

ADAPTING SUPERVISORY PRACTICES TO DIFFERENT ORIENTATIONS OF TEACHING COMPETENCE

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Instructional supervision is a key ingredient in the continuum of professional development from preservice teacher education through induction to the inservice education of teachers. The process of supervision typically includes identification of problems, observation, feedback, coaching, and a recycling procedure. There are, however, numerous supervisory models including clinical supervision as presented by Goldhammer,¹ Cogan,² and Acheson and Gall;³ counseling supervision as espoused by Mosher and Purpel;⁴ and Glickman's⁵ developmental supervision. The key for teacher educators is to determine which of these and other supervisory approaches best serve the multiple purposes of pre- and inservice education. To do so we must first explicate the conceptions of teaching competence served by teacher education programs and then match these types of competence with appropriate supervisory practices.

Thus, this article explains four major types of teacher competence that can be facilitated by appropriate supervisory practices: technical, clinical, personal, and critical competence. We believe all four are critical to effective teaching. First, we examine these four types of competence in terms of six questions that we believe inform the choice of supervisory practices. Second, we attempt to illustrate that each of these types of competence has varying degrees of complexity from more simple and low-level orientations to more complex and sophisticated approaches. And third, we provide specific illustrations of how supervisory practices might accommodate these different forms of competence at different degrees of complexity. Our goal throughout

¹Robert Goldhammer, *Clinical Supervision* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1969)

²Morris Cogan, *Clinical Supervision* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1973).

³Keith Acheson and Meredith Gall, *Techniques in the Clinical Supervision of Teachers. Preservice and Inservice Applications* (New York: Longman, 1980).

⁴Ralph L. Mosher and David E. Purpel, *Supervision: The Reluctant Profession* (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1972)

⁵Carl D. Glickman, *Supervision of Instruction: A Developmental Approach* (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1985).

is to underline the fundamental importance of supervision to the process of educating teachers in both pre- and inservice programs.

Critical to any understanding of the various purposes of teacher education is an explication of the different conceptions of teaching that underlie these programs. One familiar distinction is Dewey's⁶ between habits that help the teacher become thoughtful and alert as a student of teaching, as opposed to those that make the teacher immediately proficient but not necessarily reflective about teaching. Dewey distinguishes two major forms of teacher education outcomes, those having more of a utilitarian character (the apprenticeship approach) and those fostering more personal inquiry and reflection (the laboratory approach). In the former instance the teacher applies learned techniques to given ends, and in the latter conception of teaching the teacher is more of a reflective solver of practical problems.

Literature concerned with the purposes of teacher education today builds upon this basic distinction. For instance, Zeichner reflects on the student teaching component of teacher education wherein the student teaching experience fosters "what works in the short-run to get the class through the required lesson . . . [wherein] the technique of teaching becomes an end in itself rather than a means towards some specified educational process"⁷ The reference to the habitual practice of what works (the instrumental perspective) is again contrasted to more reflective thinking as epitomized in Dewey's distinction. Haberman⁸ differentiates training and practice, that strives for perfected behaviors and command of knacks and tools of the trade or the technicalities of teaching, with an emphasis on monitoring one's own behavior or thoughtful and independent teaching. Likewise Emans⁹ presents purposes of teacher education programs in a continuum from more apprentice-oriented designs (preparation approach, imitation approach, and, to some extent, clinical approach) to ultimately a more analytical and reflective laboratory approach.

Still others have characterized the purposes of teacher education programs along paradigms of scholarly inquiry. Zimpher and Ashburn¹⁰ present a conceptualization of teacher education from positivistic, phenomenological, and critical perspectives. They raise concerns about a dominant view of the

⁶John Dewey, "The Relation of Theory to Practice in Education," in *Third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, ed. Charles A. McMurry (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1904).

⁷Kenneth Zeichner, "The Ecology of Field Experience: Toward an Understanding of the Role of Field Experiences in Teacher Development" (paper, University of Wisconsin-Madison, 1984), p. 30.

⁸Martin Haberman, "Research in Preservice Laboratory and Clinical Experiences: Implications for Teacher Education," in *The Education of Teachers*, ed. Kenneth Howey and William Gardner (New York: Longman, 1983).

⁹Robert Emans, "Analysis of Four Different Approaches to Teacher Education," *College Study Journal* 15 (March 1981): 209-216.

¹⁰Nancy Zimpher and Elizabeth Ashburn, "Studying the Professional Development of Teachers: How Conceptions of the World Inform the Research Agenda," *Journal of Teacher Education*, 36 (November-December 1985): 16-26.

knowledge base in teacher education reflecting accomplishments primarily in the teacher skill domain. This latter perspective is also referenced in critiques of research on teacher education by Popkewitz, Tabachnick, and Zeichner¹¹ and Tuthill and Ashton.¹² Zeichner¹³ identifies four alternative orientations to teacher education ranging from behavioristic, personalistic, traditional-craft approaches to teacher education to the inquiry-oriented approach.

Howey and Zimpher¹⁴ have explicated the domains of teacher education curriculums across four conceptions of teaching identified as. (1) developmental, (2) perceptual or personalistic (with an emphasis on the moral and ethical dimensions of teaching), (3) social/cultural (including a global, schooling, and classroom perspective), and (4) the competency perspective (with attention both to cognitive psychology inherent in academic disciplines and to research informing more generic aspects of teaching). Here we alter these purposes slightly. While we do not denigrate the skill orientation, we focus considerable attention as well on three related teacher competencies. (1) clinical competence (i.e., involving practical reasoning and problem solving), (2) personal competence (i.e., understanding of self from multiple perspectives with expertise in interpretive capacities in interpersonal interactions), and (3) critical competence (i.e., a disposition to engage in social critique and reconstruction of repressive practices). For purposes of this paper, we have examined these four conceptions of teaching in terms of specific competencies that could be developed at various times in teacher education interventions. Further, we attempt to describe these competencies as they might apply to various processes of supervision that can be employed in teacher education.

A FRAMEWORK FOR EXAMINING FOUR TYPES OF TEACHER COMPETENCE

Table 1 constitutes a framework in which the following six questions are raised about each of these four types of teacher competence:

1. What is the conception of the teacher that drives a teacher education program?
2. What is the focus of supervision that would facilitate a curriculum in teacher education based on this conception of the teacher?
3. What is the conception of the supervisor who would function in the supervisory role?

¹¹Thomas Popkewitz, Robert Tabachnick, and Kenneth Zeichner, "Dulling the Senses. Research in Teacher Education," *Journal of Teacher Education* 30 (September-October 1979): 52-59.

¹²Doug Tuthill and Patricia Ashton, "Improving Educational Research Through the Development of Educational Paradigms," *Educational Researcher* 12 (December 1983): 6-14.

¹³Kenneth Zeichner, "Alternative Paradigms of Teacher Education," *Journal of Teacher Education* 34 (May-June 1983): 3-9.

¹⁴Kenneth R. Howey and Nancy L. Zimpher, "New Curriculum Directions in the Education of Teachers," *Curriculum and Teaching* 1 (July 1986): 93-102.

Table 1. Framework for Examining Four Types of Teacher Competence*				
	Technical Competence	Clinical Competence	Personal Competence	Critical Competence
Conception of the Teacher	Determines in advance what is to be learned, how it is to be learned, and criteria by which success is to be measured	Instructional problem solver; clinician frames and solves practical problems; takes reflective action; inquirer	Understanding of self; self-actualized person who uses self as effective and humane instrument	Rational, morally autonomous, socially conscious change agent
Focus of Supervision	Mastery of methods of instruction specific skills (how to ask good questions); how to apply teaching strategies; how to select and organize curriculum content; how to structure the classroom for learning what techniques to use to maintain control	Reflective decision making and action to solve practical problems (what should be done about disruptive behavior) as well as reconsideration of intents and practices to take action to solve practical problems	Increase self-awareness, identity formation, and interpretive capacities, e.g., self confrontation, values clarification; interpersonal involvement; small-group processes; develop personal style in teaching role	Reflective decision making and action to form more rational and just schools, critique of stereotypes/ideology, hidden curriculum, authoritarian/permissive relationships, equality of access, responsibilities, and forms of repressive social control
Conception of the Supervisor	Technical expert/master provides for skill development and efficient/effective use of resources in classroom; translator of research theory into technical rules for application in classrooms	Fosters inquiry regarding the relationship of theory and practice; fosters reflection about the relationship of intents and practice and reconsideration/modification of intent/practice in light of evaluation of their conscience	Expert in interpersonal competence and theories of human development; nondirective participant: warm and supportive learning environment, responsiveness to teacher-defined needs and concerns, wisdom in guiding free exploration of teaching episodes, diagnosing theories-in-use	Collaborator in self-reflective communities of practitioner-theorists committed to examining critically their own/institutional practices and improving them in interests of nationality and social justice; provides challenges and support as do other participants in dialogue

Table 1 (continued)

	Technical Competence	Clinical Competence	Personal Competence	Critical Competence
Type of Theoretical Knowledge	Technical guidelines from explanatory theory; analytic craft knowledge about what constitutes "good" practice	Synthesis of normative, interpretive, and explanatory knowledge to form intellectually and morally defensible practical judgments about what to do in a particular situation	Analytic and interpretive theory to understand and make explicit reasons underlying symbolic interaction essentially those which occur in the class	Critical theory of education; unite philosophical analysis and criticism and causal and interpretive science
Mode of Inquiry	Applied science, functional and task analysis, linear problem solving to determine how to accomplish given ends	Practical action research to articulate concerns, plan action, monitor action, and reflect on processes and consequences to improve our teaching practices, rationale-building	Phenomenological, ethnographic, hermeneutic analysis and interpretation; analyze elements of teaching episodes	Collaborative action and reflection to transform the organization and practice of education; group inquiry regarding conditions of communicative interaction and social control
Level of Reflectivity	Specific techniques needed to reach stated objectives involve instrumental reasoning; means-end (if, then) relative to efficiency/effectiveness	Practical reasoning and judgment relative to what should be done (best course of action under the circumstances)	Interpretation of intended meaning of verbal and nonverbal symbols and acts, introspection relative to self-awareness/identity	Critical self-reflection/reflexivity and social critique to uncover contradictions/inadequacies and different conceptions of educational practice as values with society

*The authors wish to acknowledge the major contribution of Sharon Strom, a doctoral candidate at the University of Minnesota, in the development of this framework.

4. What types of theoretical knowledge are assumed from these various perspectives or orientations?

5. What modes of inquiry could be employed to accommodate these purposes, including the process of supervision engaged in within these various teacher education programs?

6. What levels of reflectivity, following Dewey's notion of reflective teaching, would be inherent in a particular orientation to teacher education and in the application of particular supervisory practices in the program?

Technical Competence

First we examine improving technical competence as one major purpose of teacher education. Many of the specific technical skills of teaching have been explicated through the research on teacher effectiveness (Stallings,¹⁵ Brophy and Everson,¹⁶ Good,¹⁷ and McDonald and Elias¹⁸ and are exemplified as well by skills originally proposed for use in microteaching.¹⁹ At another level, involving a range of teaching behaviors, the conceptualizations or models of teaching as outlined by Joyce and Weil²⁰ could be included here. Ultimately and at its most complex level the technist approach to supervision could be explicated in such holistic approaches to instructional improvement as the Individually Guided Education System or Individually Prescribed Instruction (Talmage²¹ and Glaser²²). Our contention in highlighting these particular aspects of the technical conditions of teaching is to suggest that they are essential elements of teaching. The types and levels of technical knowledge and skills are typically the grist or mainstay of instructional supervision. These are the primary skills (actions) that teachers employ in their daily endeavors in the classroom.

In regard to Table 1, the conception of the teacher inherent in the technical competence perspective is that good teachers determine in advance what is to be learned, how it is to be learned, and the criteria by which success is to be measured. In this context the focus of supervision includes the mastery of methods of instruction; for example, specific skills (such as how to ask

¹⁵Jane Stallings, *Learning to Look. A Handbook on Classroom Observation* (Belmont, Calif Wadsworth, 1977).

¹⁶Jere Brophy and Carolyn Everson, "Context Variables in Teaching," *Educational Psychologist* 12 (March 1978): 310-316.

¹⁷Thomas Good, "Teacher Expectations and Student Perceptions A Decade of Research," *Educational Leadership* 38 (May 1981): 415-422.

¹⁸Frederick McDonald and Patricia Elias, *Beginning Teacher Evaluation Study, Phase II, Executive Summary Report* (Princeton, N.J., Educational Testing Service, 1976)

¹⁹Walter Borg, "Changing Teacher and Pupil Performance with Protocols," *Journal of Experimental Education* 45 (Spring 1977): 9-18

²⁰Bruce Joyce and Marsha Weil, *Models of Teaching*, 2nd ed (Englewood Cliffs, NJ Prentice Hall, 1980).

²¹Harriet Talmage, *Systems of Individualized Education* (Berkeley, Calif., McCutchan, 1975).

²²Robert Glaser, "Components of a Psychology of Instruction. Toward a Science of Design," *Review of Educational Research* 46 (Spring 1976): 1-24.

good questions), how to apply teaching strategies, how to select and organize curriculum, how to structure the classroom for learning, and what techniques should be used in maintaining classroom control. In this regard the role of the supervisor would be technical, as expert/master. A supervisor would enable skill development and efficient and effective use of resources in the classroom and become a translator of research and theory as these apply to technical rules in the classroom. The type of knowledge undergirding this approach to supervision would be a set of technical guidelines derived from explanatory theory. Additionally, analytical craft knowledge about what constitutes good practice would be explicated in the instructional improvement process.

Clinical Competence

A second domain or purpose we refer to is clinical competence. This notion of teaching assumes that the teacher is a clinician and in many ways follows Dewey's²³ notion of problem solving and inquiry in the classroom. Much of the problem solving approach that Dewey espoused is reflected in models of clinical supervision wherein teachers are assisted in identifying their problems whatever the content. In fact, the process of the teacher as clinician and problem solver is reflected as well in notions of collaborative action research as espoused by Lewin²⁴ and Lippitt,²⁵ and more recently in the works of Feiman Nemser,²⁶ Holly,²⁷ Tikunoff and Ward,²⁸ Oja,²⁹ and Carr and Kemmis.³⁰ Within this particular perspective the teacher's ability to identify problems and to think them through becomes a program of research and inquiry in the classroom.

From this perspective the teacher is an instructional problem solver and clinician who frames and solves practical problems through reflective action and inquiry. Accordingly the focus of supervision is to foster reflective decision making and action to solve practical problems (such as what should be done

²³John Dewey, "The Relation of Theory to Practice in Education," in *Third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education*, ed. Charles A. McMurry (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1904).

²⁴Kurt Lewin, *Resolving Social Conflict* (New York: Teachers College Press, 1948).

²⁵Robert Lippitt, *Training in Community Relations. A Research Exploration Toward New Group Skills* (New York: Harper, 1949).

²⁶Sharon Feiman-Nemser, "Learning to Teach," in *Handbook for Teaching and Policy*, ed. Lee Shulman and Gary Sykes (New York: Longman, 1983)

²⁷Mary Lou Holly, "Personal-Professional Growth of Teachers. An Empirical Study with Implications for Inservice Education" (Kent State University, Kent, Ohio, 1979) (Mimeographed.)

²⁸William Tikunoff and Bernice Ward, *Interactive Research and Development in Teaching Study. Final Report* (San Francisco: Far West Regional Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1979).

²⁹Sharon Oja, *A Two Year Study of Teacher Stages of Development in Relation to Collaborative Action Research in Schools, Final Report* (Durham, N.H.: The University of New Hampshire, Collaborative Action Research Project Office, 1983)

³⁰Wilfred Carr and Stephen Kemmis, *Becoming Critical. Knowing through Action Research* (Victoria, Australia: Deakin University, 1983).

about disruptive behavior), as well as reconsideration of intents and practices. A supervisor functioning from this clinical competence perspective would attempt to foster inquiry regarding the relationship of theory and practice and to foster reflection about the relationship of intents and practice and the reconsideration/modification of intents and practice in light of evaluation of their consequences. Accordingly the theoretical knowledge used in a clinical orientation to supervision would be the synthesis of normative, interpretive, and explanatory knowledge to form intellectually and morally defensible practical judgments about what to do in a particular situation.

Personal Competence

A third perspective or purpose of teacher education is that of achieving personal competence. Instructional supervision from this perspective represents a strong interpersonal dimension as reflected in the work of Rogers³¹ and Maslow,³² and in Combs³³ notion of shared frames of reference. Fuller and Brown's³⁴ conception of the developmental concerns of teachers, particularly survival concepts, fits here. This orientation emerges ultimately at the most complex level in regard to the teacher as a moral, ethical leader (Tom³⁵ and Strike and Soltis³⁶). Conceptions of teaching emerging from Gestalt psychology (Perls³⁷) add yet another dimension to this personal perspective. The integration of clinical and Gestalt psychology with more personalistic approaches to teaching is exemplified in Peck and Veldman's³⁸ study of personal characteristics and effective teaching.

In the personal competence domain, the conception of teaching is one of a self-actualized person who uses himself or herself as an effective and humane instrument to improve classroom instruction. The general focus of supervision is to increase self awareness, identity formation, and interpretive capacities through self-confrontation, values clarification, interpersonal involvement, and small-group processes that further develop personal style in the teaching role. The role of the supervisor in this domain would be as an expert in interpersonal competence and knowledge of theories of human development. This nondirective participant would help establish a warm and

³¹Carl R. Rogers, *Freedom to Learn for the 80's* (Columbus, Ohio: C. E. Merrill, 1983).

³²Abraham Maslow, *Motivation and Personality* (New York: Harper, 1954).

³³Arthur Combs et al., *The Professional Education of Teachers* (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, 1974).

³⁴Francis Fuller and Oliver Brown, "Becoming a Teacher," in *Teacher Education*, ed. Kevin Ryan (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1975).

³⁵Alan Tom, *Teaching as a Moral Craft* (New York: Longman, 1984).

³⁶Kenneth Strike and Jonas Soltis, *The Ethics of Teaching* (New York: Teachers College Press, 1985).

³⁷Fritz Perls et al., *Gestalt Therapy* (New York: Julian Press, 1962).

³⁸Robert Peck and D. J. Veldman, *Personal Characteristics Associated with Effective Teaching* (Austin, Tex.: The Research and Development Center for Teacher Education, The University of Texas, 1973).

supportive environment for supervision, be responsive to teacher-defined needs and concerns, and exhibit wisdom in guiding the free exploration of teaching episodes while also diagnosing theories-in-use. The theoretical basis for this model of supervision uses analytic and interpretive theory to understand and make explicit the reasons underlying symbolic interaction, especially interaction that occurs in classrooms.

Critical Competence

The fourth domain is referred to as critical competence. This perspective is best characterized by critical theorists who suggest that much of what influences the nature of instruction relates to the social conditions of schooling. At one level this conception is reflective of the early work of Jackson,³⁹ Greene,⁴⁰ and others regarding the informal curriculum, that is to say, there appear to be activities, skills, and curriculums influenced by conditions of power and authority in schools and other manifestations of hegemony in the classroom. The content for this approach to instructional supervision comes largely from conceptions of the teacher as inquirer, much like the collaborative research model, but goes beyond this conceptualization of the instructional process to ask questions regarding basic ideology in school and society (Kohlberg⁴¹), the impact of negative socialization on the teaching process (Zeichner⁴², and other questions that present a more critical and radical notion of the structures of schools, best explicated in recent models proposed by Carr and Kemmis.⁴³

In this supervisory domain the conception of the teacher is as a rational and morally autonomous person who is socially conscious and perceives the teacher role as that of a change agent. The focus of supervision in this domain is toward reflective decision making and action to form more rational and just schools and to critique stereotypes and ideologies, hidden curriculum, authoritarianism and permissive relationships, equality of access, responsibility, and forms of repressive social control. Consequently, the supervisor in this context would be a collaborator in the communities of self-reflective practitioner theorists committed to examining critically both their own and their institution's practices, toward improving the interests of rationality and social justice. The supervisor would provide appropriate degrees of challenge and support as do other participants in an ongoing instructional improvement

³⁹Philip Jackson, *Life in Classrooms* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1968).

⁴⁰Maxine Greene, "Teaching. The Question of Personal Reality," *Teachers College Record* 80 (January 1978): 23-35.

⁴¹Lawrence Kohlberg, "Stages and Sequence: The Cognitive Developmental Approach to Socialization," in *Handbook of Socialization Theory and Research*, ed. David A. Goslin (Chicago: Rand McNally, 1969).

⁴²Kenneth Zeichner, "Alternative Paradigms of Teacher Education," *Journal of Teacher Education* 34 (May-June 1983): 3-9.

⁴³Wilfred Carr and Stephen Kemmis, *Becoming Critical. Knowing Through Action Research* (Victoria, Australia: Deakin University, 1983).

dialogue. The theoretical knowledge that undergirds this domain is that of critical theory, uniting philosophical analysis with criticism and causal and interpretive science.

LEVELS OF COMPLEXITY WITHIN EACH COMPETENCE DOMAIN

A second focus of our discussion is to suggest that within each of the four competence domains, skill proficiency and personal/professional development can be seen as evolutionary from more simple and low-level orientations to teaching to more complex and sophisticated approaches. These variations of competence for each of the four domains are displayed in Table 2. We contend that all levels of competence can be fostered by particular supervisory practices that accommodate the various purposes examined in this model. Consequently, we can look at the technical competence domain and the levels of complexity that exist in this domain from the simple to the complex. Specifically, this would mean that at the lowest or most common level, technical competence would be defined as learning and using specific instructional skills. These would be isolated skills such as the variables that have resulted from the teacher effectiveness research and the various skills included in such clinical simulations as microteaching (e.g., clarity, use of higher-order questions, establishing set, or improving the use of academic wait time, as described by Rowe⁴⁴). A second position in terms of levels of complexity might be to develop ability in the combination of skills and techniques in such comprehensive approaches to teaching as the models of teaching described by Joyce and Weil.⁴⁵ The use of various instructional management systems such as the model for classroom management described by Evertson and colleagues⁴⁶ suggests a third level of complexity in the technical competence domain. And, finally, more holistic systems could be reflected in learning to use a complex curricular and instructional system such as Wang's⁴⁷ Training for Adaptive Instruction. In the next section we will illustrate supervisory practices related to two examples of technical competence, one at the more elementary level (improving the use of academic wait time, as described by Rowe) and one at the more complex level (Evertson's classroom management model).

In regard to clinical competence, the movement is from examining what one does in the classroom and making needed changes through inquiry and reflection about one's own teaching to, at the more complex level, a more elaborate design for action research and practical deliberation among col-

⁴⁴Mary Budd Rowe, "Wait Time: Slowing Down May Be a Way of Speeding Up," *Journal of Teacher Education* 37 (January-February 1986): 43-50.

⁴⁵Bruce Joyce and Marsha Weil, *Models of Teaching*, 2nd ed. (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1980).

⁴⁶Carolyn Evertson, Edmund Emmer, B. Clements, Julie Sanford, and M. Worsham, *Classroom Management for Elementary Teachers* (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1984)

⁴⁷Margaret C. Wang, "Adaptive Instruction: Building on Diversity," *Theory Into Practice* 19 (February 1980): 122-128.

Table 2. Range of Complexity Across Four Domains of Competence*

Technical Competence	Clinical Competence	Personal Competence	Critical Competence
<p>From Learning/using specific skills</p> <p>To: Learning/using complex curricular and instructional systems</p>	<p>From Examining what one is doing in the classroom and making needed changes (inquiry and reflection about one's teaching)</p> <p>To Action research and practical deliberation among colleagues in school/district to solve common educational concerns</p>	<p>From. Self-awareness and survival concerns</p> <p>To. Using knowledge of adult moral and cognitive development to inform teacher practice</p>	<p>From. Consciousness raising about school practices that are self-defeating in terms of learning and teaching, such as exposing hidden curriculum</p> <p>To Collaboration of critical inquirers to reconstruct/transform schooling/society</p>
Illustrative Levels of Complexity Within Each of the Domains of Competence			
Technical Competence	Clinical Competence	Personal Competence	Critical Competence
<p>Learning/using specific skills/techniques, such as improving use of wait time (Rowe⁴⁴)</p> <p>Learning/using combinations of skills and techniques such as models of teaching (Joyce and Weil⁴⁵)</p>	<p>Analyzing patterns of teaching behavior (Hough and Duncan⁴⁶)</p> <p>Using ideas/themes to examine intents and actions in classroom setting, such as the analysis of the content of school improvement (Lieberman and Miller⁴⁷)</p>	<p>Understanding self in the context of teaching (attitudes, values, strengths, defenses) and dealing with survival concerns (how others perceive me) (Fuller and Bown⁴⁸)</p> <p>Interpreting context, meaning, motives, actions, and situations, such as using transactional analysis (Woollams and Brown⁴⁹)</p>	<p>Raising consciousness about particular school practices to promote thoughtful reflection about schooling (Gitlin⁴⁹)</p> <p>Generating action plans to change self-defeating school practices (based on depth interpretation of everyday life in schools—curriculum, pedagogy, and evaluation practices (Beyer⁴⁴))</p>

Table 2 (continued)

Illustrative Levels of Complexity Within Each of the Domains of Competence			
Technical Competence	Clinical Competence	Personal Competence	Critical Competence
Learning/using combinations of skills and techniques in instructional management and support systems (Everton et al. ⁴⁶)	Thinking more abstractly about work, such as the use of reflective journal writing (Glickman, ⁴⁰ Holly ⁴¹)	Defining one's identity as a professional person (potentially rational/creative teacher capable of continued growth); seeking beliefs-practice congruity (Brown, ⁴⁹ Dobson and Dobson ⁴⁰)	Examining hidden dimensions of cultural history of schooling/education, debunking common conceptions and beliefs about the authority of knowledge and value orientations taught in schools (Ginsberg and Newman ⁴⁵)
Learning/using complex curricular and instructional systems, such as training for adaptive instruction (Wang ⁴⁷)	Action research and practical educational problems (Tikunoff and Ward, ⁵² Oja, ⁵³ Smythe, ⁵⁴ Carr and Kemmis, ⁵⁵ Johnson and Johnson ⁵⁶)	Feeling a sense of community and collegiality with other teachers, resolving issues of power, authority, responsibility, facing moral dilemmas in teaching/evaluating ethical consequences (Tennyson and Strom, ⁴¹ Perry ⁴²)	Collaborative action on behalf of whole community to transform organization and practice of education, emancipatory action research (Carr and Kemmis ⁴⁶)

*The authors wish to acknowledge the major contribution of Sharon Strom, a doctoral candidate at the University of Minnesota, in the development of this illustration.

leagues in schools and school districts to solve common educational concerns. The levels move from analyzing patterns of teacher behavior, to thinking more abstractly about work through the use of reflective journal writing, to using knowledge of the context of schooling to examine intents and actions in classroom setting, and finally to action research models as a way of achieving clinical competence.⁴⁸⁻⁵⁶ In the next section we will illustrate supervisory

⁴⁶John Hough and James Duncan, *Teaching. Description and Analysis* (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1970).

⁴⁹Ann Lieberman and Lynne Miller, *Teachers, Their World, and Their Work* (Alexandria, Va. Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1984).

⁵⁰Carl D. Glickman, *Supervision of Instruction: A Developmental Approach* (Boston. Allyn and Bacon, 1985).

practices related to two examples of clinical competence, one at the initial level (Hough and Duncan's use of interaction analysis) and one at a more sophisticated level (Johnson and Johnson's work on learning communities as an action research focus).

The domain of personal competence is best explicated as a movement from self-awareness and survival concerns on the part of teachers to using knowledge of adult moral and cognitive development to inform teacher practice. At the initial level this would mean fostering an understanding of self in the context of teaching and dealing with survival concerns, particularly referencing the work of Fuller and Bowin.⁵⁷ At a second level, instructional improvement would be a move toward interpreting context including meanings, motives, actions, and situations, such as using transactional analysis (Woollams and Brown⁵⁸). At a third level, personal competence would be derived from defining one's identity as a professional person and seeking beliefs and practice congruity in one's personal teaching style.^{59,60} And finally, at the fourth and highest level, personal competence could be used to establish a sense of community and collegiality with other teachers.^{61,62} Issues of power, authority and responsibility, facing moral dilemmas and evaluating ethical consequences through the use of knowledge about adult moral and cognitive development would be included here. In the next section we will illustrate supervisory practices related to two examples of personal competence, one at the earlier level of the development of concerns (Fuller and

⁵¹Mary Lou Holly, *Keeping a Personal-Professional Journal* (Victoria, Australia: Deakin University Press, 1984).

⁵²William J. Tikunoff and Bernice A. Ward, *Interactive Research and Development on Teaching Study: Final Report* (San Francisco: Far West Regional Laboratory for Educational Research and Development, 1979).

⁵³Sharon Oja, *A Two Year Study of Teacher Stages of Development in Relation to Collaborative Action Research in Schools, Final Report* (Durham, N.H. The University of New Hampshire, Collaborative Action Research Project Office, 1983).

⁵⁴W. John Smyth, "Teachers as Collaborative Learners in Clinical Supervision. A State of the Art Review," *Journal of Education for Teaching* 10 (January 1984): 24-38.

⁵⁵Wilfred Carr and Stephen Kemmis, *Becoming Critical: Knowing Through Action Research* (Victoria, Australia: Deakin University, 1983).

⁵⁶Roger Johnson and David Johnson, "Student-Student Interaction: Ignored But Powerful," *Journal of Teacher Education* 36 (July-August 1985): 22-26.

⁵⁷Francis Fuller and Oliver Brown, "Becoming a Teacher," in *Teacher Education*, ed. Kevin Ryan (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1975).

⁵⁸Stan Woollams and Michael Brown, *TA: The Total Handbook of Transactional Analysis* (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1979).

⁵⁹George I. Brown, "Growth of a Flexible Self Through Creativity and Awareness," in *Perspective for Reform in Teacher Education*, ed. Bruce Joyce and Marsha Weil (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1972), pp. 89-115.

⁶⁰Russell L. Dobson and Judith E. Dobson, "Teacher Beliefs-Practice Congruency," *Viewpoints in Teaching and Learning* 59 (Winter 1983): 20-27.

⁶¹W. Wesley Tennyson and Sharon M. Strom, "Developing Professional Standards: Developing Responsibility," *Journal of Counseling and Development* 64 (January 1986): 298-302.

⁶²William Perry, *Forms of Intellectual and Ethical Development in the College Years* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1980).

Brown) and one at a more complex level (Perry's adult stages of cognitive development).

The fourth and final competence domain is that of achieving critical competence for the purpose of moving from consciousness raising about particular school practices to collaborative or critical inquiry to reconstruct and transform school and society. At the initial level this would be promoting thoughtful reflection about schooling, particularly with reference to self-defeating practices in schools, such as exposing social blocks to critical thinking, exposing stereotypic behavior, and understanding the hidden curriculum.⁶³ At the next level, critical competence could be achieved through the generation of action plans to change self-defeating school practices, based on in-depth interpretation of everyday life in schools including curriculum, instruction, and evaluation practices.⁶⁴ At a third level, critical competence could be achieved through examining the hidden dimensions of schooling, and debunking common conceptions and beliefs about the authority of knowledge and value orientations taught in schools.⁶⁵ And finally, at another level critical competence can be achieved through collaborative action models on behalf of the whole educational community to transform school practice and society through the use of emancipatory action research.⁶⁶ Our illustrations in the next section of supervisory practices related to critical competence will include at the lower level a thoughtful, reflective practice of looking at intents and actions in the classroom (Gitlin) and, at the highest level, an illustration of emancipatory action research, based on Carr and Kemmis' work.

ILLUSTRATIONS OF SUPERVISORY PRACTICE IN EACH COMPETENCE DOMAIN

Supervision for Enhanced Technical Competence

Focus on a singular aspect of instructional behavior The concept of wait time has been a significant focus in research on teaching. Studies have been conducted for over 20 years in contexts ranging from first grade through college classrooms. The efficacy of different supervisory and training procedures in enhancing the quality of discourse in instructional settings has been well documented by focusing upon the variable of wait time. The concern for wait time emanates from the many studies that demonstrated that teachers typically wait one second or less after they ask questions of their students,

⁶³Andrew Gitlin, Rod Ogawa, and Edward Rose, "Supervision, Reflection, and Understanding A Case for Horizontal Evaluation," *Journal of Teacher Education* 35 (May-June 1984): 46-52.

⁶⁴Landon E. Beyer, "Field Experience, Ideology, and the Development of Critical Reflectivity," *Journal of Teacher Education* 35 (May-June 1984): 36-41.

⁶⁵Mark B. Ginsburg and Katherine K. Newman, "Social Inequalities, Schooling, and Teacher Education," *Journal of Teacher Education* 36 (March-April 1985): 49-54.

⁶⁶Wilfred Carr and Stephen Kemmis, *Becoming Critical. Knowing Through Action Research* (Victoria, Australia: Deakin University, 1983).

and that after the students respond they begin another verbal response in less than a second. When teachers prolong their wait time between these exchanges to pauses of three seconds or longer, a number of effects are achieved including the following.

1. The length of student responses increases between 300 and 400 per cent.
2. More student inferences are supported by evidence and logical arguments.
3. The number of questions students ask increases, and the number of experiments they propose increases.
4. Student-student exchanges increase.
5. Failures by students to respond decrease.
6. Teacher disciplinary moves decrease.
7. The number of students voluntarily participating increases.

This effort to increase teacher wait time provides an excellent example of how technical competence focusing specifically on a singular key instructional behavior has been achieved through a supervisory procedure.

We rely here especially on the work of Mary Budd Rowe.⁶⁷ Teachers are provided with specific technical guidelines derived from an explanatory theory. The potency of this theory in action is illustrated through video and written protocols. Teachers are provided with an easily understandable category system, which classifies verbal discourse into types of verbal intentions, structuring, soliciting, responding, and reacting. They are taught to categorize verbal discourse in this manner and provided with feedback on episodes in the classroom that chart verbal discourse on a second-by-second time line. As teachers become familiar with their patterns of discourse and patterns of wait time or pause intervals, they are introduced to a variety of procedures and are subsequently observed in terms of their effectiveness in achieving a relatively stable interval of three seconds or more wait time both before and after they raise questions. Follow-up observation and feedback is essential as patterns of reversion tend to occur in the third or fourth week unless teachers are provided opportunities to discuss the changes they are experiencing in their manner of teaching.

Thus we have an example of supervision that focuses on a specific aspect of teaching behavior, technical in nature. The primary purpose here is to increase teacher effectiveness as documented in measures of student performance in the classroom. Explanatory theory is employed to support the use of wait time, and the primary modes of inquiry are functional and task analyses intended to accomplish a specific end—that of enhanced student participation in classroom discussions.

⁶⁷Mary Budd Rowe, "Wait Time. Slowing Down May Be a Way of Speeding Up," *Journal of Teacher Education* 37 (January-February 1986): 43-50

Focus on a comprehensive set of instructional behaviors The concept of effective classroom management has also been a significant focus in research on teaching and classroom behaviors. Substantial progress has been made in the last two decades in understanding what contributes to on-task instructional behavior and social development in the classroom. A number of training designs incorporating supervisory procedures have evolved including: assertive discipline, cooperative learning, variations on behavior modification or analyses, logical consequences, positive peer culture, reality therapy, social literacy, and classroom management (for both elementary and secondary teachers).

The concern for more effective classroom management is both pervasive and long-standing. In survey after survey of teacher concerns, classroom management and student discipline remain at or near the top of the list. The matter of how to achieve these ends has been debated in forums ranging from local PTAs to congressional subcommittees. In various studies of teaching effectiveness, the efficacy of effective management is well documented as a requisite condition in classrooms where student achievement is better than anticipated. The design briefly reviewed here is the classroom management model developed by Everson and colleagues.⁶⁸

The model employs various supervisory procedures to increase technical competence. The developers derived the model from a number of studies in classrooms, and it focuses upon a more comprehensive and complex set of behaviors than the wait time intervention. Among the various concepts that are attended to in this intervention scheme are: the effects of physical arrangements in the classroom, space, seating assignments, and grouping procedures; teacher behaviors concerned with monitoring, pacing, and transitions between classes and in and out of classrooms; teacher expectations in terms of both instruction and seatwork assignments; analyses of various rewards and sanctions the teacher employs and the consequences of these; and finally, developing guidelines for preventing as well as responding to counterproductive student behavior. In this model teachers are provided with a variety of exercises that are embedded in technical guidelines derived from theory and research. Specific plans are developed to incorporate key concepts associated with what research suggests about effective classroom management. Teachers are required to develop explicit guidelines in terms of their classroom organization and the rules and procedures and the type of rewards and penalties they will employ in various situations. Guidelines for monitoring student behavior are stressed. The model's supervisory aspects call for continuing monitoring and feedback of the teacher's progress in this regard.

While the emphasis is on an interrelated set of comprehensive classroom conditions and behaviors, the focus in this model is still basically technical

⁶⁸Carolyn Everson, Edmund Emmer, B. Clements, Julie Sanford, and M. Worsham, *Classroom Management for Elementary Teachers* (Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall, 1984).

and means/ends in nature. Teachers are asked to master knowledge and skills related to more harmonious and productive functioning by their students. Functional and task analyses characterize the supervisory role with monitoring and feedback essential.

Supervision for Enhanced Clinical Competence

Focus on patterns of teaching behavior to solve problems of practice. Many different techniques have been developed for classifying and analyzing dimensions of teacher and student behavior in classrooms. Instruments have been developed, for example, to examine the degree of interpersonal influence exerted by the teacher, the social-emotional climate of the classroom, and the type of cognition implied in verbal discourse. Invariably, the supervisory role employing such instruments is to provide some interpretive or explanatory analysis of key events and interactions and to assist in providing means to resolving problems or issues that are uncovered. A classic example of such a supervisory approach with a clinical emphasis is the use of the Observational System for Instructional Analysis (OSIA) developed by Hough and Duncan.⁶⁹ This conceptual tool codes classroom behavior, employing audio- or videotaped records of classroom situations. OSIA contains 11 functional categories of instructional behavior engaged in by teachers and students during managerial and instructional activities. This observational system addresses itself to several dimensions of classroom behavior including.

1. teacher-substantive instructional behavior;
2. teacher-appraisal instructional behavior;
3. teacher-managerial instructional behavior;
4. student-substantive instructional behavior;
5. student-appraisal instructional behavior;
6. student-managerial instructional behavior;
7. teacher or student nonfunctional behavior; and
8. teacher-to-teacher, student-to-student, student-to-teacher, or teacher-to-student classroom interaction.⁷⁰

The system has been elaborated as well to include analysis of levels and types of cognitive and affective behavior. Teachers are taught this system and also how to code classroom behaviors using symbols every five seconds on a tally sheet. Data from the tally sheet are then transferred to a summary sheet or matrix for interpretation of the classroom behavior recorded. The teacher is then asked to reflect upon the various strategies he or she has employed to achieve specific instructional goals. Problems arise when classroom behaviors as interpreted in this manner are different from that which the teacher desires or appear to deflect from instructional goals set forth for students.

⁶⁹John Hough and James Duncan, *Teaching: Description and Analysis* (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1970).

⁷⁰*Ibid.*, p. 131.

This approach differs from the examples outlined in the technical dimension of our framework in that a specific instructional improvement focus is not apparent at the outset, such as increased wait time or more effective classroom management. A variety of problems can evolve attached to any number of instructional goals the teacher wishes to accomplish. The emphasis here is on problem identification and then resolution. The conceptual framework undergirding Hough and Duncan's category system limits such problems to instructional discourse in terms of such teaching behaviors as substantive clarification, initiation of information, corrective feedback techniques, and how evaluation and judgment are employed. The supervisor assists the teacher in identifying and experimenting with alternative tactics in classroom discourse and then further examines the effects of these through systematic observation and analysis in light of how well specific instructional goals are met. The primary intent here is to reflect on the consequences of alternative approaches to specific problems of practice and to form more explicit and more intellectually and morally defensible judgments about what to do in particular situations. Central as well to this approach is the reinforcement of a more problem-oriented and experimental mind-set about teaching.

Focus on action research attached to a comprehensive intervention in the classroom. While much has been written about social development and its relationship to schooling, only recently have specific interventions in classrooms been employed to study the effect of different classroom environments on social development and academic achievement. The social and emotional development of students is a common teacher concern, yet how students perceive one another and interact with one another in terms of promoting social and emotional development is largely ignored in formal planning for instruction. For better or for worse it is viewed largely as a by-product of instruction. Recently, however, Johnson and Johnson⁷¹ have built upon the pioneer work that Deutsch began in the late 1940s and have identified three classroom goal structures from a social perspective: the competitive, the individualistic, and the cooperative. They have been especially concerned with the introduction of a goal structure that frequently calls for students' cooperation since the normative pattern in classrooms tends to be highly competitive and, as several studies have indicated, contributes unnecessarily to undesired consequences. A cooperative social interaction pattern is defined as one in which the goals of separate individuals are linked together in a way that they can achieve success only if all parties achieve their goals. Johnson and Johnson underscore that there are appropriate times for cooperative structures as well as for competitive and individualistic ones.

Extensive research has been conducted on the effects of these different goal structures on student achievement, attitudes toward self and others, and

⁷¹Roger Johnson and David Johnson, "Student Student Interaction Ignored But Powerful," *Journal of Teacher Education* 36 (July-August 1985): 22-26.

acceptance of differences in peers. These data commonly support the use of cooperative goal structures, and Johnson and Johnson report the following findings.

1. Cooperative learning experiences tend to promote more learning than do competitive or individualistic learning experiences.
2. Cooperative learning experiences tend to promote greater motivation to learn.
3. Cooperative learning experiences tend to produce more positive attitudes toward the instructional experience and the instructor.
4. Cooperative learning experiences are related to higher levels of self-esteem.
5. Cooperative learning experiences result in conditions that other students care about how much others learn and are motivated as well to provide assistance.⁷²

As opposed to the problem-solving activity we briefly described above as an example of a clinical supervisory focus, Johnson and Johnson employ a specific intervention but with a mutually developed research design attached to it. Thus the problem-orientation in this example is not to define a problem and then resolve it through various means as is the situation with Hough and Duncan, but rather to study the various effects of a specific intervention and then modify it accordingly. Working together, the supervisor and the teachers in this clinical approach mutually agree upon a specific research problem such as the relationship of a cooperative approach to instruction in a given content area and how students accept other students of differing aptitude, gender, or race. Supervisory responsibilities here include assistance in the development of an intervention as part of an empirical study and not just an alternative approach to instruction. Specific roles and responsibilities are jointly decided given a research problem of mutual interest. Decisions regarding sampling, instrument selection, data analysis, and interpretation involve teachers to various degrees. The primary supervisory role in this clinical approach goes beyond practical reasoning to the design of a classroom intervention that allows for a level of explanatory knowledge associated with forms of empirical study. Supervisory monitoring in this regard calls for a form and level of expertise that extends beyond that reflected in the technical experts or master craftsman.

Supervision for Enhanced Personal Competence

Focus on personal development and teacher survival concerns. A number of developmental orientations have implications for how teachers develop, including theories of cognitive and moral development, phases of socialization, and personal survival concerns. In reference to personal development as a teacher, Fuller and Bown⁷³ have tentatively identified and labeled three stages of learning to teach—survival, mastery, and stabilizing—wherein the

⁷²Ibid., p. 23.

⁷³Francis Fuller and Oliver Brown, *Becoming a Teacher*, in *Teacher Education*, ed. Kevin Ryan (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1975).

teacher either settles into a routine and resists change or becomes increasingly concerned or focused on pupil growth and development. Further, these stages are presented mainly in relation to what the teacher is concerned about rather than what the teacher actually accomplishes in the classroom.

Fuller and Bown document the stress teachers report with every stage, particularly in the early survival concerns phase. Relatedly, they have also posited a complementary conceptualization of the facets of the teacher's life span, depicted graphically in triangular form.⁷⁴ One facet of teachers' life space is their ongoing experiences. A second facet is their goal. And a third facet is teachers' perceptions of observations about themselves as reflected from others. At issue in this conception is the discrepancy or difference between how teachers feel about their own competence and how they want their competence to develop and how others view their competence. The experience of becoming a teacher and consequently moving through the three stages identified earlier is contingent on coping with one's internal self evaluation, and self-observation, and with external self-evaluation.

In this model of personal development, the role of the instructional supervisor is critical. Through continuing observation of the developing teacher, the supervisor gives important feedback and review not only of teaching technique but also of personal well-being. Often these observations do not match those the teacher feels internally (e.g., the supervisor's observation that the teacher looked nervous, the teacher's response, "But I didn't feel nervous!").⁷⁵ Reducing these kinds of discrepancies is important to the teacher's achievement of personal competence. Supervisors can assist in this development in a number of ways. First, the supervisor must build a trust relationship wherein the observation sessions are viewed as support as much as or more than as evaluation. Second, the supervisor must provide critical feedback in the context of teacher goals as well as an objective report of what happened, which can be accomplished by asking teachers to specify intents and also feelings about how the lesson was achieved. These personal reports can be cues for the supervisor's subsequent report. And finally, as supervisors are aware of stages of teacher development and this model of personal development, they can organize support activities that progress at a rate to match the teacher's personal development as well as the teacher's maturing instructional skill.

Focus on a theory of adult stages of cognitive development to improve classroom practice. In the previous illustration we referred to developmental theories or sets of interrelated propositions about how development occurs over the life span that may be applicable to support teacher development, during both the preservice and the inservice years. In contrast to theories of teacher development are other theories related to adult cognitive develop-

⁷⁴Ibid., p. 43.

⁷⁵Ibid.

ment, such as Perry's⁷⁶ theory on the development of college-age students. Applications of Perry's theory have extended beyond the college-age student and can be useful as well in the inservice education of teachers. Essentially Perry's theory of cognitive development includes a set of assumptions that act as a filter or a set of lenses dictating how individuals will perceive, organize, and evaluate experiences and events in life and more directly how they behave and feel in response to these events. Perry posits a set of nine positions representing a set of cognitive structures that reflect different ways of learning, that is, persons at different positions of development appear to learn better in different environments.

The stages of Perry's theory are concerned with "how" individuals think and assume a sequential, hierarchical, and qualitatively different way of thinking as they mature and move from one stage to another. Perry characterizes the initial three stages of adult cognitive development as stages of dualism. At this level teachers, students, or learners assume that the answers to questions about knowledge are known. Dualists in Position 1 can move into Positions 2 and 3 of dualism wherein they are finally able to deal with the relative absoluteness of knowledge but only in the sense that certain answers are not yet known, but will be forthcoming as soon as experts figure out how to reply to these questions.

With the appropriate amounts of challenge and support, a teacher and/or student can move from dualistic thinking into relativistic thinking. Relativists see knowledge and evaluation as contextual. In Position 4 most questions of knowledge and valuation cannot be answered with absolute truth. Uncertainty prevails except in a few small corners where truths may still be known. However, in Positions 5 and 6 the learner or teacher or student is able to come to understand that knowledge or truth cannot be arrived at through any absolute set of criteria, but rather questions of knowledge and personal meaning and identity are understood as a function of personal commitment, which is accompanied by a considerable amount of uncertainty. Ultimately an adult in mature stages of development can move from the highest positions of relativism into stages clustered in Positions 7, 8, and 9 as commitment to relativism. In these instances, the positions are largely psychosocial in nature, meaning that with the proper amount of understanding of the ambiguity of knowledge, persons can then make certain long-term and life commitments.

This brief explanation of Perry's theory of adult development has applicability to both pre- and inservice teacher education. Perry's stage theory and other theories of adult development appear to be related not only to differential functioning in the largely cognitive aspects of teaching but also to the degree to which one is able and inclined to act autonomously and with self control. They also speak to the degree to which one is able to respond

⁷⁶William Perry, *Forms of Intellectual and Ethical Development in the College Years* (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1980)

allocentrically and with compassion. A teacher's level of developmental or psychological maturity then may well be a precondition for internalizing certain concepts and manifesting certain behaviors in teaching practice. Our position is that whatever the eventual validity of various emerging developmental constructs, there is enough inherent logic and empirical support to justify this focus in teacher education and in supervisory practice. In this regard supervisors should keep in mind that: (1) an emphasis on developmental differences in adults as well as youngsters is foundational to a fuller understanding of individual differences generally and oneself specifically, (2) supervisory activities should be designed so as to involve a proper amount of support and challenge to accommodate the developmental stage or position that the teacher is presently in as well as the teacher's potential to move to a higher level of cognitive development, and (3) they can support the teacher in the process of development by giving considerable feedback to the teacher's manifestation of certain adult behaviors. This could be done in a reflection-action-reflection format incorporating such notions as proposed by Sprinthall and Theis-Sprinthall⁷⁷ on perspective-taking, guided integration, continuity, and personal support and challenge.

Appropriate questions with regard to the supervisory practice and knowledge of adult development would suggest that supervisors might first attempt assessments, formal and informal, of the cognitive development of the teachers they are supervising. They might then work out supervisory practices that encourage teachers to reflect on their personal value systems in light of both the developmental level of their own goals for ongoing human development. Such a disposition on the part of teachers in pre- and inservice education to reflect on their own actions and their transactions with students reinforces reflection. Such an approach to supervision should serve not only as a developmental support system for teachers but also encourage them to be more cognizant of developmental stages of the pupils they teach. Further, more developmentally mature teachers would also be disposed to examine multiple perspectives on teaching and learning. This is a hallmark of developmental and psychological maturity.

Supervision for Enhanced Critical Competence

Focus on a system of horizontal supervision to explicate intents and action in the classroom. In order to explicate a process of critical competence at the initial level (i.e., raising consciousness about particular school practices), we will draw from an approach to supervision explicated by Gitlin⁷⁸ and

⁷⁷Norman Sprinthall and Lois Theis-Sprinthall, "The Teacher as an Adult Learner. A Cognitive Developmental View," in *Staff Development, The Eighty-Second Yearbook of NSSE, Part II*, ed. Gary Griffin (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1983)

⁷⁸Andrew Gitlin, "Horizontal Evaluation. An Approach to Student Teacher Supervision," *Journal of Teacher Education* 32 (September-October 1981): 47-50.

referred to as horizontal evaluation. Gitlin's model of horizontal supervision takes issue with the competency based approach to the assessment of teachers since this skill orientation does not adequately allow for the reflective understanding of the linkage between theory and practice. Rather, Gitlin proposes a system of evaluation that has a horizontal aim and is an adaptation of Simon's⁷⁹ concept of educational platforms. "Espoused platforms are what people say govern their behavior. Platforms in use are inferred from actual behavior."⁸⁰ Horizontal evaluation expands this concept not only to examine the discrepancies or congruence between intent and practice but also to introduce techniques that help teachers question and revise beliefs (intents) that guide their practice.⁸¹

In a step-by-step procedure supervisors and teachers establish both long- and short term goals, observe lessons focusing on these goals, and critique in terms of intent related to the practice as well as intent alone. Several strategies assist in the analysis of intent to practice, including adopting historical perspectives on intent, generating alternative practice and language analysis. Assessments of the justification of intent are conducted through a categorical review of intents, the appropriateness of intent within categories, and testing intents against hypothetical supervision generated dilemmas. In this way Gitlin believes the supervisor assists the teacher in the acquisition of particular skills while also examining the political, moral, and ethical issues associated with teaching. This system also assumes a collaborative agreement on the skills to be studied, unlike the underlying assumptions of approaches reflected in an emphasis on technical competence.

This model suggests to us that horizontally trained supervisors allow teachers to have a role in setting supervisory agendas and to use a variety of approaches in the analysis of teacher activities. Also, supervisory approach covers a broad scope of classroom issues and supervisory analyses that are less particularistic and more relational. Therefore, Gitlin concludes that horizontal supervision creates more reflective and self-evaluative perspectives and causes teachers to view teaching more as a holistic process than a collection of technical skills. We believe this supervisory model explicates a process of achieving critical competence that begins with the teacher assuming a critical role in reflecting on what he or she intends to do in the classroom and ultimately what the actual results are from social, moral, and political perspectives. This model of horizontal supervision can provide the ground work not only for self analysis by a teacher, but also critical analysis of classroom events, which leads to some mode of emancipatory action research to actually create changes in the classroom context and beyond.

⁷⁹Alan E. Simon, "Analyzing Educational Platforms: A Supervisory Strategy," *Educational Leadership* 34 (May 1977): 580-584.

⁸⁰*Ibid.*, p. 581.

⁸¹Andrew Gitlin, "Horizontal Evaluation: An Approach to Student Teacher Supervision," *Journal of Teacher Education* 32 (September-October 1981): 48.

Focus on emancipatory action research in improving instructional processes and in changing school and social practice. Collaborative action research was first referred to in the late '40s (Lewin⁸² and Lippitt⁸³) as a process that emphasized and encouraged the cooperative study of problems by practitioners and researchers. It is also referred to today as interactive research and development and collaborative action research. This approach presupposes a collaborative team of investigators, usually composed of a researcher, a staff developer, and several teachers who make collaborative decisions regarding research questions, data collection, and analysis.

According to Carr and Kemmis,⁸⁴ certain teachers have always made their own way toward the systematic study of teaching. We believe, however, that supervisory practices that focus on encouraging teacher inquiry in the classroom can also facilitate more advanced development in the clinical domain. As such, there are numerous instances of collaborative action research in the classroom. Oberg⁸⁵ designed a plan for developing personal knowledge of education practice through "self discovery of the understanding, beliefs, and assumptions that are the source of explanation and justification for a professional educator's practical action." Jacullo-Noto⁸⁶ formed teams of teachers, researchers, and developers in self-contained settings where teachers also served as research developers with university collaboration at the technical level. In this instance the teacher inquirers were beginning-year teachers. Other forms of collaborative action research designed to stimulate teacher growth include providing for teacher reflection to the development of "narratives of experience" (Connelly and Clandinin⁸⁷), teachers focusing on problems of practice through interactive reflection (Buchmann⁸⁸), and teacher disclosure of significant belief structures which become the foundations for critical organizational processes (Braunstein and Schwartz⁸⁹).

Essentially these various modes of collaborative action research include a set of activities including curriculum development, professional develop-

⁸²Kurt Lewin, *Resolving Social Conflict* (New York: Teachers College Press, 1948)

⁸³Robert Lippitt, *Training in Community Relations. A Research Exploration Toward New Group Skills* (New York: Harper, 1949).

⁸⁴Wilfred Carr and Stephen Kemmis, *Becoming Critical Knowing Through Action Research* (Victoria, Australia: Deakin University, 1983)

⁸⁵Antoinette A. Oberg, "The Personal Knowledge of the Practitioner" (paper presented at the Meadow Brook Research Symposium, Rochester, Michigan, January 1985)

⁸⁶Joann Jacullo-Noto, "Collaborative Action Research and Staff Development" (paper presented at the Meadow Brook Research Symposium, Rochester, Michigan, January 1985).

⁸⁷F. Michael Connelly and Jean Clandinin, "Narrative History and the Study of Minded Practice" (paper presented at the Meadow Brook Research Symposium, Rochester, Michigan, January 1985).

⁸⁸Margret Buchmann, "Improving Education by Keeping Educational Research and Practice Apart" (paper presented at the Meadow Brook Research Symposium, Rochester, Michigan, January 1985).

⁸⁹David Braunstein and Henrietta Schwartz, "Organizational Myths, Scripts, and Retrospective Sensemaking" (paper presented at the Meadow Brook Research Symposium, Rochester, Michigan, January 1985).

ment, school improvement, and instructional development. These strategies are implemented and then systematically submitted to observation, reflection, and change. In this system participants are centrally involved in the identification of inquiry questions and the pursuit of knowledge generation in the classroom. Carr and Kemmis⁹⁰ and Kemmis and McTaggart⁹¹ have derived a system of collaborative action research that assumes a model that requires a teacher to develop a plan of action to improve what is happening, to act to implement the plan, to observe the effects of action in the context in which it occurs, and to reflect on these effects as a basis for further planning subsequent action, and so on, through a succession of cycles. Teachers are cautioned to select problems that are within their ability to confront and also to consider not only improving the situation, but changing the context in which the problem occurs.

Action research has been delineated in at least three modes in an attempt to differentiate the critical aspect of Carr and Kemmis' version of collaborative action research. Specifically, "technical action research" consists of facilitators or researchers working with practitioners on externally generated questions and issues not based on the practical concerns of the teacher. More often, however, "practical action research" occurs wherein outsiders form cooperative relationships with practitioners and help them to monitor concerns and plan strategies and actions to change educational practices. Although practitioners monitor their own educational practices, the ultimate form of collaborative action research according to Carr and Kemmis is "emancipatory action research," wherein the responsibility for practice in action research lies exclusively with the participant group, that is, the teacher. The immediate aim of emancipatory action research is improvement, wherein the teacher is emancipated from externally imposed dictates driven by tradition, precedent, habit, cohesion, or self-deception. Further, emancipatory action research differentiates itself from other forms of practical action research in that it incorporates a social perspective that goes beyond the development of professional wisdom to the development of the profession and the social relations of education. It provokes a critical response to the organizational constraints that reinforce the status quo. And finally, its aim is primarily the transformation of the organization and the practice of education, and not only the transformation of the individual's instructional practice.

In emancipatory action research the supervisor serves as a "moderator", that is, "one who helps to build group understanding of the conditions necessary for the organization of enlightenment" (Carr and Kemmis⁹²). Con-

⁹⁰Wilfred Carr and Stephen Kemmis, *Becoming Critical. Knowing Through Action Research* (Victoria, Australia; Deakin University, 1983).

⁹¹Stephen Kemmis and Robin McTaggart, *The Action Research Planner* (Victoria, Australia; Deakin University Press, 1982).

⁹²Wilfred Carr and Stephen Kemmis, *Becoming Critical. Knowing Through Action Research* (Victoria, Australia; Deakin University, 1983), p. 176.

sequently the supervisor or facilitator must be particularly responsive to idea generation as vested in the teacher participant. It is a notion based on the spiral of self-reflection inherent in the planning, acting, observing, and reflecting model. And it is essentially participatory; that is, it involves participants in reflection on their own practices. Finally, according to Carr and Kemmis, emancipatory action research expresses "... a commitment to the improvement of practices, practitioners' understandings and the settings of practice ... and it is collaborative involving wherever possible coparticipants in the organization of their own enlightenment in relation to social, political action in their own situations."⁹³

CONCLUSION

Our purpose in this article has been threefold. first, to explicate four types of teacher competence as they might relate to supervision, by looking particularly at these competence domains in relation to a conception of teaching, the focus of supervision, and the roles of supervisor; second, to explicate levels or degrees of comprehensiveness and complexity within each of these competence domains, and, third, to provide specific illustrations of approaches to supervisory practice within these competence domains. Our goal has been to underline the fundamental importance of supervision to the process of educating teachers in both pre- and inservice programs.

Although a range of supervision models exist that may be applicable to teacher education, they are explicated largely at the process level. It is our assumption that inherent in each of these models or approaches to supervision is a particular orientation toward instructional improvement, but a substantive differentiation of the primary purposes of supervisory practice has not been forthcoming. Recently May and Zimpher⁹⁴ attempted an explication of supervisory practice in the context of the theoretical roots that reflect philosophical perspectives on understanding these various phenomena. We have attempted an understanding of supervisory practice through specified competence domains served by both pre- and inservice teacher education.

A next step, beyond the scope of this effort, in making supervisory practice more readily appropriate to alternative perspectives on instructional improvement is to single out which supervisory practices could best facilitate each of these domains at all levels of complexity rather than illustratively as we have attempted herein.

⁹³Ibid., p. 178.

⁹⁴Wanda T. May and Nancy L. Zimpher, "An Examination of Three Theoretical Perspectives on Supervision: Perceptions of Preservice Field Supervision," *Journal of Curriculum and Supervision* 1 (Winter 1986): 83-99.

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Aronowitz, Stanley, and Giroux, Henry A. *Education Under Siege. The Conservative, Liberal, and Radical Debate over Schooling*. South Hadley, Mass.: Bergin and Garvey, 1985. 233 pp. \$12.95, \$27.95.

After critiquing dominant forms of schooling and thought about schooling, the authors—a noted political theorist and a widely published curriculum theorist—develop radical interpretations of schools as places for the formation of democracy based on theories by Dewey, Gramsci, and Freire. The analysis deals with issues of educational reform, teaching and the role of transformative intellectuals, mass culture and critical pedagogy, the literacy crisis, reproduction and resistance, radical pedagogy, curriculum theory and possibility, conservative ideology and higher education, computer technology, the crisis in public philosophy, and schooling and the future.

—William H. Schubert

Carr, Wilfred, and Stephen Kemmis. *Becoming Critical. Knowing Through Action Research*. Rev ed Victoria, Australia. Deakin University Press, 1986. 249 pp. A\$12.95.

In the most thorough treatment available on action research as a critical educational science, the authors present arguments for and against the natural science and the interpretive views of educational theory and practice. They then argue that a critical approach to educational science can best meet the requirements for authentic educational research while at the same time overcoming the limitations of these other two views. Finally, they argue that collaborative emancipatory action research is the most appropriate form of critical educational science, given an accurate view of education and research. This newly revised treatise is destined to challenge current conceptions of action research and its role in educational reform and research.

Caruso, Joseph J., and M. Temple Fawcett. *Supervision in Early Childhood Education: A Developmental Perspective*. New York: Teachers College Press, 1986. 242 pp. \$16.95.

The authors present practical guidelines for supervisors on the job or in training to work with teachers in day care centers, nursery schools, Head Start programs, school kindergartens, or the primary grades, which are based on the concept of development in both supervisor and supervisee experience and the five stages of clinical supervision. They also offer strategies for staff development and training.

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