1

The Changing Context of Supervision

Democracy can provide the direction, goals, purposes, and standards of conduct that our profession and society desperately need. Clinical supervision can provide the means of translating democratic values into action, while strengthening teachers’ teaching skills, conceptual understanding and moral commitment.

Pajak, 2000, p. 292

Note: Before you begin reading this chapter, please complete the questionnaire in Appendix 1-A, which begins on page 36.

Supervisory practice has evolved since its origins in colonial times, and its effectiveness as a means of improving instruction depends on the ability of educational leaders to remain responsive to the needs of teachers and students. An educational leader’s resolve to remain adaptable also depends on an appreciation of the changing and evolving nature of supervision, especially in the new millennium. An educational leader who understands the history of supervision and how current demands are influenced by that history will be better able to confront the technological, social, political, and moral issues of the day. Educational leaders also will have to develop the requisite knowledge, skills, and dispositions that are the foundation for effective supervisory practice. This chapter explicates how supervision has evolved to its current state, how you might respond to ever-increasing supervisory needs and demands, and how your beliefs and attitudes affect how you react to daily challenges.
SUPERVISION SITUATION

Arlene Spiotta was recently appointed vice principal of Regional Valley High School, where she has worked as a teacher for three years. An affable, popular teacher, Arlene had been a teacher at Westfield High School, located in a neighboring township, for eight years. Prior to that, she was a teacher for five years in two schools in another state. She recently earned her supervisory certification and master's degree in administration and supervision at a local college.

Although Arlene received a warm welcome on the opening day of school in September, she noticed that teachers on the grade levels she supervises react much differently to her now. In one instance, she was passing the room of a former teacher-colleague, Linda Evans, who at the time was at her desk, assisting a student. When Linda noticed Arlene looking into the classroom, she stiffened in her chair and abruptly sent the pupil back to his desk. After receiving a stern and cold stare, Arlene proceeded down the hallway to her office. Arlene wondered why her colleague Linda acted so differently when she saw her now.

REFLECTION

Why do you think Linda reacted to Arlene the way she did? What factor(s) may have contributed to this situation? What dilemma is she facing in her new role?

Arlene Spiotta took for granted the fact that she was now in a position very different from that of Linda Evans. Although they were former colleagues and friends, Arlene was now a supervisor. As a supervisor, she was expected to assist and evaluate her former colleagues.

Linda Evans, on seeing Arlene apparently staring into the classroom (an assumption, we might add, that may or may not have been accurate), reacted as she had previously to other supervisors for whom she had worked. Her former supervisors were overbearing bureaucrats who looked for evidence of teacher incompetence at every turn.

Arlene, too, may have been influenced by what she considered to be behavior “expected” of a supervisor; that is, daily patrol or inspection of the hallways. After all, not only had Arlene been certified and trained as a supervisor in a state that mandates that all teachers be formally observed at least twice a year (eight times for nontenured teachers), but as an experienced teacher (of how many years? Right, 16), she had been exposed to many supervisors who had conducted themselves in very autocratic and bureaucratic ways.
REFLECTION/MICROLAB

What are some examples of how supervisors might act in “very autocratic and bureaucratic ways”? How have your former supervisors shaped your conception of what supervision is all about? How have significant ideas, events, and people influenced or informed your current practice?

SOURCE: See Resource A for microlab guidelines. Set up an Internet discussion board and/or chat room through your school or university library to exchange reflections and hold electronic microlabs. Also, choose an e-mail partner and share reflections via e-mail between classes.

Had Arlene been cognizant of how past practices of supervision can affect current relationships between teachers and supervisors, she might have tried more earnestly to establish a spirit of mutual understanding and cooperation.

REFLECTION

How might Arlene establish this “spirit of mutual understanding and cooperation”?

One of the authors recalls a time when he confronted a similar situation and the difficulty he had in circumventing expected supervisory roles. An excerpt from Jeffrey’s diary is instructive:

My first appointment as an assistant principal was at P.S. “Anywhere, USA.” I arrived at the school in September. My predecessor’s reputation was there to greet me.

Mr. Stuart Oswald Blenheim was known as a stickler for every jot, tittle, and iota inscribed in the Board of Ed’s rules and regulations. He carried a tape measure, a portable tape recorder, and a stethoscope, and considered teachers to be one of the lower forms of sapient life. The others were nonprofessional staff members and students—in “descending” order.

This supervisor made his opinions abundantly clear by word and deed. Woe to the pupil caught wandering the halls without appropriate documentation. No excuses accepted. Period. End of message.

Furthermore, the offending miscreant’s pedagogue was called on the carpet; raked over the coals; strung up by the thumbs; and subjected to a wide variety of other abusive clichés.

Stuart Oswald was short; so short that it was difficult to see him among a group of eighth or ninth graders. He took full advantage of his camouflage, so that he could spy on his charges. He was known to walk
up quietly to a room, place his stethoscope to the door, and gradually straighten his knees and stand on his toes so as to see through the small glass window. Teachers were constantly on the lookout for a bald head rising in their doors’ windows.

Any teacher who observed this latter-day Napoleon lurking in the halls was honor-bound to pass the information on to his or her neighbors. A note referring to “Pearl Harbor,” “Incoming Scud Missiles,” “Sneak Attack,” or “Raid’s Here” was enough to raise blood pressure and churn digestive juices.

Last spring, he was appointed as principal in a school on the other side of the city.

Such was Blenheim’s repute that all the teachers whom I supervised avoided my presence like the very plague. On one occasion, I passed by a room and noticed a teacher caringly assisting a pupil at her desk. Suddenly, the teacher “felt” my presence, quickly straightened her posture, and proceeded nervously to the front of the room to resume writing on the board. I walked away bewildered. However, after ascertaining that I did not suffer from halitosis, dandruff, or terminal body odor, I realized the problem. Honestly, I couldn’t blame them. After all, Blenheim’s initials suited him perfectly.

Thus, I was forced to overcome these habits of fear and distrust and, somehow, to win my teachers’ and students’ trust.

During my first meeting with my teachers, I asked rather than told them not to think of me as their supervisor. I hoped that they would consider me a colleague with perhaps more experience and responsibility in certain areas. I wanted to work with them and learn about their own expertise, knowledge, interests, and ideas. . . . I was not going to spy on them. I was not going to humiliate them. I was a real human being, just like they were, just like the children were.

They had a difficult time accepting this. They had been abused for seven years by a petty tyrant and did not believe that any AP could think differently. After all, Blenheim had been rewarded for his fine methods. This had to be the AP road to promotion.

I promised that there would be no sneak attacks. We would do our best to cooperate and learn together. I would share my experiences and readily seek their expertise and ideas so that they could be effective teachers.

It took three to six months of hard work on my part and caution on theirs, but we’ve finally reached the point where we smile at each other when we meet in the hall. Several of them have come to me with professional and personal problems. They were a bit surprised at some of my proposed solutions. The word got around that Blenheim was really gone.

Stuart Oswald is, of course, a caricature of an autocratic supervisor who occupied the position Jeffrey Glanz assumed many years ago. Yet, the essential message is clear: Autocratic methods in supervision still prevail, and if changes
are to be made, then understanding the antecedents for such practices is necessary. To understand the changing context of supervision, a brief excursion into the history of supervision is necessary.

**THE VALUE OF HISTORY**

History can be understood as an attempt to study the events and ideas of the past that have shaped human experience over time; doing so informs current practice and helps us make more intelligent decisions for the future. How are prevailing practices and advocated theories connected to the past? How is what you currently do influenced, in any way, by previous practices and theories of supervision? How can an understanding of the past help us practice supervision today?

Our intention in this chapter is to indicate that past supervisory theory and practice influence what we believe about supervision and how we carry out our work with teachers and others. This chapter will help you identify your belief systems related to supervisory practice and how these beliefs are connected to the history of supervision. This identification will lay the initial foundation for the construction of a supervisory platform.

Guidelines for the creation of your own initial “personal vision statement” are a special feature of this chapter. As we indicate, what you believe about teaching and learning, for example, inevitably affects how you approach the practice of supervision. Subsequent chapters will encourage you to develop a “personal supervisory platform” that builds upon your personal vision statement.

**REFLECTION/MICROLAB**

*Who or what in your personal or professional background influenced your present supervisory beliefs? What are some positive supervisory experiences you have encountered? What are some negative supervisory experiences you recall? Why did you feel that way? What does supervision look like in your school?*

**Site Practice**

*Activity 1. The following exercise has been adapted from Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon (1998).*

1. Prepare five questions to ask two school supervisors about their beliefs and practices in relation to improvement of classroom instruction. Write a brief report including the questions and responses and your reflections on each supervisor’s answers. Describe consistencies and inconsistencies in the responses and compare the supervisors’ actual practices to the responses given. Do they “walk the talk”? Compare the
two supervisors’ responses and reflect on the similarities and differences between their answers.

or

2. Ask two supervisors and two teachers what they consider to be the five most important tasks of instructional supervision. Write a brief report including a script of their responses. Analyze each interview. Reflect on the differences and similarities in their answers. Compare the teachers’ responses with those of the supervisors and reflect on your findings. Do the supervisors “walk their talk”?

**Activity 2.** Shadow a supervisor of instruction for one day or on a few days when the supervisor is observing classes.

1. Provide a detailed log of the supervision of instruction that you observed. You may include any activities that you feel were related to supervision of instruction.

2. Describe the supervisory approaches and the process that the supervisor used.

3. What was effective in what you observed? Why? How will these effective practices improve classroom instruction? What did the teacher(s) learn?

4. Were there supervisory practices that need improvement? Why? What would you do differently?

5. What else do you think might help improve classroom instruction?

**Final reflections.**

**THE HISTORICAL CONTEXT**

Supervision has medieval Latin origins and was defined originally as “a process of perusing or scanning a text for errors or deviations from the original text” (Smyth, 1991, p. 30). Later recorded instances of the word *supervision* established the process as entailing “general management, direction, control, and oversight” (see, e.g., Grumet, 1979). An examination of early records during the colonial period indicates that the term *inspector* is referenced frequently. Note the definition of supervision in Boston in 1709:

Be there hereby established a committee of inspectors to visit ye School from time to time, when and as oft as they shall think fit, to Enform themselves of the methodes used in teaching of ye Schollars and to Inquire of their proficiency, and be present at the performance of some of their Exercises, the Master being before Notified of their Coming, And with him to consult and Advise of further Methods for ye Advance-ment of Learning and the Good Government of the Schoole.

*Reports of the Record Commissions of the City of Boston, 1709*
The inspectors were often ministers, selectmen, schoolmasters, and other distinguished citizens. Their methods of supervision stressed strict control and close inspection of school facilities. As Spears (1953) explained, “The early period of school supervision, from the colonization of America on down through at least the first half of the nineteenth century, was based on the idea of maintaining the existing standards of instruction, rather than on the idea of improving them” (p. 14).

American schooling, in general, during the better part of the 19th century, was rural, unbureaucratic, and in the hands of local authorities. The prototypical 19th-century school was a small one-room schoolhouse. Teachers were “young, poorly paid, and rarely educated beyond the elementary subjects”; teachers were “hired and supervised largely by local lay trustees, they were not members of a self-regulating profession” (Tyack & Hansot, 1982, p. 17). These local lay trustees (called ward boards) who supervised schools were not professionally trained or very much interested in the improvement of instruction (Button, 1961).

The tradition of lay supervision continued from the American Revolution through the middle of the 19th century or, as commonly referred to, the end of the common era. Despite the emergence during this period of a new “American system of educational thought and practice...the quality of supervision would not improve appreciably” (Tanner & Tanner, 1987, p. 10). With the advent of a district system of supervision and then state-controlled supervision beginning in the late 19th century, however, the character of supervision did, in fact, change dramatically.

**REFLECTION**

School supervision originally referred to a procedure in which someone would “examine” a teacher’s classroom “looking for errors.” What impact or significance, if any, does this original meaning or intention of supervision have for you as a supervisor today?

**Supervision in the Late Nineteenth Century**

In general, unprecedented growth precipitated by the industrial revolution characterized the second half of the 19th century. The expansion of American education, which had started in the days of Horace Mann, whom Tanner and Tanner (1987) characterized as the “first professional supervisor,” continued and assumed a new dimension in the latter decades of the 19th century. The schoolmen, specifically superintendents, began shaping schools in large cities into organized networks. Organization was the rallying cry nationally and locally. There was a firm belief that highly organized and efficient schools would meet the demands of a newly born industrialized age. That hierarchically organized public schools, as social institutions, would meet the crises and challenges that lay ahead was beyond doubt (Bullough, 1974; Cronin, 1973; Hammock, 1969; Kaestle, 1973; Lazerson, 1971).
The reform movement in education in the late 19th century was reflective of the larger, more encompassing changes that were occurring in society. Although rapid economic growth characterized the 19th century, reformers realized that there were serious problems in the nation’s schools. In the battle that ensued to reorganize the nation’s schools, sources of authority and responsibility in education were permanently transformed (Tyack, 1974). By the end of the 19th century, reformers concerned with undermining inefficiency and corruption transformed schools into streamlined, central administrative bureaucracies with superintendents as supervisors in charge. Supervision, during this struggle, became an important tool by which the superintendent legitimized his existence in the school system (Glanz, 1991). Supervision, therefore, was a function that superintendents performed to oversee schools more efficiently.

Supervision as inspection was the dominant method for administering schools. Payne (1875), author of the first published textbook on supervision, stated emphatically that teachers must be “held responsible” for work performed in the classroom and that the supervisor, as expert inspector, would “oversee” and ensure “harmony and efficiency” (p. 521). A prominent superintendent, James M. Greenwood (1888), stated emphatically that “very much of my time is devoted to visiting schools and inspecting the work.” Three years later, Greenwood (1891) again illustrated his idea of how supervision should be performed: The skilled superintendent, he said, should simply walk into the classroom and “judge from a compound sensation of the disease at work among the inmates” (p. 227). A review of the literature of the period indicates that Greenwood’s supervisory methods, which relied on inspection based on intuition rather than technical or scientific knowledge, were practiced widely.

Supervisors using inspectional practices did not view favorably the competency of most teachers. For instance, Balliet (1894), a superintendent from Massachusetts, insisted that there were only two types of teachers: the efficient and the inefficient. The only way to reform the schools, thought Balliet, was to “secure a competent superintendent; second, to let him ‘reform’ all the teachers who are incompetent and can be ‘reformed’; thirdly, to bury the dead” (pp. 437–438). Characteristic of the remedies applied to improve teaching was this suggestion: “Weak teachers should place themselves in such a position in the room that every pupil’s face may be seen without turning the head” (Fitzpatrick, 1893, p. 76). Teachers, for the most part, were seen by 19th century supervisors as inept. As Bolin and Panaritis (1992) explained, “Teachers (mostly female and disenfranchised) were seen as a bedraggled troop—incompetent and backward in outlook” (p. 33).

The practice of supervision by inspection was indeed compatible with the emerging bureaucratic school system, with its assumption that expertise was concentrated in the upper echelons of the hierarchy. Many teachers perceived supervision as inspectional, rather than a helping function.

Because supervision as inspection through visitation gained wide application in schools, it is the first model that characterizes early methods in supervision (see Table 1.1, Model 1).

Our brief examination of early methods of supervision indicates that (1) amid the upheavals of late 19th-century America, supervision emerged
as an important function performed by superintendents and (2) inspectional practices dominated supervision.

**REFLECTION/MICROLAB**

What vestiges of inspectional supervisory practices remain today? To what extent do you or others you know function as “inspectors”? How do you feel about that? Would you feel comfortable “inspecting” classrooms? Why or why not? Do certain conditions in your school/district exist that invoke an “inspectional mind-set”? Explain.

**The Emergence of the Distinct Position of Supervisor**

In the first two decades of the 20th century, schooling grew dramatically. As the size and complexity of schools increased, greater administrative specialization was readily apparent. Supervisors gained in stature and authority in the early 20th century. In addition to the building principal, a new cadre of administrative officers emerged to assume major responsibility for day-to-day classroom supervision. Two specific groups of supervisors commonly were found in schools in the early 20th century (see Table 1.1).

First, a *special supervisor*, most often female, was chosen by the building principal to help assist less experienced teachers in subject matter mastery. Special supervisors were relieved of some teaching responsibilities to allow time for these tasks, but no formal training was required. Larger schools, for example, had a number of special supervisors in each major subject area.

Second, a *general supervisor*, usually male, was selected to deal not only with more general subjects such as mathematics and science, but also to “assist” the principal in the more administrative, logistical operations of a school. The general supervisor, subsequently called *vice principal* or *assistant principal*, prepared attendance reports, collected data for evaluation purposes, and coordinated special school programs, among other administrative duties.

Differences in functions between special and general supervisors were reflective of prevalent 19th-century notions of male-female role relationships. William E. Chancellor (1904), a prominent 19th-century superintendent, remarked, “That men make better administrators I have already said. As a general proposition, women make the better special supervisors. They are more interested in details. They do not make as good general supervisors or assistant superintendents, however” (p. 210). Representative of the bias against women in the educational workplace were notions espoused by William H. Payne (1875): “Women cannot do man’s work in the schools” (p. 49). Payne, like many of his contemporaries, believed that men were better suited for the more prestigious and lucrative job opportunities in education.

It also interesting to note that teachers readily accepted special supervisors. Special supervisors played a very useful and helpful role by assisting teachers in practical areas of spelling, penmanship, and art, for example. In addition,
### Table 1.1  Timeline

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time Period</th>
<th>Pre-1900</th>
<th>1900-1919</th>
<th>1920s</th>
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| Social/cultural markers | 1880 Edison devises first electric light; Gilbert & Sullivan's *Pirate of Penzance*  
1890 Jacob Riis's *The Children of the Poor*; Vincent van Gogh dies  
1892 Walt Whitman dies; Gentleman Jim Corbett beats John L. Sullivan for heavyweight boxing title | 1900 First magnetic recorded sound; Addams's Hull House; McKinley assassinated  
1903 Ford Motor Company founded  
1906 San Francisco Earthquake (700 killed; cost 4,000,000 in damages)  
1912 Titanic sinks; Jim Thorpe (American Indian) won gold at Olympics  
1914-1915 First moving assembly line  
1917 Tolstoy dies; Stravinsky's *Firebird Concerto*; Dubois founds NAACP; World War I  
1918 Dewey's *Democracy and Education*  
1919 19th amendment ratified; Prohibition; Red scare (Palmer Raids) | 1921-1923 President Warren G. Harding  
1923 Babe Ruth sold to the NY Yankees by the Red Sox; Buber's *I & Thou*  
1923-1928 President Calvin Coolidge  
1924 Quotas set for immigrants in America  
1925 The Roaring 20s; Chaplin's *The Gold Rush*  
KKK very active during this period  
Amelia Earhart, first woman to fly the Atlantic Ocean  
1928-1932 President Herbert Hoover |
| Models of supervision | Supervision as inspection: Model 1  
Payne–Greenwood–Balliet | Supervision as social efficiency: Model 2  
Taylor–Bobbitt | Democracy in supervision: Model 3  
Dewey–Hosic–Newlon |
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<tr>
<th>1930-1950</th>
<th>1960s</th>
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<tr>
<td>1930 Grant Wood's <em>American Gothic</em></td>
<td>1960-1963 JFK President</td>
<td>Civil rights movement;</td>
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<td>1932 Roosevelt elected President</td>
<td>1961 Bay of Pigs</td>
<td>Martin Luther King and Stokely Carmichael</td>
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<td>1933 Hitler appointed German Chancellor</td>
<td>1962 Eleanor Roosevelt dies</td>
<td>Malcolm X</td>
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<td>1934 <em>Popular song Brother Can You Spare a Dime?</em>; the Depression;</td>
<td>1963 JFK assassinated by Lee Harvey Oswald</td>
<td>Black Panthers</td>
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<td>Einstein's <em>My Philosophy</em></td>
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<td>Cesar Chavez</td>
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<td>1935 Social Security Act; Wagner Act</td>
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<td>American Indians begin violent protests of 50% unemployment rate and life expectancy 2/3 that of whites</td>
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<td>1936 Carnegie's <em>How to Win Friends &amp; Influence People</em></td>
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<td>Hippie movement</td>
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<td>1939 John Steinbeck's <em>Grapes of Wrath</em>; Television debut; World Fair</td>
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<td>Marijuana sales soar</td>
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<td>1939-1945 World War II</td>
<td>1964 Cassius Clay—heavyweight champion; The Beatles;</td>
<td>Draft</td>
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<td>Dust Bowl</td>
<td>1964-1975 Vietnam War</td>
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<td>Golden age of mystery novel</td>
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<td>Roosevelt's <em>Fireside chats</em></td>
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<td>1941 Huxley's <em>Brave New World</em>; Lou Gehrig dies; Pearl Harbor; Penicillin; Rocky Graziano, Boxer of the Year</td>
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<td>1941-1944 Eisenhower commands troops in Europe</td>
<td>1965 Head start;</td>
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<td>1942-1946 Japanese sent to internment camps</td>
<td>Malcolm X assassinated</td>
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<td>1967 Thurgood Marshall appointed to Supreme Court</td>
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<td>RFK &amp; Martin Luther King assassinated</td>
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<td>1969 Mets—World Series Champs; Woodstock; Neil Armstrong walks on the moon</td>
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<td>Scientific supervision:</td>
<td>Supervision as leadership:</td>
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<td>Model 4</td>
<td>Model 5</td>
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<td>Burton–Barr–Stevens</td>
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<td><strong>1964-1975</strong> Vietnam War</td>
<td><strong>1992, 1996</strong> Clinton elected President</td>
<td><strong>2000</strong> Dot com collapse; stock market crisis begins</td>
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<td><strong>1971</strong> Apollo XIV launched; U.S. bombs North Vietnam</td>
<td><strong>1989-1990</strong> Collapse of Communism</td>
<td><strong>2001</strong> WTC and Pentagon attacks</td>
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<td><strong>1972</strong> Fischer beats Spaasky</td>
<td><strong>1991</strong> Bosnian genocide; Rodney King beating</td>
<td><strong>2002</strong> Gary Condit scandal; sniper shootings; Enron, Worldcom, and FBI scandals</td>
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<td><strong>1973</strong> Watergate; Agnew resigns; Abortion (Roe vs. Wade)</td>
<td><strong>1992</strong> Los Angeles riots; World Wide Web bom</td>
<td><strong>2003</strong> Space shuttle Columbia explodes</td>
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<td><strong>1974</strong> Nixon resigned</td>
<td><strong>1993</strong> Terrorist bombing of WTC garage</td>
<td><strong>2004</strong> Madrid terrorist bombings</td>
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<td><strong>1976</strong> Rozak’s <em>Making of a Counterculture</em>; Carter elected President</td>
<td><strong>1994</strong> Crises in Somalia, Bosnia, Yugoslavia</td>
<td>Iraq prison abuse scandal</td>
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<td><strong>1979</strong> Noble Prize—Mother Theresa</td>
<td><strong>1995</strong> OJ Simpson murder trial; Oklahoma City bombing—Timothy McVeigh</td>
<td><strong>50th anniversary of Brown v. Board of Education</strong></td>
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<td><strong>1979-1981</strong> Wayne Williams kills 23 black children</td>
<td><strong>1998</strong> Clinton impeached</td>
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<td><strong>1980</strong> Reagan elected President</td>
<td><strong>1999</strong> School shootings</td>
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<td><strong>1981</strong> Piaget dies; O’Conner—first female Supreme Court Justice; Hostages released after 444 days in Iran</td>
<td><strong>Tiananmen Square</strong></td>
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<td><strong>1985</strong> Crack introduced</td>
<td><strong>Rise of rap music</strong></td>
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<td><strong>1985-1990</strong> Cocaine addiction up 35%</td>
<td><strong>Proliferation of the Internet and Web access</strong></td>
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<td><strong>1986</strong> Challenger exploded</td>
<td><strong>Healthcare crisis</strong></td>
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<td><strong>1987</strong> Black Monday—Stock Market Crash</td>
<td><strong>Social security reform</strong></td>
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<td>“Just say no” campaign</td>
<td><strong>Gun control</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Booming economy</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Cellphones</strong></td>
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<td>Table 1.1 (Continued)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Clinical supervision: Model 6</td>
<td>Changing concepts: Model 7</td>
<td>Standard-based supervision: Model 8</td>
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<td>Goldhammer–Cogan</td>
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these special supervisors did not have any independent authority and did not serve in an evaluative capacity, as did, for example, the general supervisor, who was given authority, albeit limited, to evaluate instruction in the classroom. Therefore, teachers were not likely to be threatened by the appearance of a special supervisor in the classroom. General supervisors, on the other hand, were concerned with more administrative and evaluative matters and, consequently, were viewed by the classroom teachers as more menacing. Special supervisors also probably gained more acceptance by teachers, most of whom were female, because they too were female. General supervisors were almost exclusively male and perhaps were perceived differently as a result. Frank Spaulding (1955), in his analysis of this period of time, concurred and stated that general supervisors "were quite generally looked upon, not as helpers, but as critics bent on the discovery and revelation of teachers' weaknesses and failures, . . . they were dubbed Snoopervisors" (p. 130).

The position of the special supervisor did not, however, endure for a very long period in schools. General supervisors gradually usurped their duties and responsibilities. The relative obscurity of special supervisors after the early 1920s can be attributed to discrimination based on gender. As a group comprising an overwhelming number of females, special supervisors were not perceived in the same light as were general supervisors, principals, assistant superintendents, and superintendents, who were, of course, mostly male. Gender bias and the sexual division of labor in schools go far toward explaining the disappearance of the special supervisor as such. In short, general supervisors gained wider acceptance simply because they were men.

**REFLECTION**

How does gender affect your role and function as a supervisor today? Explain and provide an example.

**Supervision as Social Efficiency**

Numerous technological advances greatly influenced American education after 1900. As a result of the work of Frederick Winslow Taylor (1911), who published a book titled *The Principles of Scientific Management*, "efficiency" became the watchword of the day. Taylor's book stressed scientific management and efficiency in the workplace. The worker, according to Taylor, was merely a cog in the business machinery, and the main purpose of management was to promote the efficiency of the worker. Within a relatively short period of time, *Taylorism* and *efficiency* became household words and ultimately had a profound impact on administrative and supervisory practices in schools.

Franklin Bobbitt (1913), a professor at the University of Chicago, tried to apply the ideas that Taylor espoused to the “problems of educational
management and supervision” (p. 8). Bobbitt’s work, particularly his discussion of supervision, is significant because his ideas shaped the character and nature of supervision for many years. On the surface, these ideas appeared to advance professional supervision, but in reality they were the antithesis of professionalism. What Bobbitt called “scientific and professional supervisory methods” (page 9) were, in fact, scientistic and bureaucratic methods of supervision aimed not at professionalizing but at finding a legitimate and secure niche for control-oriented supervision within the school bureaucracy.

In 1913, Bobbitt published an article titled, “Some General Principles of Management Applied to the Problems of City-School Systems,” which presented 11 major principles of scientific management as applied to education. Bobbitt firmly held that management, direction, and supervision of schools were necessary to achieve “organizational goals.” Bobbitt maintained that supervision was an essential function “to coordinate school affairs. . . . Supervisory members must co-ordinate the labors of all, . . . find the best methods of work, and enforce the use of these methods on the part of the workers” (pp. 76, 78). The employment of scientific principles in supervision, said Bobbitt, is a necessity for the continued progress of the school system.

Many supervisors were eager to adopt Bobbitt’s ideas of scientific management for use in schools. However, a few did not readily accept his views. One of the more vociferous opponents of Bobbitt’s ideas was James Hosic (1924), a professor of education at Teachers College, Columbia University. Hosic contended that Bobbitt’s analogy was largely false:

Teaching cannot be ‘directed’ in the same way as bricklaying. . . . In education, the supervisor’s function is not to devise all plans and work out all standards and merely inform his co-workers as to what they are. . . . [The supervisor] should not so much give orders as hold conferences. . . . His prototype is not a captain, lieutenant, or officer of the guard in industry, but chairman of committee or consulting expert. (pp. 82-84)

Despite Hosic’s criticism, schoolmen of the day readily adopted the business model, as evidenced by William McAndrew (1922), who said about his role as supervisor in the school, “I am the captain of big business” (p. 91).

The criticisms against Bobbitt’s methods, nonetheless, accurately stressed a number of disturbing ideas. First and foremost was the ill-conceived notion that “education in a school” is analogous to “production in a factory.” Bobbitt claimed that “education is a shaping process as much as the manufacture of steel rails.” Supervisors in the early 20th century were becoming aware of the fallacy of this logic as well as realizing the negative effects of bureaucracy in education. Bobbitt’s “scientific management and supervision” found justification within a school organization that was bureaucratically organized.

Still, it remains clear that the significance of Bobbitt’s work was in his advocacy of scientific and professional supervisory methods. Supervisors thought that their work in schools would be more clearly defined and accepted by adopting Bobbitt’s principles of scientific management. Supervisors believed, as did
Bobbitt, that “the way to eliminate the personal element from administration and supervision is to introduce impersonal methods of scientific administration and supervision” (p. 7). This was often translated into rating schemes. In a short time, supervision became synonymous with teacher rating.

In sum, just as “supervision as inspection” reflected the emergence of bureaucracy in education, so too “supervision as social efficiency” was largely influenced by scientific management in education (see Table 1.1, Model 2). Supervision as social efficiency was compatible with and a natural consequence of bureaucracy in education.

REFLECTION

How do business practices affect schools today? How might these practices influence supervision? What is the difference between efficiency and effectiveness?

The Emergence of Democratic Methods in Supervision

Bureaucratic supervision, relying on inspecational methods and seeking efficiency above all else, dominated discourse in the field from 1870-1920. This sort of supervision attracted much criticism from teachers and others (Rousmaniere, 1992). Representative of the nature of this opposition were the comments of Sallie Hill (1918), a teacher speaking before the Department of Classroom Teachers, decrying supervisory methods of rating. Hill charged:

There is no democracy in our schools . . . . Here let me say that I do not want to give the impression that we are sensitive. No person who has remained a teacher for ten years can be sensitive. She is either dead or has gone into some other business . . . . There are too many supervisors with big salaries and undue rating powers. (p. 506)

The movement to alter supervisory theory and practice to more democratic and improvement foci, while at the same time minimizing the evaluative function, occurred in the 1920s as a direct result of growing opposition to autocratic supervisory methods (see Table 1.1, Model 3). Consequently, supervisors tried to change their image as “snoopervisors” by adopting alternate methods of supervision. The following poem, quoted in part, indicates the desired change of focus to more democratic methods in supervision:

With keenly peering eyes and snooping nose,
From room to room the Snoopervisor goes.
He notes each slip, each fault with lofty frown,
And on his rating card he writes it down:
His duty done, when he has brought to light,
The things the teachers do that are not right . . .
The supervisor enters quietly. “What do you need?
How can I help today?
John, let me show you. Mary, try this way.”
He aims to help, encourage and suggest.
That teachers, pupils all may do their best.

Anonymous, 1929

Influenced in large measure by Dewey’s (1929) theories of democratic and scientific thinking as well as by Hosic’s (1920) ideas of democratic supervision, supervisors attempted to apply scientific methods and cooperative problem-solving approaches to educational problems (Pajak, 2000). Hosic cautioned the supervisor to eschew his “autocratic past”: “The fact that he is invested for the time being with a good deal of delegated authority does not justify him in playing the autocrat. . . . To do so is neither humane, wise, nor expedient” (pp. 331, 332). Continuing to build a philosophic rationale for the supervisor’s involvement in “democratic pursuits,” Hosic explained that it was no longer viable to apply techniques of the past. Hosic believed, as did Dewey, that it was possible to reshape a school system that had originated with the idea of bureaucratic maintenance so that it would comply with the principles of democracy.

Democratic supervision, in particular, implied that educators, including teachers, curriculum specialists, and supervisors, would cooperate to improve instruction. Efforts by prominent superintendent Jesse Newlon reinforced democracy in supervision. In an article titled “Reorganizing City School Supervision,” Newlon (1923) asked, “How can the ends of supervision best be achieved?” He maintained that the school organization must be set up to “invite the participation of the teacher in the development of courses.” The ends of supervision could be realized when teacher and supervisor worked in a coordinated fashion. Newlon developed the idea of setting up “supervisory councils” to offer “genuine assistance” to teachers. In this way, he continued, “the teacher will be regarded as a fellow-worker rather than a mere cog in a big machine” (pp. 547–549). Participatory school management and supervision had their origins in the work of Newlon.

REFLECTION

What other factors do you think led to the emergence of democratic supervision during this era? What does democratic supervision mean to you?

Scientific Supervision

In the 1930s and 1940s, educators believed that autocratic supervisory practices were no longer viable. They urged more scientific approaches to supervisory practice in schools. The early attempts to apply science via rating cards were now losing favor. Burton (1930), a prolific writer in supervision, explained that the use of “rating schemes from our prescientific days, . . . would be wholly inadequate today.” Although Burton recognized the usefulness of
rating in some instances, he believed that “it is desirable and rapidly becoming possible to have more objectively determined items by means of which to evaluate the teacher’s procedure” (p. 405).

One of the foremost proponents of science in education and supervision was A. S. Barr (1931). He stated emphatically that the application of scientific principles “is a part of a general movement to place supervision on a professional basis.” Barr stated in precise terms what the supervisor needed to know:

Supervisors must have the ability to analyze teaching situations and to locate the probable causes for poor work with a certain degree of expertness; they must have the ability to use an array of data-gathering devices peculiar to the field of supervision itself; they must possess certain constructive skills for the development of new means, methods, and materials of instruction; they must know how teachers learn to teach; they must have the ability to teach teachers how to teach; and they must be able to evaluate. In short, they must possess training in both the science of instructing pupils and the science of instructing teachers. Both are included in the science of supervision. (pp. x, xi)

Barr said the supervisor should first formulate objectives, followed by measurement surveys to determine the instructional status of schools. Then, probable causes of poor work should be explored through the use of tests, rating scales, and observational instruments. The results of supervision, continued Barr, must be measured. Most important, according to Barr, the methods of science should be applied to the study and practice of supervision. More concretely, Barr (1925) asserted that a scientific analysis of teaching is a necessary part of the training of a supervisor: “How can the scientific knowledge of the teaching process be brought to bear upon the study and improvement of teaching?” Barr contended that teaching could be broken down into its component parts and that each part had to be studied scientifically. If good teaching procedures could be isolated, thought Barr, then specific standards could be established to guide the supervisor in judging the quality of instruction. He based his scientific approach to supervision “upon the success of the professional student of education in breaking up this complex mass into its innumerable elements and to study each objectively” (pp. 360, 363).

Throughout the 1930s, 1940s, and 1950s, the idea that supervision involves improving instruction based on classroom observation gained momentum. Supervision as a means of improving instruction through observation was reinforced by the use of “stenographic reports,” which were the brainchild of Romielt Stevens, a professor at Teachers College, Columbia University. Stevens thought that the best way to improve instruction was to record verbatim accounts of actual lessons “without criticism or comment.” Stevens’s stenographic accounts were “the first major systematic study of classroom behavior” (Hoetker & Ahlbrand, 1969).

Supervisors during this era advocated a scientific approach toward their work in schools (see Table 1.1, Model 4). Scientific supervision was considered to be distinct from social efficiency and entirely compatible with democratic
practices (Dewey, 1929). Burton and Brueckner (1955) claimed that “a few individuals still speak, write, and supervise as if science and democracy were antagonistic, or at least not easily combined. The truth is that each is necessary in an integrated theory and practice” (p. 82).

REFLECTION

Do you concur with Barr that teaching can be studied scientifically? How do you think stenographic reports were used? How could they be used today? How is teaching analyzed today?

Supervision as Leadership

Democratic and scientific supervision continued well into the 1950s. Democratic methods in supervision, however, clearly were expanded and clarified in the 1960s in the form of supervision as leadership (see Table 1.1, Model 5).

The political and social upheavals resulting from the urban plight, concerns for justice and equality, and antiwar sentiments dramatically affected education—and supervision, in particular. Virulent criticisms of educational practice and school bureaucracy were pervasive (e.g., Silberman’s Crisis in the Classroom, 1970). Educators also took a serious look at supervisory practices in schools. The legacy of supervision as inspection that found justification in the production-oriented, social efficiency era was no longer viable. Bureaucratic supervision was not viable either. A new vision for the function of supervision was framed.

The work most representative of the 1960s was undoubtedly the anthology of articles that originally appeared in Educational Leadership, compiled by then-Editor and Associate Director of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, Robert R. Leeper (1969). Leeper and the authors of this anthology maintained that supervisors must extend “democracy in their relationships with teachers” (p. 69). The way to accomplish this was to promulgate supervision as a leadership function.

Harris (1969) expressed the ideals of supervisory leadership this way:

The word leadership refers to showing the way and guiding the organization in definitive directions. New leadership is needed in this sense of the word. Two kinds are required:

1. Those in status positions must lead out with new boldness and find better ways of influencing the schools toward rationally planned, timed change.

2. New leadership positions must be created, and coordinated to facilitate the enormously complex job of leading instructional change. (p. 36)

Although issues of instructional leadership would not gain popularity for another 15 years, supervision as leadership essentially emerged in the 1960s.
The principal focus of supervision during this time was a concerted effort by those engaged in supervision to provide leadership in five ways: developing mutually acceptable goals, extending cooperative and democratic methods of supervision, improving classroom instruction, promoting research into educational problems, and promoting professional leadership.

**REFLECTION**

*What does instructional leadership mean to you?*

**Clinical Supervision**

Uncertainty plagued the field of supervision by the 1970s. Markowitz (1976) stated,

> The supervisor in the educational system is plagued by ambiguities. His or her position in the authority structure is ill-defined and quite often vulnerable. There is a lack of clarity in the definition of his or her role and a lack of agreement on the functions associated with supervision. (p. 367).

Alfonso, Firth, and Neville (1975) described this role ambiguity in terms of a “power limbo”; that is, supervisors are “neither line nor staff, neither administration nor faculty, but somewhere in between” (p. 342). Wilhelms (1969) concurred that supervision had witnessed tremendous change: “Roles are changing; staff organization is swirling; titles and functions are shifting,” said Wilhelms, “but whether his [sic] title is ‘principal,’ ‘supervisor,’ ‘curriculum coordinator,’ or what not, the person in a position of supervisory leadership is caught in the middle” (p. x).

Lacking focus, a sound conceptual base, and purpose, supervision explored alternative notions to guide theory and practice in the field. Efforts to reform supervision were reflective of a broader attempt to seek alternatives to traditional educational practice. Clinical supervision grew out of this dissatisfaction with traditional educational practice and supervisory methods. Goldhammer (1969), one of the early proponents of clinical supervision, stated that the model for clinical supervision was “motivated, primarily, by contemporary views of weaknesses that commonly exist in educational practice” (p. 1).

The premise of clinical supervision was that teaching could be improved by a prescribed, formal process of collaboration between teacher and supervisor. The literature of clinical supervision has been replete with concepts of collegiality, collaboration, assistance, and improvement of instruction. Bolin and Panaritis (1992) explained that clinical supervision “appealed to many educators” because of its “emphasis on ‘collegiality.’” The rhetoric of clinical supervision favored collaborative practice over inspectional, fault-finding supervision.

Clinical supervision, although advocated by professors and authors of textbooks, did not by any means gain wide acceptance in schools (see, e.g., Garman, 1997). Although clinical supervision received its share of criticism (e.g., Bolin & Panaritis, 1992; Tanner & Tanner, 1987), educators throughout the 1970s continued to argue that democratic methods of supervision should be extended and that vestiges of bureaucratic supervision should be excised. Supervision to improve instruction and promote pupil learning, instructional leadership, and democratic practices remained as prominent goals throughout the 1970s (see Table 1.1, Model 6).

**REFLECTION**

What are the chief characteristics of clinical supervision that distinguish it from other models of supervision? Have you ever used or been involved with clinical supervision? What obstacles might impede successful implementation of a clinical model in your school or district?

**“Changing Concepts” Model of Supervision**

During the early 1980s, public education continued to receive voluminous criticism for being bureaucratic and unresponsive to the needs of teachers, parents, and children (see, e.g., Johnson, 1990). One of the prominent proposals for disenfranchising bureaucracy was the dissolution of autocratic administrative practices where overbearing supervisors ruled by fiat. Favored was greater and more meaningful decision making at the grassroots level (Dunlap & Goldman, 1991). This idea translated into giving teachers more formal responsibility for setting school policies, thus enhancing democratic governance in schools (Glanz, 1992; Kirby, 1991). Johnson (1990) observed that “although schools have long been under the control of administrators, local districts are increasingly granting teachers more formal responsibility for setting school policies” (p. 337).

Criticism leveled at the educational bureaucracy has had consequences for school supervision (Firth & Eiken, 1982). Throughout this period, educators continued to consider alternative methods of supervision. In the early 1980s, developmental supervision, in which varied levels of teaching abilities were acknowledged, gained attention (Glickman, 1981). By the end of the decade, transformational leadership, which advocated that supervisors serve as change agents, became popular (e.g., Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990). Other writers advanced their notions of supervision as well (e.g., Bowers & Flinders, 1991).
Teacher empowerment (e.g., Darling-Hammond & Goodwin, 1993) gained attention as teachers became active participants in decision-making processes in schools. Pajak (2000) reviewed the literature on the “teacher as leader” during the previous five years. Peer supervision (e.g., Willerman, McNeely, & Koffman Cooper, 1991) appeared in the literature as an alternative to traditional supervision by “professionally trained supervisors,” as did cognitive coaching (Costa & Garmston, 1997). Other collegial and democratic supervisory methods continued to receive notice (e.g., Smyth, 1991).

The publication of Supervision in Transition (Glickman, 1992) by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development marked a refinement in the changing conception of supervision as a democratic enterprise. Glickman, editor of the yearbook, clearly set the tone by stating emphatically that the very term supervision connoted a distasteful, even “disgusting” metaphor for school improvement. Instead of using the words supervision or supervisor, educators, or what Glickman called “risk-taking practitioners,” were more comfortable with terms such as instructional leadership and instructional leader. The transition that Glickman and the authors of this comprehensive account of supervision envisioned was one that valued collegiality. Supervision, in the words of Sergiovanni (1992), was viewed as “professional and moral.”

Other models and conceptions of supervision emerged in an attempt to extend democratic methods and to disassociate from bureaucratic and inspectional supervision. Clinical, developmental, and transformational supervision, among other models, had a common bond in that they emerged to counter the ill effects of supervision’s bureaucratic legacy (see Table 1.1, Model 7).

REFLECTION/MICROLAB

From your experience, are collegiality and democratic supervision viable options for your school or district? Explain. Are you familiar with the implementation of any existing collegial or democratic processes? If so, which ones? How have staff and administration responded to them?

Standards-Based Supervision

Although the “changing concepts” model has had an impact on supervision in the 1990s, over the last several years, especially since the turn of the new century, supervisory practice has been shaped and influenced by the general movement toward standards-based reform. Standards-based reform has affected supervision so greatly that we have identified a new and current model of supervision that has and will in all likelihood continue to impact supervision as a field of study and practice. We call that model “Standards-Based Supervision” (see Table. 1.1).

Although they are not new, standards-based teaching and learning have influenced curriculum, supervision, and teacher education in significant ways.
Supervisors and those concerned with supervision have been particularly challenged in the last several years to implement supervisory practices that ensure the technical competence of teachers. Receiving strong political backing from both state and national agencies, standards-based supervision has, in some quarters, relegated supervisors to relying on checklists to ascertain the extent to which teachers are meeting various curricular and instructional objectives embedded in core curriculum standards at various grade levels. Such supervisory practices thwart meaningful supervision aimed at fostering closer collaboration and instructional dialogue to improve teaching and learning. Pajak (2000) points to the compatibility problem of trying to use standards-based supervision with clinical supervision. He warns, “If we fail to provide empathy-based supervision, the current standards-based environment will ultimately prove stultifying for both teachers and their students” (p. 241).

To best understand standards-based supervision, some background knowledge on standards-based reform is necessary. The national movement toward standards-based education, including high-stakes testing, has served to legitimize and bolster local reform proposals that have influenced supervisory practices. Raising standards and promoting uniformity of curricular offerings to raise academic achievement has been a long established reform proposal (Seguel, 1966). Present efforts at establishing national or state standards should be viewed within a historic context. The first significant attempt to improve and “modernize” the American curriculum occurred in the 1890s. The Committee of Ten issued its report in 1892 under the leadership of Charles W. Elliot, then the president of Harvard University. The committee sought to establish new curriculum standards for high school students. Standards were established to enable all students to receive a high quality academic curriculum (Kliebard, 1987).

Notwithstanding the lofty aims of this committee, it wasn’t until the establishment of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education that the school curriculum actually changed. The commission issued its report in 1918 and advocated a diversified curriculum that made allowances for a variety of curriculum “tracks” for the varied abilities of students. Known as the “Cardinal Principles of Education,” the findings of this commission endorsed a differentiated curriculum that emphasized, in part, the importance of vocational training for a large segment of students (Krug, 1964).

During the first half of the twentieth century, the College Entrance Examination Board (formed in the 1890s), the Scholastic Aptitude Test (the first SAT was administered in 1926), and the American College Testing Program (established in 1959) were the guardians of standards, as applied to the academic curriculum. As a result of the Russian launch of the first artificial satellite (Sputnik) in 1957, American education was attacked vociferously. Only months after the Sputnik launching, Congress passed the National Defense Education Act (NDEA), which poured millions of dollars into mathematics, sciences, and engineering. For several years following Sputnik, the postwar baby boom increased enrollments dramatically in high schools, and achievement scores in many academic areas also improved. Academic standards, up until this time, continued to be driven by levels of student achievement and assessed by national standardized tests (Ravitch, 1995).
By the mid-sixties, however, the American school curriculum shifted from an academic orientation to a nonacademic one. Prompted by political and social reforms, educational reformers reconsidered their long-standing emphasis on academic curriculum standards. The easing of high school graduation and college entrance requirements was just one of many effects of educational reforms during this tumultuous era. Yet, by the late 1970s, criticism of nonacademic curricula focused on declining SAT scores and what was perceived as a general lowering of standards. With the election of Ronald Reagan in 1980, an era of unprecedented educational reform, focusing on a conservative political and educational agenda, was about to begin.

With the publication of the National Commission on Excellence in Education’s 1983 report, *A Nation at Risk: The Imperative for Educational Reform*, attention was drawn to the assertion that schools had lowered their standards too much and that American students were not competitive with their international counterparts. The authors of this 1983 report were perturbed by the fact that American school children lagged behind students in other industrialized nations. The National Commission on Excellence in Education reported that among students from various industrialized nations, U.S. students scored lowest on 7 of 19 academic tests and failed to score first or second on any test. Similar results were reported by the Educational Testing Service (1992). Moreover, the study found that nearly 40% of U.S. 17-year-olds couldn’t perform tasks requiring higher-order thinking skills.

Pressure to improve the quality of American education by articulating concrete standards for performance increased. Consequently, a spate of national and state reports continued through the 1980s, each advocating fundamental educational change. Commitment to democratic ideals and the influence of public education was reinforced once again in 1986 with the publication of the report, sponsored by the Carnegie Foundation, *A Nation Prepared: Teachers for the 21st Century* (Carnegie Forum on Education and the Economy, 1986) and the Holmes Group (1986) report. The national curriculum reform movement was catapulted into prominence and action with the Education Summit held in 1989 by then-President George Bush and state governors. A year later, in his State of the Union Address, President Bush affirmed his commitment to excellence in education by establishing six national education goals to be achieved by the year 2000. Signed into law by Congress during the Clinton administration on March 31, 1994, *Goals 2000* proclaimed, in part, that by the year 2000 “U.S. students will be first in the world in science and mathematics achievement” and “Every school will be free of drugs and violence and will offer a disciplined environment conducive to learning” (http://www.nd.edu/~rbarger/www7/goals200.html).

The adoption of national goals has been a major impetus for the increased attention to standards at the state level. In 1991, the U.S. Congress established the National Council on Educational Standards and Testing (NCEST), which encouraged educators and politicians to translate somewhat vague national goals into content curriculum standards. NCEST recommended that educators establish specific standards in specific subject areas. The National Council of Teachers of Mathematics (NCTM) led the way by publishing standards that
quickly influenced textbook companies and testing agencies. These national curriculum reforms inevitably affected state educational reforms. More than 40 states have revised their curricula to reflect the standards they established.

Continuing in the tradition of standards-based education, President George W. Bush signed into law the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, a reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act Legislation of 1965. The purpose of the new legislation was to redefine the federal role in K–12 education and to help raise student achievement, especially for disadvantaged and minority students. Four basic principles were evident: stronger accountability for results, increased flexibility and local control, expanded options for parents, and an emphasis on teaching methods that presumably have been proven to work.

What can the history of standards-based education teach us about the practice of supervision? Pajak (2000) maintains that the “use of clinical supervision in standards-based environments is so recent that no clear consensus has yet emerged about whether this marriage is either desirable or successful” (p. 238). Our experiences and view of what is happening in the field tell us that a clear consensus is indeed apparent. The movement of standards-based education is indeed shaping supervisory practice by frequently compelling supervisors to incorporate a checklist approach to supervision. The pressure practitioners face to raise student achievement as measured on high-stakes tests is enormous. Principals and assistant principals are more accountable than ever to address prescribed core curriculum standards, promote teaching to the standards, and ensure higher student academic performance on standardized tests. Consequently, those concerned with supervision have been more inclined to incorporate supervisory practices that are a throwback to the 1930s, 1940s, and 1950s (Table 1.1, Model 4). Directive approaches of supervision find justification within a standards-based educational milieu.

UNDERSTANDING THE HISTORY OF SUPERVISION

Historically, the function and conception of supervision have changed. The earliest notions of supervision addressed the need for selectmen, committees, or clergymen to inspect the physical plant of schools and to ensure that children were receiving instruction as required by law. The legacy of inspectional supervision from the colonial period continued into the late 19th century as supervision became little more than an inspectional function local and city superintendents performed attempting to bureaucratize urban education. In the early 1900s, supervision-as-bureaucratic-inspection was reinforced and strengthened as “social efficiency” became the watchword. Influenced by social and economic forces as well as by opposition to inspectional bureaucratic methods, supervision in the 1920s and 1930s embraced democratic theory; this trend would continue throughout the century, albeit in different forms.

What can we learn from this excursion into history? For some theorists and practitioners, a lesson learned is that authoritarian supervision aimed at
fault-finding and suspecting the competence of teachers should not be compatible with the modern practice of supervision. Some view the evolution of the practice of supervision as a progression from crude, unsophisticated bureaucratic inspectional approaches to more refined democratic participatory techniques and methodologies (see Figure 1.1).

**REFLECTION**

Do vestiges of bureaucratic inspectional supervisory approaches remain in your school or district? Explain. How would you characterize your supervisory approach? Use Figure 1.1 as a reference point.

![Figure 1.1 Approaches to supervision](image)

For some theorists and practitioners, the legacy of inspectional supervision lives on in the form of evaluation. Democratic supervision is viewed as helping teachers improve instruction, whereas bureaucratic supervision is associated with accountability and judgments about teachers’ efficiency. This conflict between the helping and evaluative functions of supervision is long-standing. Tanner and Tanner (1987) asserted that this dilemma presents an almost insurmountable problem for supervisors: “The basic conflict between these functions is probably the most serious and, up until now, unresolved problem in the field of supervision” (p. 106).

Historically, the evaluative function of supervision is rooted in bureaucratic inspectional-type supervision. Maintaining an efficient and effective school organization as well as a sound instructional program mandates that teacher competency be evaluated. In other words, the evaluative aspect of the supervisory function emanates from organizational requirements to measure and assess teaching effectiveness. The origins of the helping or improvement function of supervision date back to democratic practices in the early 20th century. In other words, helping teachers improve instruction and promote pupil achievement grew out of the democratic theory of supervision.

Supervisors or people concerned with supervision, however, have faced a basic role conflict: namely, the unresolved dilemma between the necessity to
evaluate (a bureaucratic function) and the desire to genuinely assist teachers in the instructional process (a democratic and professional goal).

Catherine Marshall (1992), in a comprehensive study of assistant principals, described such role conflicts:

An assistant principal might be required to help teachers develop coordinated curricula—a “teacher support” function. But this function conflicts with the monitoring, supervising, and evaluating functions. . . . The assistant may be working with a teacher as a colleague in one meeting and, perhaps one hour later, the same assistant may be meeting to chastise the same teacher for noncompliance with the district’s new homework policy. . . . When they must monitor teachers’ compliance, assistants have difficulty maintaining equal collegial and professional relationships with them. (pp. 6–7)

The field of supervision has attempted to resolve this basic conflict between evaluation and improvement (e.g., Hazi, 1994; Poole, 1994; Tsui, 1995). It clearly is evident throughout the history of supervision that efforts have been made to extricate supervision from its bureaucratic heritage. Nonetheless, advances in theory are not necessarily reflected in practice. Many, if not most studies still conclude that teachers do not find supervision helpful (Zepeda & Ponticell, 1998).

REFLECTION

What experiences have you had with the dilemma of evaluation versus improvement of instruction? (Give examples.) Describe how you have attempted to resolve this dilemma.

IMPLICATIONS FOR THE PRACTICE OF SUPERVISION

Present Context and Future Necessities

For most of the 20th century, schools retained features of the factory organizational model, a legacy of 19th-century industrial society. Schools relied on hierarchical supervisory control and representative democracy. We are now, however, undergoing major societal transformations into a postindustrial era (Ambrose & Cohen, 1997) characterized “by exponential information growth, fast-paced innovation, organizational change, and participatory democracy” (p. 20). As a result of these technological, political, economic, and social changes, schools (teachers and supervisors) are “being called on today to rethink and restructure how schools operate and how teachers relate to students. . . . We sorely need new ways of thinking about educational supervision and leadership” (Pajak, 1993, p. 159).
Attempts to restructure schools, classrooms, and practices (both teaching and supervisory) abound (see, e.g., Murphy & Hallinger, 1993). Over the past several years, alternative models or approaches to school and instructional improvement and teacher evaluation have gained prominence. Among these innovative ideas are site-based management, union-sponsored peer coaching, professional partnerships, reflective practice, and teacher self-evaluation. Based on our brief discussion of the history of supervision in this chapter, these innovations can be seen as ways to extend participatory democracy in supervision.

The changing context of supervision necessitates that both prospective and practicing supervisors remain responsive to unprecedented demands and opportunities. Supervisors will need specialized knowledge and skills to meet organizational challenges in the 21st century. They will need to base their practice of supervision on a foundation of dispositions and beliefs. Supervisors will have to place a premium on initiative, flexibility, tolerance for ambiguity, collaboration, and an ethical mind-set. In the future, supervisors will be expected more and more to be collaborative and assist teachers in reflecting about classroom instruction in meaningful ways.

**REFLECTION**

What challenges do you anticipate in your professional environment? Explain.

**What Is Supervision?**

Defining supervision has been a source of much debate for years (Bolin, 1987). Is supervision a function of administration, curriculum, staff development, action research, or a combination of these and other activities? Alfonso and Firth (1990) noted that the study of supervision lacks focus largely due to the “lack of research and continuing disagreement on the definition and purposes of supervision” (p. 188). In this volume, we view supervision as the center for the improvement of instruction. Supervision is the process of engaging teachers in instructional dialogue for the purpose of improving teaching and increasing student achievement. We believe that supervision for the improvement of instruction will continue to be the foremost concern of supervisors and other educational leaders well into the 21st century.

**REFLECTION/MICROLAB**

At this juncture, how would you define supervision? Do you believe that supervision is solely about assisting teachers in instructional improvement? If so, how can this be accomplished? Explain.

As we saw earlier in this chapter, with a firmly entrenched bureaucratic heritage, people have tried to reshape the image of supervision into a democratic
enterprise aimed at instructional improvement. We maintain that your ability to facilitate teaching and learning depends as much on your belief system, because it requires knowledge and skills about instructional improvement. Much of this book is devoted to knowledge and skill development. The remainder of this chapter, however, is aimed at indicating how your beliefs might affect your response to daily instructional challenges. Are you more inclined to conceive of supervision as an inspectional, bureaucratic process, are you genuinely more concerned with developing collaborative relationships with teachers in an effort to improve instruction, or are you inclined to follow a path somewhere in the middle?

We make a bold assertion in this chapter: Bureaucratic inspectional supervision should have no place in schools in the 21st century. We must prepare supervisors who truly espouse participatory democratic values. We have found that some supervisors espouse collaboration when, in practice, they operate in rather autocratic ways. These supervisors are probably influenced very much by the traditional conceptions of supervision described earlier.

Supervision Situations

Dr. William Jones believes that teachers need close scrutiny. “Many of the new teachers,” explains Jones, “are generally weak. They have just been certified and need close supervision.” He continues, “In fact, even experienced teachers continually need the guidance of an expert who can provide the needed instructional and managerial assistance.”

Other supervisors are genuinely interested in working with teachers collaboratively, as evidenced by Elizabeth Gonzalez, a vice principal in Elmsville Elementary School, a suburban district in the Midwest:

Elizabeth Gonzalez believes in forging collaborative relationships with teacher professionals. “I think that every teacher should develop a unique style of teaching that is right for her or him,” explains Gonzalez. “As a supervisor, I am really most effective as facilitator and guide, rather than an overseer.”

Why does William Jones rely only on inspectional practices, yet Elizabeth Gonzalez acts in a much more collaborative way? We believe that each of these supervisors operates from a different belief system that inevitably affects how he or she approaches supervisory responsibilities.

REFLECTION

How do you think your belief system impacts the way you view and perform supervision? Explain.
ASSESSING BELIEF SYSTEMS

The bureaucratic model of schooling is based on what we believe are erroneous assumptions about how people work together most efficiently in schools. There is a growing awareness that the key to successfully shifting to a collaborative educational paradigm is dependent on the degree to which we alter our thinking patterns, belief systems, and mind-sets, or as Sergiovanni calls them, "mindscapes" (Sergiovanni, 1992, p. 41). Our belief systems are intimately connected to the language we use to articulate and communicate meanings. The needed transformation in education requires a realignment of educational phraseology with an entirely different set of definitions, meanings, and purposes. For example, a reexamination of the metaphors we use is essential. Using supervision or reflective coaching not only clearly indicates "where we’re coming from,” but also defines human interactions in the workplace.

Yet, a caveat about beliefs and actions or behaviors is in order. Reflective practice (see Osterman & Kottkamp, 2004) posits that our actions often are inconsistent with our intentions (or beliefs) and that new ideas do not necessarily lead to new behaviors. Espoused theories represent our conscious ideas, intentions, and beliefs. Following exposure to new ideas in graduate courses and workshops, we often believe that this information and the beliefs acquired through experience and formal education will guide our actions. Espoused theories, however, do not influence behavior directly. How many times have you thought after a leader’s speech, “Why doesn’t he or she practice what he or she preaches?” How many impressive workshops have we all attended with the best of intentions to implement our new knowledge, only to return to our old practices? How many supervisors preach active learning for all students and then conduct a postobservation conference where they tell the teacher everything he or she must do without even thinking of asking for the teacher’s input?

Although we may consciously adopt new ideas, these action theories are ingrained so deeply in our consciousness that we cannot change them easily. Theories-in-use build and crystallize over a long period of time and become such an integral part of our beings that we are unaware of the discrepancies between our beliefs and actions or between our actions and intended outcomes. Actual change in our behaviors will take place only when we become aware of the discrepancy between a predominant theory-in-use and an unacceptable practice or outcome. Figure 1.2 shows how theories-in-use directly impact behavior. Espoused theories do not directly influence behavior and may or may not be consistent with theories-in-use.

Nonetheless we believe that it is essential to articulate our espoused theories in the form of vision statements. It is, however, through the use of reflective practice (which is presented in more detail in Chapter 2) that the new ideas we will be learning in this book and the beliefs we will develop will become theories-in-use.

Philosophy at least indirectly influences actions, which in turn affect behavior. How we think shapes the world in which we live. Our values and beliefs shape the kinds of experiences, for example, we want young children to
have in classrooms. They also affect what adults do in schools and define role relationships among members of a school system. If our attitudes about how best to organize large groups of people focus on hierarchical notions of differentiation and classification, then we will tend to conceptualize supervision, for example, as didactic and evaluative. Conversely, if our view of school management stresses collaboration and shared leadership, we will not be willing to construct an educational environment where disempowered individuals become spectators of, rather than participants in, their own work. This worldview will define supervision as collegial and interactive.

**REFLECTION**

*Compose a list of your beliefs about teaching and learning, about teachers, about supervision, and about yourself. Share ideas with a colleague. How does your philosophy influence your approach to supervision with respect to engaging teachers in dialogue about instructional improvement? Explain.*
Supervisory Beliefs Questionnaire

What are the qualities or dispositions we want future supervisors to possess? Are you willing and able to meet new supervisory challenges in the 21st century? The questionnaire in Appendix 1-A is designed to help you sort out your beliefs. More specifically, the survey is designed to assess your preference to function along the bureaucratic, inspectional, democratic, collegial continuum. You should have completed this questionnaire before you read this chapter. Make sure you retake the questionnaire at the end of the book to assess whether any of your beliefs have changed.

Interpreting Answers to the Questionnaire

Warning: If you have not taken the questionnaire, see Appendix 1-A.

The following responses to each statement indicate that your supervisory preferences or inclinations operate along bureaucratic, authoritarian lines:


The following responses to each statement indicate that your supervisory preferences or inclinations operate along democratic, collaborative lines:


As we stated earlier, bureaucratic inspectional supervision should have no place in schools in the 21st century. For the future, we must prepare supervisors who truly espouse and practice participatory democratic values. Supervision that assumes that supervisors are experts and superior to teachers represents vestiges of control-oriented, inspectional practices. Although these kinds of practices were prevalent in early supervision, we argue that they should no longer be accorded attention.

(In the ensuing discussion, statement numbers refer to the questionnaire in Appendix 1-A.)

Bureaucratic thought essentially suggests that

- Supervision is inspectional (Statements 1 and 14)
- Hierarchy is necessary for organizational efficiency (Statements 5 and 6)
- Supervisors are experts and teachers are not (Statements 12, 18, 27, 29, 37, and 40)
- Teachers and supervisors are not equal partners (Statement 7)
- Teachers will not improve instruction on their own (Statements 16 and 33)
That hierarchy equals expertise and supervisors know more than teachers is axiomatic according to the bureaucratic belief system. Furthermore, the following assumptions that, at first glance, might appear unproblematic also represent bureaucratic conceptions of supervision:

- Supervision is primarily about helping teachers improve instruction (Statements 8 and 9). This belief subtly implies that teachers are deficient, need help, and could not or would not seek improvement on their own.
- Supervisors help teachers change, as if teachers are deficient and necessarily need to change (Statements 15, 23, and 35). This belief implies that something is wrong with a teacher’s teaching.
- Teachers at low levels need assistance (Statement 2). This belief implies that supervisors can identify with certainty that a teacher is deficient. It also implies that supervisors should help teachers because they cannot improve through collaboration or self-reflection.
- Supervisors are agents of improved instruction (Statement 21). This belief implies that supervisors, not teachers, are agents of improved instruction.

The aforementioned conceptions of supervision underscore the superordinate-subordinate relationship between teachers and supervisors. Bureaucratic conceptions of supervision imply that teachers don’t know as much about teaching as do supervisors and, conversely, that supervisors possess greater teaching expertise than do teachers.

**REFLECTION**

*In your experience, is it true that teachers don’t know as much about teaching as do supervisors and that supervisors possess greater teaching expertise than do teachers? Provide an example.*

Democratic thought essentially suggests that

- Teaching is complex and not easily defined or understood (Statements 3 and 17)
- Individuals are more important than the organizations (Statements 4 and 32)
- Most teachers are self-directed, responsible, and competent (Statements 10, 11, 19, 20, 28, 30, 31, and 39)
- Supervision is a truly collaborative process (Statements 13, 34, 36, and 38)
- Qualitative approaches to classroom improvement are just as valid as quantitative ones (Statements 22 and 24)
- Alternative approaches to traditional supervision are viable (Statement 25)
- Supervisors function at their best when they pose questions for critical analysis by teachers (Statement 26)
The aforementioned conceptions of supervision underscore the empowering nature of supervisor-teacher relationships. Teachers and supervisors work as collaborative inquirers for the benefit of students. The telling-and-prescribing nature of traditional supervision has no place in such a paradigm for school improvement.

**Developing a Personal Vision Statement**

Examining your beliefs about supervision and related areas is crucial if you are to function effectively as a supervisor in the 21st century. We think that developing a personal vision statement that articulates your beliefs about teachers and supervision is critical (Osterman & Kottkamp, 1993). This section challenges you to begin this process, which will be refined continually throughout this book. Now that we understand how supervision has evolved and realize that our beliefs are influenced, in part, by that history, our challenge will be to construct a personal supervisory vision statement that supports the view that supervision remains a potent process for facilitating instructional improvement.

What are your beliefs about teaching and learning, about teachers, about supervision, and about yourselves as supervisors?

In courses that we teach, we expect our prospective supervisors to develop such a vision statement. We, of course, review the contents of this chapter with them and have them take and interpret the Beliefs About Supervision questionnaire. We also expose them to other theories and surveys that help them to uncover their often hidden assumptions about supervisory work.4

Although we advocate a participatory democratic orientation to supervision, we believe that traditional types of supervision such as directive informational approaches (see Chapter 2) are useful. These practices should be employed with teachers who need substantial support. Use of this form of directive informational supervision “does not necessarily mean that the supervisor acts in an authoritative or arbitrary fashion” (Daresh & Playko, 1995, p. 333). Offering some direct assistance to teachers in need is necessary only when the situation calls for it. In our questionnaire, Statement 2 is indicative of a generalization often made by supervisors without input and agreement from other parties, including perhaps lead teachers. Therefore, this book does include one traditional, directive approach that should be used judiciously.

Let’s begin to develop your personal vision statement. This vision statement is a personal statement that allows you to present your views regarding education and educational administration, your philosophy, your values, your beliefs, your vision of the way schools should be, and your view about what you as a school leader would do to realize this vision. In short, the vision statement that will lead to a supervisory platform is a way for you to say what you stand for as an educational leader.

Appendix 1-B lists four areas that you will want to address in your statement and questions that may stimulate your thinking. We include questions based on the Educational Leadership Constituent Council (ELCC) standards that can also help frame your statement. Where possible,
• support your ideas with examples and theories from the literature on leadership.
• use examples that have inspired or influenced you.

Please remember that this activity is intended to help you articulate your own personal feelings and ideas. It is not a test of what you know, and there are no right answers.

Appendix 1-C presents three sample vision statements developed by our students that you can use as a guide to inspire you in developing your own. These statements vary in length and style as well as content. Two pages may suffice to elucidate one person’s ideas, whereas another may require 10. These differences illustrate the idiosyncratic and essentially personal nature of visioning.

**Class Practice**

Bring three copies of the first draft of your vision statement to class. In groups of three, read each others’ vision statements, one at a time. Provide descriptive feedback to the authors. The purpose of descriptive feedback, as differentiated from evaluative or prescriptive feedback, is to provide the reader with a deeper understanding of the ideas expressed in the vision statement (Osterman & Kottkamp, 1993). The following strategies will help avoid the prescription/evaluation trap:

• Note logical consistencies and inconsistencies among the sections of the draft
• Identify underlying assumptions
• Take notes on the writer’s perspective and value orientation to clarify your own positions and values

Realize, of course, that as you share your statements with others, revisions are inevitable. Incorporate your colleagues’ feedback and further reflections into your revisions. We have found that we can test our vision statements through simulated role plays (Osterman & Kottkamp, 1993, pp. 95–99). In these situations, we provide students with realistic situations or case studies and have them role-play. The following section outlines three examples.

**Examples of Supervisory Situations**

In each of the following situations, put yourself into the role of a supervisor who makes sense to you in your particular situation. It may be the role of building principal or assistant principal, department chairperson, or some other kind of district supervisor. Write down what you hope to accomplish in the role play. The class can divide into pairs, or volunteers can present each scenario. On completion of the role play, you reveal your intentions by reading your planning notes and share what you think you have achieved. The supervisee then describes how he or she felt, tells what he or she is going to do as a result of the interchange, and reflects on his or her perceptions of the supervisor’s perspective.
1. You have been invited into Mrs. Sanchez’s classroom to observe a high school social studies lesson on censorship in the media. You’ve spent 40 minutes observing the lesson and taking detailed descriptive data. At the postconference, Mrs. Sanchez feels the lesson was great. You have some reservations, however.

2. You are new to your supervisory position, and teachers are eager to find out more about you. At a grade or faculty conference, you are introduced to the faculty, at which time you make a 2-minute introductory statement. After the meeting, several teachers warmly welcome you to the school, but two teachers in particular inform you that your “lofty” ideas will fail “in our school.”

3. A teacher has been late to school and to homeroom. The situation first came to your attention when you observed students standing by the classroom doorway after the last bell had rung. You questioned the students and discovered that there was a pattern to the teacher’s late arrival. You have left a note in the teacher’s mailbox requesting that he or she see you after school. In the current situation, the teacher has just arrived.

**REFLECTION**

*How did you feel about the way you responded to these situations? How did your personal vision statement stand up to the feedback you received? How do you think you might revise your statement? What aspects of the statement made the most sense for you and the least sense to you? Explain.*

**CONCLUSION**

The supervisory landscape has evolved since the early inspectional practices of supervisors in the 19th and early 20th centuries. Supervision in a postindustrial society requires a new breed of supervisor, one who advocates and affirms participatory democratic practices. Who are these supervisors? What kind of supervisors do we want to attract into the field? Are you more inclined to encourage teachers in ongoing, meaningful dialogue about instructional improvement, or do you feel more comfortable suggesting to teachers ways to improve their teaching?

We have suggested in this chapter that supervision in postindustrial times requires that supervisors develop a personal vision statement so that they begin to consciously affirm their beliefs about teaching and supervision. Such reflective practice is a powerful way to enhance professional development.

Confronted by complex and seemingly perplexing social, political, technological, and moral issues, educational supervisors, perhaps more than ever before, play a crucial role in developing sound educational programming that is both educative and meaningfully relevant. Considering these awesome and
challenging responsibilities, we believe educational supervision can play a vital role in promoting excellent instruction.

APPENDIX 1-A

Questionnaire Beliefs About Supervision

Please answer true (T) or false (F) to each of the following statements. Be honest: Answer true if the statement generally describes a belief you once held or currently hold. If a statement represents a belief that holds true in most situations, although not in all, answer true. Answer false if the statement in no way describes a belief you once held or currently hold. If a statement represents a belief that is false in most situations, although not in all, answer false. There is no need to share your responses with anyone.

T F 1. When it comes down to it, supervision, as I conceive of it, is essentially about looking for errors.
T F 2. Guided directed approaches to supervision are most appropriate for teachers at low levels of personal and professional development.
T F 3. Teaching is a highly complex, context-specific, interactive activity.
T F 4. Organizational concerns are almost always secondary to individual needs.
T F 5. The supervisor’s position in the hierarchy, as compared to the teachers’, is unproblematic.
T F 6. Hierarchy of offices is necessary for organizational efficiency.
T F 7. I am not comfortable participating with teachers as partners.
T F 8. Supervision is about offering teachers specialized help in improving instruction.
T F 9. Supervision is about examining and analyzing classroom teaching behaviors so that recommendations can be made with regard to the course of action teachers should take instructionally.
T F 10. Teachers can help supervisors improve their performance.
T F 11. Most teachers are self-directed.
T F 12. Supervisors should be expert diagnosticians.
T F 13. Supervision is primarily a collaborative process in which teachers and supervisors talk about ways to improve instruction.
T F 14. Supervision is about looking for errors and then engaging teachers in dialogue so that they realize these deficiencies on their own.
T F 15. The focus of supervision should be about helping teachers change and improve instruction.
T F 16. Without assistance, teachers generally will not make changes.
T F 17. Reality in classrooms is essentially subjective, not objective, and teaching is a complex endeavor that requires continual study.
T F 18. Although supervisor-teacher collaboration is important, a supervisor’s judgment must ultimately hold sway.
T F 19. Schools are centers of inquiry in which teachers themselves must assume responsibility for instructional excellence.
T F 20. Teacher self-evaluation plays a prominent role in instructional improvement.
T F 21. The supervisor is the agent of improved instruction.
T F 22. Qualitative approaches to instructional improvement are just as valid as quantitative approaches.
T F 23. Supervisors help teachers change.
T F 24. Reflective dialogue is an integral component of supervision.
T F 25. Instructional improvement activities include peer coaching, action research projects, and problem-solving groups, as well as more traditional development activities.
T F 26. Supervision is primarily about asking questions that facilitate the examination of teacher practice in the classroom.
T F 27. When I offer teachers constructive criticisms, I expect they will consider them carefully.
T F 28. Experienced, high-functioning teachers should have complete control over their professional development.
T F 29. The supervisor ultimately should determine what and how a teacher should teach.
T F 30. Teachers should be encouraged to carry out their own educational goals and curricular decisions.
T F 31. Teachers should be given options on how they want to teach.
T F 32. Teachers should disobey official regulations if they feel that they interfere with the welfare of students.
T F 33. Teachers don’t spend enough time thinking about ways to improve instruction.
T F 34. Supervisors should create opportunities for teachers to make professional and personal choices, not shape their behavior.
T F 35. Supervisors should attentively listen to the teachers’ concerns and offer critical assessment and constructive ideas for change.
T F 36. Schools will improve primarily when a norm of collegiality exists in which shared discussion and shared work among all staff members exist.
T F 37. The knowledge base of a supervisor is generally superior to that of a teacher.
T F 38. Supervisors actively should seek input from teachers, parents, and students about ways to improve instruction.
T F 39. Most teachers don’t need specific instructions on what to teach and how to teach.
T F 40. Supervisors should have more expertise than teachers with respect to teaching and learning.

APPENDIX 1-B

My Personal Vision Statement

(Note that the following questions serve as a guide. Organize your statement any way you’d like.)

- **Student outcomes**
  What are your goals or hopes for your students?
  What are the types of skills, attitudes, and feelings you want students to possess?

- **Instructional climate**
  What type of climate is needed to support the student outcomes you identified above?
  What can you do to help establish that climate?)
Teaching and learning
What are your views about teaching and learning?
How should instruction be organized and delivered to support the type of climate and student outcomes you desire?

Leadership and governance
What is your philosophy on leadership?
What can leaders do to create effective schools?
How will you exercise leadership in your building?
What will the governance structure look like?
What are your responsibilities as a leader?
How will you work with teachers and staff, students, parents, community, and district officials?

Concluding statement

The Educational Leadership Constituent Council (ELCC: http://www.npbea.org/ELCC/) believes that the knowledge and ability to promote the success of all students requires that aspiring leaders be able to address the following questions:

1. How would you facilitate the development, articulation, implementation, and stewardship of a school vision of learning supported by the school community?
2. How would you promote a positive school culture, providing an effective instructional program, applying best practice to student learning, and designing comprehensive professional growth plans for staff?
3. How would you manage the organization, operations, and resources in a way that promotes a safe, efficient, and effective learning environment?
4. What are your ideas for collaborating with all families and other community members, responding to diverse community interests and needs, and mobilizing community resources?
5. Provide examples of how you would act with integrity, fairly, and in an ethical manner.
6. How would you seek to understand, respond to, and influence the larger political, social, economic, legal, and cultural context?

APPENDIX 1-C

Personal Vision Statements

Sample 1

As we embark on our leadership careers, we are faced with the challenge of teaching our children well. To accomplish this, we must make our schools more effective. Schools must prepare students for the many challenges they will face throughout their lives by ensuring that they gain perspective and become...
critical, reflective thinkers well equipped to make informed decisions and value judgments. More important, our children must become self-confident, respectful, proud, compassionate, moral, and ethical human beings. To meet this monumental task as educational leaders, we must ensure that teachers are committed not only to pedagogical excellence and greater student achievement, but also to developing the whole child. To understand how I plan to achieve these goals, it is essential to examine four areas: instructional climate, instruction, student outcomes, and leadership and governance. It is in this vein that I present my personal vision statement.

Instructional climate. I have chosen to discuss instructional climate first, as it is the foundation for effective instruction and positive student outcomes. The school will be viewed as a community with its members being administrators, teachers and other school personnel, students, and parents. All members of the school community will feel welcome, comfortable, respected, safe, and secure so that all realize that they are valued by and important to the community. These feelings facilitate community members working cohesively as a team to enable all children to reach their goals and achieve success.

The atmosphere will be one in which there is understanding, acceptance, and appreciation of diversity. This fosters a climate of acceptance for all students and encourages students to appreciate the individuality and uniqueness of others, thereby enhancing the development of individuality, the pursuit of individual interests and talents, and students’ tolerance of diversity.

The school must be a place where there is mutual respect, trust, and honesty among all members of the community. Teachers will be treated and will act as professionals; their ideas and opinions will be solicited, listened to, and valued. Teachers will have a voice in developing curriculum and resources, aligning assessment strategies with curriculum, evaluating student performance and school effectiveness, allocating instructional and noninstructional resources, and deciding general school policy issues and any other matters involving them or their students. Teachers will respect one another and work together on teams to develop resources, plan and evaluate lessons and assessment strategies, and monitor student progress. This will promote an atmosphere of collegiality. Teachers and other school personnel will model respect by recognizing and acknowledging our students’ rights.

Similarly, students must respect faculty and one another. Students will also be encouraged to voice their opinions in an environment where they can trust that their ideas will be respected, listened to, taken seriously, and, when feasible, acted upon. Students will be encouraged to discuss their progress and any concerns they have with their teachers. All staff will have an open-door policy for students and will be willing to lend an ear if need be. Teachers will be encouraged to be sensitive to student concerns but to communicate honestly and respectfully with their students. This will create bonds of trust and loyalty between staff and students and will foster a strong sense of community throughout the school.

To further build trust, loyalty, and self-esteem, teachers will establish a comfortable, supportive classroom environment. Students will never feel rejected or
humiliated by incorrect responses or limited skills. The teacher will make the classroom an amiable, encouraging, physically attractive, open, positive environment where there is tolerance of diverse views. It must be free of tension and sarcasm. Thus, students will be encouraged to take intellectual risks.

As members of the school community, parents will be warmly welcomed into the school and treated with respect. They will be recognized as partners in their children’s education and development. As such, parents will be encouraged to play an active role in the education process by conferring with teachers at least four times per year, by volunteering to serve on school committees (i.e., school planning team, door patrol, parents’ lounge, fund-raising committees, etc.), by voicing their opinions on educational matters that affect their children and by taking part in programs offered by the school to benefit them and their children (i.e., ESL for parents, college night, career day, family counseling, school picnic, etc.). Parents will be encouraged to collaborate with their children and their teachers to help their children reach their potential. Teachers, students, and parents will be empowered to play major roles in developing school policy and in the running of the school.

Our community’s house (school building) will be warm and inviting. It will showcase our students and their accomplishments. The hallways will be painted and decorated with student-created murals and collages, artwork, photography, sculptures, and crafts. Enlarged photos of students performing and working will be displayed throughout the building. Examples of positive publicity (i.e., news and magazine articles, awards, plaques, trophies, etc.) will also be showcased throughout the school. A parent lounge will be arranged so parents can meet or obtain information about issues relevant to their child’s development. As an educational leader, I will organize support groups for parents of “at-risk” students so that parents can discuss their frustrations, get involved in their children’s education, and become active members of the community. Furthermore, I will work to maximize parent participation through the development of community outreach and parent education programs.

Developing community and creating and maintaining a positive and productive learning environment while maximizing teaching potential and student achievement requires that teachers, administrators, and schools be continuously evolving and going through a process of self-renewal and evaluation. When this exists, members of the community can work together to build consensus. Every member of the community will realize that he or she is an integral part of the whole and that his or her ideas are welcomed and valued. Our school will have a supportive, just, and purposeful environment characterized by mutual respect for all members of the community. Through consensus, the school community will develop clear goals and high expectations for our students, as well as a synergistically created and universally shared vision and purpose. We will be a community that truly enables our students to thrive.

Instruction. There is much truth to the Sioux Indian adage: “Tell me and I’ll listen; show me and I’ll understand; involve me and I’ll learn.” Thus, teachers must work to make learning interesting and challenging by actively engaging their students in the learning process. Teachers must be trained to limit
"teacher talk" and information delivery. Instead they must facilitate "student talk" through effective questioning, class discussions, and student interactions, thereby involving their students and facilitating learning.

To motivate and stimulate students and to transform their classrooms into effective laboratories for learning, teachers will employ a variety of teaching strategies including cooperative and mastery learning, class debates, panel discussions, student presentations, journals and learning logs, and interdisciplinary and inquiry-based instruction. In using these strategies and in applying an inductive approach to instruction, and recognizing that all students learn in different ways, teachers will endeavor to use a broad spectrum of source materials. These materials will help make their lessons relevant to their students’ lives and present information from various perspectives and through different media. Teachers will use materials such as newspaper headlines, articles and editorials, maps, graphs, charts, cartoons, fine art, music, film and video presentations, primary source readings, literature, guest speakers, and the Internet as teaching tools. Based on their exposure to differing points of view, students will be given opportunities to draw conclusions, make decisions, form opinions, and make value judgments.

Furthermore, this variety of instructional techniques and sources will create interesting and exciting lessons that are appealing to and actively engage students. This approach will foster an atmosphere where students are stimulated and enthusiastic about learning, readily offer opinions on controversial issues, make keen observations, develop problem-solving and research skills, work cooperatively to solve problems and prepare presentations, and provide sustained responses to questions. Moreover, engaging students in these activities promotes the use of higher-order thinking skills and enables students to gain experience and perspective in decision making, critical thinking, and evaluation.

To encourage students and to build self-esteem and confidence, teachers will praise students for their efforts and participation. Teachers will encourage students to be intellectual risk takers by establishing a comfortable, supportive classroom environment. Teachers will never use rejection or humiliation as a means of instruction.

Teachers will plan and present their lessons with a careful blend of coverage and depth. Lessons will be centered on a specific problem or question for student analysis and assessment. In planning, teachers will be guided by the principle that "less is more." Thus, they will cover less factual content but will teach it with more depth, focusing on an evaluative issue or question that provokes critical and reflective thinking and sparks class discussion. The key to doing this and to achieving positive student outcomes is carefully planned lessons. Lessons will include: a clear, well-defined aim in the form of a question for student analysis and assessment; a motivation to raise the students’ interest in the topic; procedures and activities for development of the lesson; source materials and thought-provoking questions to actively engage students in the learning process; a summary activity or question to provide students with the opportunity to assess and take or defend a position on the issue presented by the aim; and an application activity that connects or relates the major concepts and ideas of the lesson with a current situation in the students’ world today.
The curriculum must address the needs of the whole child. It must be designed with broad goals that not only take into account the students’ academic, emotional, physical, and social development, but also reinforce active thinking and reasoning and nurture students’ curiosity. The curriculum must set high standards for all students in the areas of literacy (written and spoken) and in all major subject areas, music and art, physical fitness, and language. The curriculum will allow students to develop an in-depth understanding of all subjects and see their relation to one another and to their lives. This will be accomplished by using an interdisciplinary and thematic approach to teaching and by having students apply what they have learned to real-life situations. The curriculum will provide students with a wide variety of experiences to bolster and enhance their prior experiences and make connections to their everyday life experiences. Teachers will be given opportunities to team-plan and -teach so that these curriculum goals can be met.

In addition, volunteerism will be a major component of our school’s curriculum. Each student will be required to do volunteer work in the form an internship. Students may intern with a local councilperson or senator, at a hospital or old-age home, in a local grammar school, at a legal aid office, or for another local charity. This program will build strong bonds and ties to the community while simultaneously giving students the opportunity to establish intergenerational ties and encouraging students to learn from elders. Moreover, it will increase students’ responsibility and help to make them productive citizens. Interning will give students a “real world” experience in which they can employ many of the hands-on skills and much of the knowledge they have acquired. Furthermore, volunteerism is an important part of our country’s future and the future of public education. As we restructure the public education system, we will be relying more and more on volunteers from the private sector to enrich our school community. This internship program may establish a foundation for getting members of the community to volunteer in our school.

Just as lessons will be presented using a variety of teaching strategies, so assessment of student learning will be accomplished by evaluating the whole student using a broad spectrum of assessment tools. In addition to objective and essay tests, students will develop portfolios. Portfolios provide students with an opportunity to exhibit their achievements and their progress throughout their academic careers. Moreover, they provide the teacher with a clearer, more accurate picture of the whole child and how much he or she has progressed. Teachers will also be encouraged to use student journals as an assessment tool. Journals provide students with the opportunity to express their opinions and to engage in reflective, analytical thinking. They also aid students in becoming proficient writers and provide the teacher with an opportunity to see the students’ thought processes. Student journals are an excellent assessment tool. In addition, research and creative projects, individual and group presentations, learning logs, and teacher observations are valuable assessment tools that can be used for student evaluation. Assessment will focus on real-world situations and problems that require students to use higher-order thinking processes and demonstrate complex integrated performance. Assessment strategies will enable students to demonstrate what they know and what they are capable of.
Furthermore, they will provide teachers with a means to evaluate student growth and progress over a period of time using various types of evidence.

**Student outcomes.** All children deserve the opportunity to maximize their potential and become the best they can be. In this instructional climate and using these instructional methods, I believe each student can acquire the skills and understand the concepts required by New York State regulations, be a well-rounded person, and achieve success. Students will develop high expectations for themselves and will set high but realistic goals. As a product of this environment, students will know that if they persevere, they will successfully reach their goals.

On graduation, each child will be able to communicate effectively using the written and spoken word. In addition, they will be able to read with comprehension; perform mathematical calculations and think logically to solve problems; appreciate the fine and performing arts; realize their relationship to their environment and the global community; have an awareness of history and geography and understand their influence on people’s lives and their relevance to the world today; understand the basics of science and scientific thought; be computer proficient and understand the role, the relevance, and the impact of modern technology in our world. Students will be able to make connections across the disciplines and realize the relevancy of what they have learned to their lives. Students will know how to think critically and reflectively and will have the necessary perspective to make value judgments.

Students’ inquisitiveness and curiosity will not be extinguished. Rather, they will leave school with a well-developed love of learning and an appreciation for the learning process that will remain with them throughout their lives. They will be independent learners who can seek and obtain knowledge on their own. Each child will leave school with the ability to ask and seek out answers to questions, to make discoveries, and to take risks. They will learn about their heritage and the heritage of others so that they are appreciative, understanding, and tolerant of diversity. Students will develop their individuality, realize their importance as individuals, and understand the value of the contributions they can make to society. However, they will also be able to work cooperatively in groups and be able to be consensus builders. Students must also realize the power of persuasion but have the ability to compromise to benefit the needs of many.

In addition, it is vital that on graduation students have a well-developed sense of self-respect as well as respect for others and for the environment. Children will leave school feeling self-confident and secure, with a positive self-image. Students will feel that while attending school they are an integral part of the community and will realize the value of community and shared leadership and decision making. They must feel that they are respected, understood, listened to, valued, and appreciated community members. Students will go out into the world with the knowledge that they learned and performed to the best of their ability. On leaving school, children will have a sense of direction and purpose. They will leave as independent and interdependent individuals capable of
availing themselves of the opportunities to participate as ethical and productive citizens in a globally interdependent society.

Leadership and governance. An effective, proactive, visionary, and interdependent principal is at the heart of a school that provides a nurturing instructional climate, effective and meaningful instruction, and positive student outcomes. The principal is instrumental in setting the tone for the school and in creating the school’s unique culture.

To create and maintain a productive and positive learning environment while maximizing teaching potential and student achievement, I firmly believe that administrators, teachers, and schools must be constantly evolving by going through a process of self-renewal and evaluation. As a leader, it is incumbent on me to guarantee that this process occurs so that our school can remain effective. To establish and maintain this learning environment and to ensure that this process occurs, I will be proactive, visible, accessible, flexible, understanding and interdependent, and I will create a sense of community. As such, I will continuously be engaged in rapport building by facilitating and fostering good communication and cooperation leading to consensus and cohesiveness among administration, faculty, students, and parents. Maintaining a positive and nurturing instructional climate will be a top priority and will remain in the forefront of my vision. These characteristics and their outcomes will help to create a clear vision and mission for our school.

As principal, I envision my school running within the framework of an interdependent philosophy. To facilitate interdependence, I will work in concert with faculty and other school personnel, students, and parents to promote feelings of cohesiveness and community. In furtherance of creating a sense of community and to increase my visibility, I will initiate a school planning team. Besides me, this team will include other school leaders, at least one teacher representative from each department, and parent and student representatives. The team will collaborate to write, evaluate, and revise our school’s educational plan. This plan will include a collaboratively developed vision resulting in the creation of a mission statement for our school. The team will also be concerned with such issues as ensuring that our school’s mission and philosophy are carried out; creating a welcoming and orderly atmosphere for staff, students, and parents; securing and allocating instructional and noninstructional resources; developing meaningful professional activities and workshops for staff; maximizing parent participation through the development of community outreach and parent education programs; designing an organizational plan and structure; developing and using instructional materials in alignment with our instructional programs; aligning assessment strategies with curriculum; evaluating student performance and school effectiveness; and providing crisis intervention and support services. Implementation of a school planning team will foster a collaborative, consensual school community where administrators, faculty, parents, and students can regularly communicate and cooperate with one another to ensure that our school’s mission is effectively carried out.

To further build and reinforce a sense of community, I will encourage intervisitation between teachers. This will promote teamwork and the sharing
of ideas and materials between colleagues. Through this interaction and intervisitation, teachers will broaden their knowledge, enhance their pedagogical perspective; renew their professional spirit, commitment, and relationships; and build community. For these same reasons, I will also create educational teams within and across disciplines. Within these teams, teachers can work together to plan and evaluate lessons, develop interdisciplinary resources, and support one another.

As principal, I will act supportively and as a resource for my colleagues. I will offer guidance and training on effective teaching and questioning strategies and techniques; the development and use of primary source materials for the classroom; the creation of themes, aims, and projects in thrust with New York State’s performance standards; and classroom management strategies. By working with teachers in a cooperative environment, I will facilitate community, teamwork, professional growth, and effective teaching, leading to positive student outcomes. Principals who help colleagues develop their own skills and enhance their professional performance positively impact multitudes of students. As a principal, I see myself as a catalyst who motivates and facilitates effective teaching and student learning as well as playing a significant role in the development of youngsters’ attitudes, ideas, and values. Thus, it is my responsibility to ensure that my teachers are committed to enhancing their performance to achieve pedagogical excellence. Similarly, department chairs will support and intensively coach new teachers and closely watch their progress. I will also initiate a peer coaching or mentoring program whereby all teachers who are new to our school will be paired with an effective, experienced teacher for a 6-month period. The pair will observe one another and reflect on each other’s lessons. Teacher pairs may also work together to plan lessons and discuss classroom management issues and procedures, and the mentor will help the newer teacher get acquainted with the school building and other personnel. The mentor will help the new teacher become a viable member of our community.

To further build community, I will work to establish strong ties to and have open lines of communication with the Superintendent’s office, the surrounding community and its leaders, and the neighboring business and professional communities. This will enable our school to obtain many grants and additional resources. These contacts may also provide opportunities for professional development workshops, student internships, speakers to address parents’ concerns and to speak to classes, advisers for school clubs and teams, and funding for special projects. In addition, this will increase our school’s visibility and make us accessible to the community.

To ensure my own visibility and accessibility, I will maintain an open door policy for teachers, students, and parents so that they can feel free to drop in and discuss issues, problems, or concerns they have. I will also be sure to walk around the building numerous times during the day, speaking to students and staff, dropping into offices and classrooms, and observing classes. In the mornings, I will position myself at the main entrance to greet arriving staff and students. As principal, I hope to teach a class so that I never lose touch with the students and so I can better relate to teachers and their concerns.
As a leader, I will not demand anything from staff that I do not demand from myself. I will be fair, just, and even-handed and will offer praise and encouragement to my staff. I will act as their coach and treat them as members of our school’s team. Hopefully, this will ensure that they become team players. I will treat them as professionals and will communicate with them openly and honestly. I will provide them with opportunities for self-evaluation and reflective thinking and will offer constructive criticism. I will never embarrass or humiliate them and will always treat them with respect. It is my hope that they will treat me the same way.

I envision a school in which the teamwork mind-set is shared by all. This team spirit will permeate the environment, and its effects will be evidenced by the quality education all students receive. Our school’s philosophy revolves around the healthy development of the whole mind: socially, emotionally, and academically. By recruiting staff who understand and believe in our mission to be proactive, all will benefit from interdependency. Teachers and other staff will be empowered so that a proactive and interdependent environment can be created and maintained. Our school’s priority will be to address the needs of the students and their families so that all can achieve success as independent and interdependent, productive members of society. I truly believe that with this philosophy of leadership and governance, we can have a productive, effective, nurturing school community where children receive a quality education and achieve social, emotional, and academic success.

**Sample 2**

Student outcomes. I believe that every student can learn. No matter what socioeconomic group students come from, they all deserve the opportunity to become the best that they can be. Students should develop high expectations for themselves and set high goals.

They should learn to read, write, and be able to use numbers in early grades. They should learn how to think critically and use higher-level thinking skills. They should learn how to obtain knowledge on their own and see that all knowledge is connected. They should develop a love of literature. They should learn about their community, their country, and the world.

I would want the students to develop responsibility for themselves, other students, adults, and their surroundings. They should be involved in many activities that raise self-esteem. They should learn about their own heritage as well as the contributions of many different groups. Children should feel good about themselves.

Every child is special in some way. Students would have the opportunity to develop talents in many different areas, such as art, music, gymnastics, chess, and so on. Perhaps a student would excel in one of these areas and that would serve to motivate him or her to come to school and to try to excel in other areas as well. Students should want to come to school.

Young children are usually excited about starting school. This enthusiasm should not be allowed to burn out. It should be nurtured.
**Instructional climate.** The school climate should be nurturing, supportive, and respectful. The teachers must show respect to each other, the parents, and the students, through their words and actions.

Negative comments would be kept to a minimum. Praise and positive reinforcement would be evident throughout the building. Student of the Week bulletin boards featuring projects and stories would be on display in all classrooms. Awards, such as best attendance, most improved, and so on would be given out at assembly programs. Lists of winners would be prominently displayed. Bulletin boards would show students’ work and be bright and up-to-date. Students would be actively involved in decorating their rooms and hallway bulletin boards. Murals, for example, could be painted in classrooms, hallways, and lunchrooms.

School should be a place that is comfortable and safe. Parents would be welcomed as volunteers and as visitors. The community should be involved, as everyone works together to motivate the students to reach their goals.

I would want to create an atmosphere where teachers are treated as professionals and where cooperation and collegiality are the rule, not the exception.

**Instruction.** Grouping in this school would be heterogeneous so no child is stigmatized for being in “2-8.” Children would be able to help each other. Class size would be as small as possible so the students could get as much individual attention as possible.

Teachers would be encouraged to sit at their desks as little as possible. Their desks would be off in the corner of the room. Teachers would be actively engaged with the students at all times. For group lessons, whenever possible, students would sit in a circle as close to the teacher as they can, given the size of the group. Students would sit in groups, not in rows.

Balanced literacy and an interdisciplinary approach would be used. Multicultural matters would be plentiful and a part of the curriculum. Hands-on activities would be used as much as possible, particularly in science and mathematics. Collaborative work among the students would be encouraged. Students would have opportunities to get up and move around and not be expected to sit at their desks all day. Encyclopedias, other resource materials, and computers would be available to enhance learning.

Music and art would no longer be considered extras. They would have a prominent role in the school. There would be a school band, chorus, and so on. Every class would have time to visit centers where students could further explore existing interests and develop new ones. Trips would be a part of the curriculum.

**Leadership and governance.** The leader sets the tone for the school and is responsible for setting the instructional climate. I would be a visible presence and would not be locked in my office. I would walk around the school at least once a day visiting every room. I would try to get to know as many students as possible. I would teach a lesson at least once a week to a different class. I would give out the awards at the Awards Assembly myself and invite the award winners to a Breakfast With the Principal.
A planning team would be initiated, which would have a chief role in the governance of the school. I would ask for volunteers and hope to get a group of teachers and other staff members who would be enthusiastic about sharing increased responsibility and willing to take on extra work. I would arrange for a common meeting time during the school day at least once a week. I would meet with them once a month or more frequently if they so desired. I would hope that we could attract parents to this committee as well. I would ask the team to look for areas in which we need improvement, but also to be on the lookout for positive things going on in the school.

I would speak about these positive things over the loudspeaker and at faculty conferences. I would encourage teachers to share projects with me as well as with other teachers. The planning team would be actively involved in preparing the agenda for these meetings. We would divide up into smaller groups and engage in staff development. The committee would decide the topics and pick the leaders.

The planning team would also be involved in establishing a school newspaper. This would encourage the sharing of ideas and special events going on throughout the building and the community. This would also help develop a sense of pride.

I would work hard to establish ties to the community school district personnel as well as the community and business community so that we could obtain as many grants as possible for the school. This would be a way of increasing our valuable resources. I would also provide as many opportunities as possible for professional development workshops and intervisitations between teachers and between our school and other schools. The team could send out groups to visit other schools in our district as well as in other areas.

The school should work closely with the parents. Workshops could be held for them on various topics of interest, and they would be invited to read to the students as volunteers and to form clubs, especially at lunchtime, such as sewing, chess, or basketball. Parents can serve as role models and show their children how important education is to them. They can also take part in special school events such as Career Day.

I would offer intense supervision to new teachers and closely watch their progress. I would set up a system of buddy teachers and set up a schedule of observations by new teachers of more experienced personnel. I would use video cameras extensively to tape lessons done by new teachers. They could then view them and analyze the lessons themselves and later with me.

An open door policy would be established. Teachers and parents would be encouraged to come to me with their questions and concerns. As a leader I would try to create a feeling of community: Everyone working together toward a common goal—helping our children be the best that they can be! I would encourage staff members and parents to become more involved in the school and to be willing to take on more responsibility. In this way I believe that they would develop the feeling that it is truly “our school,” that these are “our children,” and that while undeniably the problems we face are “our problems,” the successes we realize will surely be “our successes”!
Sample 3

Leadership platform. A school is a community of individuals who are committed to a set of guiding principles, and who take personal responsibility for the success of each member of the community. As the educational leader of this school community, my mission is to support the development of an educational environment that addresses the intellectual and developmental needs of the middle school child, that acknowledges individual variability while maintaining a high level of expectations for all, and that provides a variety of forums for individual and collective reflection and self-assessment.

Central to the creation of a school culture that reflects my vision are four interrelated components: student outcomes, instructional climate, philosophy of instruction, and governance and leadership model. Culture is defined as the habits, routines, and behaviors (conscious and unconscious) that reveal the beliefs, norms, and values that build up over time within a school. Within this definition are four subcategories: interpersonal culture, or the philosophy and level of collegiality among members of the school community; organizational culture, or the philosophy and level of internal support for practices and programs; teaching culture, or the philosophy and level of belief in student achievement; and external culture, or the philosophy and level of external support for practices and programs. The art of the principal lies in her ability to orchestrate each element in the environment into a unified culture of shared expectations and accountability. To better understand my vision of leadership, it is necessary to define each component and demonstrate how each is integrated into the overarching school culture.

Student outcomes. The cornerstone of any educational vision is student outcomes. Viewed holistically, students need to develop the academic, social, and personal levels of competence that will prepare them to be productive members of society and contributors to the workforce. All children have the potential to reach high standards of personal competence. My vision is to create a culture that supports all students in realizing their potential by creating an instructional program that supports high academic achievement and that encourages the development of self-discipline, positive self-image, strong personal values, and unilateral respect for all school community members.

Academically, students would develop literacy skills in written and spoken English and apply these skills to the mastery of content area material. This is critical in light of the implementation of the performance standards and the new promotional policy. They would have access to technology and develop the skills necessary to locate, utilize, and evaluate electronic information. Students would have extensive exposure to the arts, so as to develop an appreciation for the richness and diversity of cultures. Learning would be interactive, with ample opportunities for students to experience “real world” applications of knowledge, so as to see the connections between content area materials and between the classroom and life.

Concurrently, students would develop social consciousness and civic responsibility. They would have opportunities to participate in school and community-based service projects whose focus is the development of student...
awareness of social and political issues, and the relevance of these issues to their lives, the lives of their families, and the life of their community. Ideally, these opportunities would be intergenerational and multicultural, so as to engage students in meaningful and sustained relationships with adults and younger children from all cultural and economic groups, as well as with their peers. In this way, students would be able to develop sensitivity to the needs of others, recognize their similarities, appreciate their differences, and thereby develop a sense of mutual respect. Integral to these service projects should be connections to their classroom content-area learning so as to reinforce the connections between school and life.

Academic and service learning outcomes are intrinsically connected to the developmental outcomes for students. These are crucial for all students, but particularly for adolescents who are grappling with issues of identity and self-worth. Integrated into student outcomes for academic and social learning would be outcomes for personal development and growth. Students should have multiple opportunities to develop self-awareness, self-competence, and self-esteem. Educational experiences would be varied and allow for individual differences, learning styles, and rates of development. Opportunities for student self-expression would abound within the context of social and personal accountability. Character education would be a key component of the educational program and support the development of students who strive to achieve their personal best.

Instructional climate. The realization of student outcomes is inextricably tied to the instructional climate. My vision is of the school as safe harbor or sanctuary in which students, staff, and parents feel safe and nurtured, and in which there is an atmosphere of personal responsibility and mutual respect. The culture of the school would support collaboration, foster reflection, and celebrate accomplishment. Multiple opportunities for celebration of individual and schoolwide success in all areas of achievement would be developed. Student work would be prominently displayed throughout the building, and efforts to acknowledge each student’s strengths would be encouraged. Classrooms would be print- and material-rich, and students would have daily access to technology. A code of appropriate behavior would be developed, agreed on, and modeled by all. Consequences for inappropriate behavior would be clear and consistently enforced by all members of the school community.

The school climate would also support professional development that is an outgrowth of self-assessment and reflection and that supports collaboration and collegiality. All staff have the capacity for professional growth. My vision is to create a culture that supports teachers in fulfilling this capacity by providing new teacher training, leadership opportunities, meaningful staff development, and experience in innovative educational practices and strategies. Opportunities for staff to develop and refine their instruction would be organic, teacher directed, and sustained throughout the year. Flexible programming would provide time for teachers to participate in weekly study groups to examine student work and teacher practice in the context of the standards. Each study group would follow specific protocols and be facilitated by a peer coach,
Teachers would participate in weekly peer observations, and classrooms would serve as demonstration sites for specific organizational and instructional practices. Structured opportunities for daily interaction among staff around instructional issues, and ongoing reflection among colleagues about student work and outcomes, would replace one-day trainings and workshops. Ample professional resources would be housed in the professional library so as to support all aspects of the professional development program.

Time and funding for teachers to participate in professional conferences would be provided, with the expectation that they would turnkey this training. In this way, a cadre of in-house specialists would be developed to build school-wide capacity and foster the development of a community of learners.

Parents would also have ample opportunities to develop the capacity to be partners in their children’s education. All parents have the responsibility to be active members in their children’s educational experience. My vision is to create a culture that supports parents in exercising this responsibility by fostering a dynamic school/family partnership whose focus is active parental involvement in the educational decision-making process and shared, constructive evaluation of learning policies. A parent center with extensive resources in multiple languages would be established. Parent workshops on a wide spectrum of topics, ranging from parenting skills, to literacy strategies, to leadership teams, would be offered throughout the day, as well as in the evening and on weekends to encourage participation. Translators would be provided to facilitate interaction. Parents would be encouraged to participate in the daily activities of the school, to serve on committees and leadership teams, to become volunteers and tutors, and to participate, with teachers and administrators, in study groups around student work. They would be viewed as full and equal partners in the educational process and in the daily life of the school.

**Instructional program.** The instructional climate is the framework that supports the instructional program. Students would have a variety of learning experiences within and outside of the classroom that focus on the development of the habits of mind of the life-long learner. The schedule would be divided into instructional blocks that are interdisciplinary in focus and that are taught by a team of teachers. These teachers would be a combination of generalists and specialists, and they would develop curriculum that explores the connection between content areas and between the classroom and the world. This curriculum would reflect multiple instructional strategies, so as to accommodate diverse student learning needs and styles. Students would be grouped heterogeneously, and teachers would follow their classes from grade to grade to support instructional and interpersonal continuity. Curriculum would include authentic, project-based learning, and opportunities for community mentorships. Class groupings and scheduling would be flexible, so as to allow for reconfiguration of students and blocks of time as needed. Each student would have an adult advisor and a minimum of 20 minutes of advisory per day.

Opportunities for enrichment, intervention, and extracurricular activities would be offered before and after the school day. Parents and members of the community would be encouraged to offer courses during the extended day, as
well as to serve as tutors and mentors. The assessment model would incorporate a spectrum of tools so as to support a holistic approach to evaluation. Foremost among these tools would be student portfolios and student exhibitions. Rubrics for assessing student growth toward the standard, and the tools to assess this growth, would be developed by students and their teachers with the input of the school community. Every aspect of the instructional program would focus on the diverse needs of the students; on their academic, social, and personal growth; and on high standards for student achievement. The school community would be committed to maintaining the same high level of expectations for all students, while acknowledging the individual differences among students in meeting the standards, and to encouraging and nurturing student enthusiasm for learning.

_Governance and leadership._ Essential to the realization of my educational vision is a model of governance and leadership that supports collaboration and a sense of personal accountability to a set of guiding principles, and that includes and encourages multiple perspectives. In this model, the principal would be responsible for providing the time and the structure for students, staff, parents, and other school community members to openly participate in some aspect of the governance process. This would require identifying specific issues and constituencies and creating multiple governance forums, as well as ensuring that all stakeholders are involved at some point, as appropriate. This includes not only teachers, parents, and students but also custodial and cafeteria staff, health providers, and members of community-based organizations. The principal would also create an environment that fosters open dialogue among the various stakeholders and that provides training in the new paradigm of the shared decision-making process. In this environment, the goals of the school would be developed collaboratively with student achievement as the focus, and the progress toward the goals would be assessed through a process of ongoing reflection. The specific structure of the assessment component would be developed by the school community and would incorporate multiple assessment models, both formal and informal. Responsibility for student achievement would be shared by all stakeholders, and finger-pointing and blaming would be replaced by an atmosphere of collegiality and collaboration in which each member of the school community would take responsibility for the successes and the failures.

As the leader in this school culture, I would model the values, beliefs, and behavior I sought to engender. My leadership style would be proactive, flexible, and reflective. I would be genuine in my commitment to a collaborative approach to leadership and sustain a constant focus on the fundamental belief that student achievement must drive all aspects of the educational process. I would maintain an open door policy, seeking input from members of the school community and participating in the reflective process. I would actively work to secure the resources needed to support the instructional process and to develop and sustain a supportive and open relationship with the district and the community. I would lead by example and demonstrate those qualities of integrity, focus, and mutual respect that are fundamental to my vision of a school community. I would share
in both the joys of our successes and in the struggles of our setbacks. I would be coach, facilitator, and exemplar, sustaining the vision and holding the guiding principles continually in the forefront of all our endeavors.

NOTES

1. Although the special supervisor as a specific title disappeared, a host of other supervisors later emerged, such as supervisors of curriculum, instruction, and reading, among others.
2. For a more in-depth historical analysis, see Glanz (1998).
3. This section is informed by the work of Reitzug (1997).
4. Favorite surveys that we use include the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (Myers & McCaulley, 1985), the Personal Values Questionnaire and Managerial Style Questionnaire from McBer and Company (1994), the Let Me Learn Learning Combination Inventory Professional Form (Johnson & Dainton, 1996), Assessing Your Natural Leadership Qualities (Glanz, 2002), and the Natural Life Energy Survey (Null, 1996). We also encourage our students to read The Reflective Supervisor by Calabrese and Zepeda (1997).
5. For a more in-depth discussion of descriptive feedback, see Osterman and Kottkamp (1993), pp. 91–95.
6. This exercise has been adapted from Osterman and Kottkamp (1993), p. 96. See pp. 96–99 for a more detailed discussion of the process.
7. Special thanks to Bruce Barnett of the University of Northern Colorado for sharing this format.
8. Special thanks to Aimee Horowitz (Sample 1) and Fran Macko (Sample 3) for giving us permission to share their vision statements. The second one is anonymous.