their professional knowledge, skills, and insights in charting an improved schools. More viable decision-making, goal-setting, and communication appeared to have resulted from this involvement. The faculty breakfast is one evidence of this.

The faculty began to see that their ideas and concerns were valued and this seemed to help them voice their concerns as well as identify new goals for which they willingly assumed more responsibility. Evidence of emerging commitment surfaced in another science teacher's (Kevin's) remarks about developing an instructional unit, the forming of a group that assumed leadership for a greenhouse, and

Sarah's statement after the breakfast: "You know I really felt included today. Let me know if I can help you with other breakfasts."

This study thus supports a number of insights gained from the literature. Each of the theoretical domains appears essential and function not in isolation but interdependently. Professional development, for example, was heightened by personal support through encouragement, through modeling of professional expertise, and by the active involvement and support of the principals.

The presence of all three apparently encouraged individuals to assume greater responsibility for improving themselves, instruction, and the general quality of everyday life at the site school. Principals began to support professional development since it enhanced the school's goals. Sensing this support, teachers readily responded to diverse problems (curriculum development, instructional improvement, participation in decision-making and faculty cohesiveness) that were blocking achievement of broader goals. Individuals appeared to grow closer together as they used their own as well as others' knowledge and skills to overcome problems.

This study also supports the importance of a change process which was a vital part of the model. Through time, individuals developed a closer understanding of each other and of the contributions each could make. The supervisor

had the opportunity to become an accepted member of the setting, to learn about its history and culture, to identify individuals challenged by change, and help them assume increasing responsibility. Change was therefore not externally imposed but rather emerged more gradually from relationships and perceived needs. Change was consequently supported.

This study moreover provides a glimpse of how a consultant approach might enable line-and-staff supervisors to tap the strengths of both the consultant and traditional positions in forging a new partnership with teachers. Immersion helped the consultant become an accepted member of this school community. As an "insider" he was able to acquire a more sensitive understanding of the site, to avoid the pitfalls of the school's inner politics, and share his specialized skill and knowledge. Viable relationships with principals afforded him and the group an additional base of authority.

Principals increased in their personal effectiveness as they gained additional professional insights. They enjoyed the benefit of the researcher's varied skills and objective viewpoint as they acquired a process for further developing the potential within the school.

The consultant gained in at least three ways from successes and mistakes. Convictions about the importance of teachers and principals having an available source of

professional insights and expertise were affirmed. A deep sense of satisfaction from helping educators improve the quality of everyday existence for themselves and students was a further result. Being a part of personal, professional, and organizational growth was exhilarating!

Errors and misperceptions taught some invaluable lessons. Personal acceptance and the development of professional credibility in a new setting is painfully slow. One can't count on them to occur readily; they emerge as individuals participate in mutual problem-solving. Developing internal leadership is also quite time-consuming, but rewarding. In the future, more extensive communications and involvement between the core group and the faculty should be sought to avoid suspicions and fears that arise from lack of direct information.

The field experience also enabled the consultant to improve his professional knowledge and performance. A specialization in language arts-social studies was broadened as a result of participation in the sciences. Interrelationships became more apparent.

This study offered a number of other insights regarding the model's operation. Consideration of them might be beneficial to supervisors and school systems contemplating adoption of the model.

Extensive communication between the core group and the general faculty is vital. The principal and the supervisor,

for example, could plan an early social event such as a cookout during the first four to six weeks so that the purpose of the core group could be explained at the outset. Such an event might provide a context for obtaining ideas and suggestions for identifying individuals who might wish to be included in the group. The consultant should not rely exclusively on small groups or individual conferences as communication vehicles. Every attempt should be made to keep the faculty continuously apprised regarding successes, failures, and recurring problems. Such difficulties might become vehicles for more extensive involvement and increased understanding of what is going on.

A core group constitutes a viable means for effecting change. Opportunities for recognizing members should be incorporated to enhance its effectiveness. Members of the core group might be invited to a central office staff meeting or university class to share their insights. They could also accompany the supervisor to a new site school to explain how the model functioned in their school. Earlier acceptance and greater credibility on the part of the new site faculty might be engendered from such efforts.

Although the core group was an effective strategy for this study, it may not be appropriate or effective for others. There is nothing "sacred" about this strategy. Core groups might be formed for specific purposes and then abandoned. Some individuals may choose not to participate

as a member. Consultants should consider core groups for the potential they may hold. Such strategies should not be considered as the panacea for change.

A comprehensive model could operate on a larger scale, for example, among several schools. A continuous exchange of talent, information, and insights could thereby be initiated, and each teacher might therefore become a contributing supervisor.

Conclusions

The model appeared to work, as anticipated. The data from this study support the view that a comprehensive model of supervision is a viable means of achieving the broad goals of supervision. Skills, talents, and expertise were released as individuals assumed leadership in improving themselves as well as their school. Control became increasingly inner-directed as participants assumed responsibility for change.

This model also appeared to constitute an effective means of initiating self-sustaining change as well as a vehicle for the continued personal and professional growth of career educators. Each component of the model made a significant contribution toward these outcomes.

The alternative consultant approach, consisting of a staff supervisor spending a concentrated time period in a school, provided a number of benefits. It provided the opportunity for principals, teachers, and the supervisor to

interact daily and develop common understandings. Trust emerged as participants worked together to address problems. This bond of trust encouraged individuals to acknowledge limitations and problems as well as offer suggestions and alternatives for improving themselves and the general school setting.

The consultant's expertise and talents became recognized and his suggestions and opinions actively sought as a result of this prolonged "residency." Individuals began to perceive his effectiveness and understand "where he was coming from." Participants also had opportunities to witness the supervisor's limitations, including his "falling on his face." Such episodes appeared to have increased a feeling of commonality and encouraged individuals to assume the risks inherent to change.

Since the consultant was at the school on a daily basis, he was able to offer participants the benefits of his fresh insights and professional skills on a continuing basis. His observations, support, and encouragement helped a core group to become aware of needed changes and assume responsibility for them.

Immersion also helped the consultant to gain a more sensitive understanding of the history and culture of the school as well as how individuals perceived change. This knowledge helped him implement a process that enlisted their involvement and support for change.

This process, incorporating many of Sarason's suggestions, gave individuals an opportunity to gain an understanding of the need for change and to assume an active role in directing its focus. Change was not externally imposed but emerged slowly through a series of phases sensitive to the socio-cultural patterns of this particular setting. Individuals became involved and developed ownership for change. Change was supported!

In effecting change, the consultant and the core group were guided by a holistic theoretical focus. They recognized that change could not be initiated successfully without considering, for example, the bureaucratic organization of schools. Individuals throughout the hierarchy were intentionally involved. This participation gave them opportunities to satisfy lower and higher level needs as they improved their own effectiveness in achieving goals which they had set. Each of these domains was present and all functioned together to produce an environment conducive to instructional improvement.

Each component -- the theory, the role, and the process -- provided a vital contribution. Together they constituted a potent means of effecting instructional improvement.

Recommendations Regarding Research and Practice

The anthropological research techniques were invaluable in acquiring insights about the model's operation. Using

them the researcher was able to gain a first-hand understanding of the site school, to identify individuals who would respond to change, and to provide assistance as they assumed greater leadership in effecting change.

The research strategies encouraged him to become accepted as a colleague. He was therefore able to gain data and insights not easily accessible to a traditional supervisor. The consultant gained "gut level" reactions, opinions, and suggestions. As an active participant, he was able to implement the model with a more sensitive understanding of the socio-cultural patterns within the school. As an observer, he was able to stand back, reflect, and modify daily strategies so that he could be responsive to that particular setting.

The ethnographic approach is therefore recommended as an effective method of gaining unique insights about educational and supervisory problems. Future researchers, using it, could learn much about the complexities of educational change. They could then focus on barriers to change -- what they are, how and why they develop, and how this model deals with some of them.

Other researchers might use this methodology to discover and critically analyze alternative roles in teaching and supervision. Future research could deal with questions such as these:

1. What other nontraditional roles can teachers and supervisors assume? (e.g., differentiated staffing, demonstration teachers)
2. What are the strengths and limitations of such roles?
3. What promise does a comprehensive model hold for the continuing professional development of career teachers, supervisors, and principals?

This study thus supports the viability of the anthropological methodology, Sarason's process for change, a unified theoretical focus, as well as the supervisory/consultant role. This researcher would therefore recommend that school systems seriously reconsider the practice of educational supervision, examining what it is and how it might be handled more effectively. School systems might encourage supervisory staffs to examine the talents and expertise that exist among them and develop alternative approaches that could be more personally satisfying and more responsive to the human, organizational, and professional needs of today's schools.

Implementing these alternatives will require redefinition of central office roles and commitment at all levels of the educational hierarchy. Collaborative decision-making, administrative support, extra time and financial resources would be necessary. Larger studies focusing upon these redefinitions as well as the replication of this study in

different contexts with other roles (such as principals) could enhance our understanding of supervision.

Another recommendation is in order. A comprehensive model is viable! It offers school systems a powerful alternative to traditional theory and practice. Even if a school system could not use all of the pieces of the model, using any part or any combination of parts would be a positive step towards improving the climate for instruction.

This study and the model that guided it serve as an example of the interplay between theory and practice. It appears that there is today an increasing lack of communication between supervisory theorists and practitioners, many of whom fail to see that good practice is based on sound theory and sound theory can become the basis for good practice. This model could serve as a catalyst for bringing about greater dialogue between these professional educators. The challenge awaits us!

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