CHAPTER II

As the survival of our remote ancestors was
dependent upon their ability to capture game, our
own survival is dependent on our ability to generate
and to capture ideas. The constant search for the
practical application and for the obvious result
with the consequent exclusion of other intellectual
pursuits can only lead to the nourishment of
mediocrity and eventually to our downfall. This
respect for basic research accounts for the many
recent dramatic advances in social science research.
Without a similar orientation in education, we can
scarcely hope to engage in successful long-range
programatic research.

> - Harrison Brown
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> (in "The Case for
> Pure Research)

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REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH

(MAJOR FINDINGS, TRENDS AND

GENERALISATIONS)

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter an attempt was made to describe

and discuss some theoretical perspectives on supervision work

in high schools.   In the last fifty years or so, considerable

Research

efforts have been expended to conceptualise on scientific

lines school or educational supervision, identify major

principles of effective school supervision, examine critically

the validity and effectiveness of various supervisory tools,

activities and methods, determine the leadership qualities

as well as academic and professional equipment of supervisors

which contribute to effective guidance, assistance in

improvement of instructional work, the possible effects that

organizational climate of schools and staff morale have on

school quality and supervisory principles, the survey of

conditions in schools, particularly high schools of Gujarat,

evaluation of the current supervisory activities being

practised by Gujarat schools, identification of obstacles to

effective supervision work and such other factors or

variables that influence the effectiveness of supervision

work in schools. The purposes of this review of research

are mainly three : (a) to collect supporting or otherwise

reliable and valid evidences for the theoretical propositions

made in the previous chapter; (b) to identify trends in

thinking as well as in researches on educational supervision;

and (c) to identify or build up generalizations which could

serve as beacon light to make school supervision effective

in high schools of Gujarat.

The investigator has examined a good deal of research

work on educational supervision, both Western as well as

Indian. The research work includes individual studies,

group studies, research projects, masters' and doctoral

dissertations, published research papers, and survey of

researches reported in Yearbooks, and Educational Research

Encyclopaedias. He has tried to be selective and brief so

as to guard against mechanical dull presentation. He has

chosen to limit the findings to only significant components

or facets of supervision and there also he has tried to limit

himself to studies that are representative, that is to say,
which
studies put together would present a fairly, if not fully,

comprehensive picture of school supervision.

The review of research includes mostly the studies done since fifties, though some older studies that touch the core of the theme of the present investigation are also covered in the review.

This chapter is organised under the following sub-heads :
- The Evolution of Educational Supervision
- The Concept of Educational Supervision
- Principles of Supervision
- Programmes of Supervision
- Methods and techniques of Supervision
- Conditions favouring or hindering effective Supervision
- Correlation Studies on organizational climate of schools, leadership, teacher morale, pupil academic motivation and some other variables.

Each of these sub-heads will be dealt with in subsequent sections of the current chapter.

2.2 THE EVOLUTION OF EDUCATIONAL SUPERVISION

Boardman, Douglass and Bent (1953) have traced the early beginning of supervision in the United States to the early colonial period. In 1654, the recruitment and supervisory functions lay with the selectmen of the towns. In 1709, a committee of laymen was set up to visit the schools, to inquire into the methods of teaching, the proficiency of the

scholars and to formulate means for the 'advancement and

learning and the good Government of the schools. With the

growth of the schools, as local communities in the country

increased in size, there came about the selection and appoint-

ment of one of the teachers as the headmaster or principal.

However, in the early stage, no supervisory functions,

authority or responsibility were assigned to them. The Office

of Superintendent of Schools came into being with the growth

of schools and the number of complexity of school attitudes.

A division of duties took place between the Superintendent of

Schools and the school principal. The principal came to be

laden with some responsibilities such as controlling,

discipline, keeping records and making reports of the academic

and other facets of the school.

> "Supervisory authority by either superintendent
> or principal was only slowly acquired;
> indeed, in some communities these schools
> have not yet acquired supervisory responsi-
> bility. By the middle of the nineteenth
> century some superintendents had obtained
> authority to release principals from part
> of their teaching load that they might
> assist teachers. The evolution of this
> movement was slow until the latter quarter
> of the nineteenth century, but the develop-
> ment of cities and the growth of the schools
> finally led to the principal's becoming,
> in our larger schools at least, a full-time
> administrator and supervisor." (p.25)

The general conclusion of studies by Burtom and Bruecknor

(1938), Cooper (1946), Broaded (1947), Boardman, Douglass and

Bent (1953), and others is that educational supervision

acquired its real focus and emphasis only in the present
century which has been a witness to a rapid movement in the
development of supervision and in the advancement of the
principalship to a full-time supervisory and administrative
office in the United States.

In India, the Wood's Despatch of 1854 laid the foundation
of modern type of educational system. Therefore, the modern
high schools has been the product of the later half of the
nineteenth century. Systems of Grant-in-aid came to be
developed and introduced in different parts of British India
from 1861. The private enterprise in secondary education
became very rapid between 1882 and 1902. It is not known
when exactly the supervision came to be evolved in Indian
secondary schools, but it is very likely that it became one
of the responsibilities of the headmaster of the high school
when his his duties and responsibilities were specified more
fully in the Grant-in-aid Code. The appointment of some
senior teacher or teachers as part-time supervisors has been
only a recent development of the fifties. Recently, in
Gujarat, the Desai Pay Commission (February 1975) has
recognised one supervisor for seven classes and an additional
supervision allowance of Rs. 50/- per month to the supervisor
has been accepted.

2.3 THE CONCEPT OF EDUCATIONAL SUPERVISION

Burton and Brueckner's conclusion is that supervision
was first conceived as a form of inspection. Boardman,
Brueckner and Bent have stated that inspectional supervision
was characteristic of the periods of the Latin Grammar School
and the Academy. In fact, supervision was a bye-product of
a development in the United States in the early eighteenth
century to inspect the school plant, equipment and the level
of achievement of pupils. Godynn (1965) reported that
supervision was carried forward as an inspection role until
about 1920. Supervision was construed to mean inspection of
instructional activities of teachers and the outcomes of
teaching. Boardman, Brueckner and Bent elaborate the
inspectorial concept of supervision prevalent in the past
in these words: "Having the authority and being held
responsible for results, the tendency was strong for them to
tell the teacher both what to teach and how to teach."(p.26)
To the inspectional concept of supervision were added
autocratic methods of dealing with the teachers and
directing instructional activities.

Alberty and Thayer (1955) identified some characteristics
of the inspectorial inspection type supervision, viz., tradi-
tional, teacher-centred, limited to class visitation and
face-to-face conferences, random and haphazard, imposed and
authoritarian and the instrumentality of one person&
usually.

Boardman, Douglass and Bent concluded that the inspectorial autocratic concept of supervision was still found in the early years of fifties in a large number of schools in the United States.

> "Arising in a bygone day, it has continued partly
> because of lack of knowledge on the part
> of the principals and superintendents of
> other and better methods of supervision,
> and partly because of the generous measure of
> authority vested in them. On the other hand,
> the lack of adequate preparation of teachers
> for their work, the need for rapidly inducting
> and orienting inexperienced teachers into
> their work, the rapid and large turnover of
> teachers, and the assignment to them of
> subjects in which they have little or no
> preparation all have tended to perpetuate
> this unfortunate concept of supervision."(pp.26-27)

Brim's (1930) study reveals how a change came over, gradually in this traditional concept of supervision. The causative factors were : growing evidences of educational science that there are too many variable factors in the classroom situation to permit the laying down the known, definite, fixed best methods of teaching, realization of the fact that autocratic concept of supervision suppresses teaching initiative and originality and encourages mediocrity and pattern of teaching, acceptance of the fact that autocratic supervision develops fear and distrust of the supervisor militates against sincerity and honesty and discourages the best teachers from remaining in the teaching profession.

Between 1930 and 1950, a good deal of general literature and studies on supervision appeared on the educational scene in the United States which provides a definite pointer to the emergence of the new or modern concept of supervision.

Burton (1940) characterized modern supervision as democratic and cooperative and identified six operative principles. They are : (1) Supervision is leadership; (2) it studies and improves the total teaching-learning situation; (3) it solicits and ensures contributions of all teachers; (4) provides teachers freedom and initiative within a cooperatively determined policy; (5) emphasises fundamentals rather than trivial details; and (6) proceeds in terms of a union of facts with the values of democracy.

Boardman, Douglass and Bent, Burton and Brueckner and others have summarised succinctly different interpretations given to the modern concept of supervision. These are :

- Supervision is democratic
- It is cooperative
- It is scientific
- It is creative
- It is philosophic
- It is leadership in practice
- It is training and guidance
- It is instructional planning
- It is a social process

- It is experimental and innovative

- It is human relationship

- It is staff-morale oriented

- It is situational

- It is effective coordinating theory and practice.

Barr, Burton and Brueckner (1953) have differentiated the old and modern concept of supervision based on their survey of conceptual development of supervision as under :

"Traditional supervision was largely inspection
of the teacher by means of visitation and
conference carried on in a random manner,
with suggestions imposed on the teacher
through authority and usually by one person.
Modern supervision by contrast is the study
and analysis of the total teaching-learning
situation through many diverse functions
operating a carefully planned programme
that has been cooperatively derived from
the needs of the situation and in which
many persons participate." (p.14)

School supervision is not a theme sufficiently investigated in Indian situation. Not many studies have been reported on supervision in Gujarat and in other parts of the country. Mukerji (1960) found the following ingredients of the concept of supervision :

- Constructive criticism regarding teaching methods and techniques.

- Formulating teaching units.

- Guidance in the better use of audio-visual aids.

- Guidance in maintaining pupils' records.

- Suggestions for professional reading.

- Assistance in improved procedures of evaluation.

- Help in integrating curricular and co-curricular activities.

- Guidance in handling pupil behaviour and disciplinary cases.

Joshi's (1959) study of supervision in secondary schools of Gujarat revealed a limited concept of supervision consisting mostly of observation of class teaching, piloting teachers' meeting, checking lesson notes, individual conferences with teachers, writing teachers' Log Book and instructing teachers on their academic and instructional problems.

In a study done by the State Institute of Education, Gujarat State (1968), it was found that 56.0 per cent of supervisors themselves were ignorant of the new concept and techniques of supervision.

Rawat (1970) found a predominant note in the conception of supervision, namely, guiding teachers to develop professional efficiency and motivating them to take up new experiments.

Desai (1971) generalises on the basis of his review of researches on educational inspection and supervision in India that "the prevailing concept and practices in school supervision and inspection have acted more as coercive rather than stimulating and releasing creative talents of teachers."

The modern trend in school supervision, as revealed in studies in this area, lays its focus on the improvement of teaching-learning that go on in the school, but this improvement process is being conceived to be a planned one, wherein teachers' full co-operationnand participation is favoured, and it is maintained that, due recognition of individual teacher's talents and aptitudes needs to be taken care of; in this improvement process the instructional leadership of the school principal and school supervisor has a vital role to play by building up group leadership, by improving human relationship by creating adequate conditions for improving staff morale.

2.4 PRINCIPLES AND FUNCTIONS OF SUPERVISION

Not many studies seem to have been attempted on identifying or formulating principles of supervision in schools. This is evident from the Encyclopaedia of Educational Research edited by Monroe (1956), Harris (1960) and Ebel (1970), Year Book (Indian) on Educational Research by Adaval (1968) and 'A Survey of Research (Indian) in Education by Buch (1974).

Ayer and Barr (1928) drew pointed attention to the organization of supervision and set forth some guiding principles. Broadman, Douglass and Bent (1953) developed some ten principles for organization of supervision. The stress here was on democratic set-up, open climate and stimulating leadership.

The Eighth Year Book of Superintendents (1931), Eleventh Year Book of Supervisors and Directors of Instructors (1938) Rorer (1942), Misner (1943), Barr, Burton and Brueckner (1947) initiated first exercises in identifying or architecturing principles of educational supervision. Adams and Dickey (1953) came out, perhaps for the first time with an extensive comprehensive statements numbering eighty-three and depth discussion on the basic principles of supervision. The major focus in these principles are democracy, freedom, security, planning, improvement of teaching-learning, development of instructional materials, inservice teacher growth and evaluation.

Amidon and Powell (1966) identified five principles on which the supervisors should base their efforts to improve teaching by teachers through supervision :

- The supervisor must be given tool for assessing the effects of his own behaviour on the teacher;

- The tool should be able to describe what the teacher does in the classroom;

- Feedback is essential to the improvement of both teaching and supervisory skills;

- Both teachers and supervisors must be free to experiment with these skills which they wish to improve; and

- The direction of improvement must be arrived at by the teacher with the help of his supervisor.

Desai (1971) has suggested the principles of inservice professional growth, democratic base, curriculum redevelopment and improvement and stimulating teacher creativity as the basic principles of supervision in school.

In the post-war period general literature and studies, there is a trend to refer more to the functions of supervision rather than to the principles of supervision. Crosby (1957), Harris (1963), Curtin (1964), Wiles (1967) and Herald and Moore (1968) all suggest that the fundamental of instructional supervision is to bring about improvement in instruction. Fye and Nefzer (1965) assert that though there is a dichotomy of functions between administration and supervision, the latter is the function of administration.

The trend of research in supervision in the sixties, which has continued in the seventies also, has been that teachers should be involved in the process of their own professional improvement and supervision should assume the overtimes of service to teachers to enable them to be better teachers and provide more effective instruction.

2.5 SUPERVISORY ACTIVITIES IN SCHOOLS

Some of the studies refer to supervisory activities or programmes operating in school systems of individual schools. Studies in the U.S.A. pertain more to school systems whereas the Indian studies refer to individual schools situated in some particular geographical areas or region.

Shaftel (1957) has shown that in the first quarter of the century, teachers in the United States were generally directed closely by administrative personnel, and supervisory responsibilities for instructional improvement continued to be viewed as an arm of administration. It was later that influenced by the scientific management movement, "scientific supervision" developed which laid emphasis on measurement, testing and the setting of standards to be achieved by pupils and teachers.

A study (1948) reported in Twenty-seventh Year Book of the Department of School Principals of the NEA listed fifteen common supervisory practices, but revealed that only four of them were employed by three-quarters of the principals, and only none by 50 per cent. Helping individual teachers was listed by 97 per cent of the principals, and while that activity was costly of time, it appeared to be a primary concern of principals. The study concluded with the following recommendation :

> "Principals should seek to develop experimental
> and creative attitudes and procedures in
> the field of supervision. New ideas and
> processes, based upon research and study,
> are heeded to lift supervision above dull
> and obvious methods."

Towards' (1956) study of the supervisory activities showed that teachers rated help from other teachers as the most effective supervisory practice, but principals rated it at rank thirteen. It was also seen from this study that

principals rated their conferences with teachers as the
as the second best practice. However, teachers gave
fourteenth rank to this supervisory practice.

Cappa and Van Melton (1957) indicated in their study
that teachers preferred small group meetings, bulleting,
visitations and conferences to other supervisory activities.

Manley (1958) studied the services rendered by school
supervisors to teachers, principals and superintendents.
They fall into two main groups, services which relate to
(a) providing for inservice growth of teachers, and
(b) services which foster good human relationships.

Each of the three groups (i.e. teachers, principals,
and superintendents) gave highest rank to 'attending meetings
of professional organizations'. Each group gave second,
third and fourth place to these items :

- "Demonstrating a personal interest in the welfare and
  happiness of all teachers";
- "Recognizing process, commending and encouraging
  teachers"; and
- "Working on committees in professional organizations".

The teachers, principals, supervisors and superintendents
wanted "more supervisors with more time to do more of the
services which they already do".

In a study conducted by Louisana school supervisors,
Landsy (1959) reported that the most persistent activities of
supervisors were visiting the classes, doing clerical work,
conference with principal and teachers, working with lay
groups, travelling and participating in group conferences.
His overall conclusion was that at least half of the activities
done by the supervisors were found to be unrelated to improving
instruction.

In an earlier study done in 1957 Shaftel had also noted
the long-existent hiatus between the school's stated
objectives and its supervisory practices.

Glennon (1961) has shown that attention has begun to be
given, starting with the 1930's, to human relations or group
process techniques as a way of influencing personnel toward
instructional change. Glennon has also emphasised the trend
that has emerged in the Post-World War II period that
supervisors depend upon personalized approaches, use various
techniques, prescriptions and maxims to persuade, influence,
or direct teachers toward the school's goals.

The Indian studies reported on supervision pertain more
to the inspection of schools by inspecting officers of the
State Departments of Education rather than infra-school
supervision by the school principal or the supervisor.

Joshi (1959) investigated supervisory practices in some
sampled high schools of Gujarat. He found that the principal

did mostly the supervision work and it consisted of observation of teachers' class-teaching, fixing and conducting teachers' academic meetings, reviewing of teachers' daily lesson notes, conferences with individual teachers, writing teachers' Log Book and issuing instructions to teachers with a view to improving their instructional quality.

Mahajan (1970) found staff meetings, individual conferences and specific in-service teacher training as the main programmes of school supervision.

Raval (1971) found two main supervisory activities in urban high schools, supervision of teachers' class teaching with a weightage of 53 per cent and checking of teachers' correction of composition notes, pupils' practical work, examination papers, etc.

Patel (1974) found that more of routine supervisory activities followed in mushroom schools and more of innovative practices adopted in progressive schools. He also found that more teachers in progressive high schools were aware of the importance of newer programmes of supervision than the teachers of least progressive schools. Seventy per cent of highly progressive high schools indicated eight out of fourteen most common supervisory activities being followed in them; in the least progressive schools the maximum supervisory practices followed were six, but in a good many of them supervision did not go beyond supervision of teachers' class teaching.

Patel's study also throws significant light on the supervisory activities not adopted by high schools of South Gujarat. For instance, schools he studied completely ignored the activities like pre-planning, talks by experts, inservice programmes like staff seminars and staff workshops, involvement of teachers in the school's academic decision-making, demonstration of effective instructional or educational practices and the use of films, tape-recorders and radio.

The overall generalizations in regard to supervisory practices emerging from researches are that (a) supervisory practices are determined by the administrators; (b) they depend more upon the administrator's perceptions and competencies; (c) various patterns and practices have characterised general supervisory practices in progressive school systems or schools; (d) supervisory practices have not always been effective in achieving the objectives of the school; (e) the hiatus between the school's stated objectives and its supervisory practices is attributed to the lack of systematic theory of action and in addition to observation and conferences, inservice activities are included more in the supervisory programmes of schools.

A trend is also noticed, particularly in respect of schools of Gujarat that the number of supervisory practices decreases as a function of progressiveness of schools.

2.6 SUPERVISION TOOLS, TECHNIQUES AND METHODS

In a number of studies, supervisory activities like class visitation, conferences, planning, etc. are also referred to as supervisory methods and techniques. The tools, techniques and methods stress mainly two operative objectives, viz., evaluation of the work being done by teachers, and their professional improvement through inservice professional work. In achieving these objectives, they constitute both the means as well as the process.

Many kinds of evaluation procedures have been suggested to identify the strengths and weaknesses of individual teachers or the faculty as a whole.

Broadman, Douglass and Bent (1953) have identified the following seven focal points in supervisory evaluation of the effectiveness of teachers :

- Determining elements of teaching strength.
- Locating causes of teaching problems, difficulties and weaknesses.
- Directing teachers' attention to and stimulating co-operative study of teaching problems and difficulties and the elements of good teaching.
- Stimulating teachers' self-study, self-criticism and self-evaluation of their teaching in order to capitalise strength and seek to overcome weakness.

- Providing a basis for effective teacher-supervisor

    co-operation for the improvement of teaching.

- Providing the supervisor with data so that he may more

    effectively direct his efforts to aid teachers.

- Providing standards of teaching efficiency as goals for

    teacher attainment.

Bathurst, Knight, Ruch and Telford (1936) developed one of the first professional tests for teachers. Since then and upto the fifties tools have been developed and standardised by Waples and Reavis, Odell and Herriott, Hosen, Lawrenz and Steinmetz, Weber, Harnly and Moss to evaluate teachers' class-room teaching and collect some important professional information. Tests of pupil achievement as measures of teaching efficiency, rating scales for rating-teaching efficiency, self-rating scales, diagnosing rating scales (e.g. Torgerson Rating Scale), measurement as a means of prognosis have been developed and widely used by the school systems in the U.S.A.

One of the old studies on teacher judgment of the use and effectiveness of various supervisory procedures was reported by Melby (1929) in the State of Illinois (U.S.A.). Only 12 per cent of the teachers responding had experienced demonstration teaching as a supervisory technique, but 64 per cent regarded that technique is of great value. Inter-visitation was experienced by only 8 per cent, but 64 per cent rated it

as of great value. Unannounced visits to the classroom had been experienced by 58 per cent of the teachers, but were regarded as very valuable by only 22 per cent. Reporting of lesson plans was required of 51 per cent but was regarded as valuable by 32 per cent. Required professional reading and organized reading circles were rated very low (16 to 27 per cent) by teachers who at the same time rated very high (65 per cent in favour), the maintenance and availability of a professional library and magazine shelf.

One of the most significant findings of a study by Weber and Garfield (1942) was that co-operative group study had been experienced by 9 per cent but was voted as valuable by 45 per cent. In subsequent years, and even in recent seventies, this device, cooperative, participatory study appeared at the very top of the list as the most valuable device.

Brannen (1958) developed and standardised an instrument for the use of the beginning supervisor. It includes excerpts from the diary, descriptions of many activities in which the supervisor was engaged and a comprehensive evaluation of the supervisory procedures. The instrument can be used as resource material by any supervisor or curriculum worker for description of supervisory procedures that have been tested and found to be effective.

In 1966, Stoops compared ten methods of teacher evaluation which included various objective and subjective procedures.

He suggested that evaluation reports from the personal files of teachers prove to be the least discriminating device. Principal's judgments were found to be no better than those of other persons in discriminating effective and non-effective teachers. It was held that a principal's estimate of a teacher's effectiveness is, in reality, an estimate of the degree to which a teacher fits the principal's expectation of the teacher's role.

An NEA survey of the sixties reported many differences in perceptions associated with evaluation procedures. For example, superintendents were most confident of the capacity of evaluation programmes to improve the quality of teaching, but teachers were the least confident about them. The percentage of principals who believed that evaluation programmes stimulate teachers to improve instruction was nearly twice as high as the percentage of teachers who believed that improvement followed evaluation.

The trend to be noticed is that principals use classroom observation, conferences with teachers and class contact to evaluate the teachers' effectiveness in instruction. Self evaluation also appears to be widely favoured by supervisors. Fuller et al (1966) report that audio-tapes can be used as feedback to a teacher on his instructional performance. Inter-action analysis such as Flander's System can be used to study tapes taken from the learning environment. Amidon and others (1966) report that such inter-action analysis has been used

successfully to assist the development of introspective processes.

Two feedback approaches have been reported which can help teachers to understand their teaching behaviour and plan behaviour change. One of them is Flanders System (1963) which presents an interaction analysis of the verbal teaching behaviour of teachers which can provide both to the teacher concerned a basis to plan his decision to change or modify his teaching behaviour and to supervisor to base his supervisory guidelines. Another feedback approach is the use of learning episodes developed and successfully experimented by Lund and Herrick (1965). This approach is more flexible but less exact than Flanders' analysis.

The feedback approach constitutes a useful device to help teachers change in the desired directions, and constitutes an important development towards efforts to make previous training or inservice training of teachers to do effective classroom teaching. Results of feedback procedures would be a great help to the school leadership and school supervisors in personnel developing and improving them to do better work in the school.

Chase (1960) developed a work cycle which can be used as a base for planning strategy for effective supervision work :

- Develop teacher motivation so that his energy for work is directed towards achievement results;

- Ensure appropriate conditions of work for teachers in the
  school; this would ensure better achievement;
- Engender in teachers a sense of achievement which, when
  accompanied by recognition and other regards, tends to
  produce satisfaction; and
- Provide teachers increasing job satisfaction which would
  predispose them towards striving for further achievement.

Chase concluded that this disposition is vitalised and
the stored energy is released by motivation and work follows,
leading to satisfaction which stimulates further and better
work and the cycle continues.

Some of the conclusions emerging from researches on
changing teachers' behaviour in the classroom done during the
sixties can be generalised and presented in the following form.
The conditions for teacher change are predicted upon the basic
premise of complexity of teaching, integrity of individual
teachers, and the integrativeness of the learning process.
The process of change is best facilitated by (1) creating a
positive and stimulating social setting for change; (2)
developing positive and supporting interpersonal relations;
(3) providing reality feedback procedures and situations; and
(4) developing rational thinking and valuing through the
clarification procedures.

The generalisation from the studies on supervision is
that its focus is on the improvement of teaching-learning that
goes on in the school, but this improvement process has to be

a planned one, where teachers' cooperation and participation
have to be fully sought and secured, providing for due
recognition of their individual differences, needs and abilities.
Effective supervision is a function of open organizational
climate of schools, democratic leadership wedded to the ideals
and practices in human relations, stimulating leadership in
the groups rather than depending upon status leadership. It
should also result in high teacher morale and academic motiva-
tion as well as in high pupil motivation and achievement.

2.7 SUPERVISOR'S ROLE AND PERFORMANCE

Surveys were made in the past as to what the supervisors
did towards the performance of their duties. Findings of an
ASCD Study done in 1946 were reported. The supervisory acts
as well as their relative proportion were as under :

(1) Attending meetings of professional organizations - 100 p.c.

(2) Holding group conferences to discuss with teachers

     common problems   - 96 p.c.

(3) Making classroom visits   - 96 p.c.

(4) Holding individual conferences with teachers on

     problems they propose   - 95 p.c.

(5) Discussing methods with teachers   - 94 p.c.

(6) Helping teachers organise and develop source

     or teaching units   - 86 p.c.

(7) Giving suggestions or instructions on how to

     initiate or carry through an instructional unit - 86 p.c.

(8) Organizing and working with teacher groups in
curriculum-revision programmes   - 85 p.c.

(9) Directing testing programmes   - 62 p.c.

(10) Instructing teachers in the use of audio-visual
aids   - 46 p.c.

(11) Planning demonstration teaching   - 39 p.c.

(12) Organizing audio-visual materials   - 30 p.c.

(13) Organizing and/or directing workshops for teachers - 30 p.c.

(14) Correcting tests   - 26 p.c.

In the mid-fifties, the trend in supervisory functions
tended to be more based on group processes. This was reflected
in the general statements on supervisory operations framed by
Wiles (1953) which were focused on : (a) skill in leadership,
(b) skill in human relations, (c) skill in group process,
(d) skill in personnel management, and (e) skill in evaluation.

Burton and Brueckner (1955) have a different note to strike.
He concluded that "expertness in group process is not all of
supervision. Specialists of various types are necessary and
these must be expertly informed in their areas of speciality.
Problems of relationship and co-operative function are not
solved by group discussion alone, though such discussion is
an important part of solving such problems." (p.22)

The post-war period also revealed a trend towards the
democratic approach and attitudes to school supervision.
Studies were directed to study the effects of democratic

climate and supervisory leadership on teachers and their effectiveness in instruction. Rokeach (1952) listed 17 possible effects as under :

- More "we-feeling",

- Group-minded suggestions,

- Positive identification withy whole group, including leaders and non-leaders,

- Relatively greater group cohesion as a result of positive group identification,

- Greater group productivity,

- Group activity beginning before leader arrives and continuing during his absence,

- Greater job satisfaction,

- Higher morale,

- Few or no rumours,

- Relatively little aggression toward leader and other members, and generally more friendly behaviour,

- When frustrated, aggression is directed towards the real source of aggression,

- Relatively little 'gripping' about leader,

- Relatively little 'horseplay',

- Relatively less submissiveness toward leader,

- Relatively broader time perspective,

- Greater variability and flexibility, and

- Satisfaction of a reality level.

An ASCD Study (1960) listed the following possible gains if the supervisory leadership in schools is democratic :

(a) Appropriate assistance in defining school's goals and objects,

(b)   Effectiveness in teaching,

(c)   Teachers' feeling that they contribute to the productiveness of the organization,

(d)   Creation of a climate which is conducive to teachers' professional growth, and

(e)   Greater richness accruing to teaching-learning situation in the school.

Carolyn Guss (1961) lists six supervisory acts which, as revealed by other studies sponsored by the ASCD, constituted also a trend during the sixties :

(1)   Observing, evaluating and implementing the educational process;

(2)   Improving instruction by working with teachers;

(3)   Directing the curriculum;

(4)   Co-operating in providing a wholesome learning environment for pupils;

(5)   Evaluating and directing education critically; and

(6)   Overseeing, checking, comparing and helping.

Carolyn Guss's conclusion was that the most important contributions of supervisors in the State of Indiana were :

(1)   Helping teachers, especially new ones, improve classroom instruction;

(2)   Holding individual conferences with teachers;

(3)   Providing teacher guidance and improving morale; and

(4)   Serving as leader in curriculum development.

The research also yielded teachers' perceptions on the least important contributions of the supervisors which were :

(1) Creating an unnatural situation in the classroom;

(2) Doing the teacher's work;

(3) Evaluating teachers (checking up, inspecting);

(4) Performing clerical jobs (ordering, counting, delivering); and

(5) Writing reports and keeping records.

A significant point in the research report was that 40 per cent of the total respondents did not answer the question on the least important contributions of the supervisors.

Role perception and performance perception of supervisors by themselves as well as principals and teachers have come to be studied in sixties. For instance, Cox and Lott (1961) studied the role of the supervisor as perceived by the supervisor, and principals as well as teachers with whom the supervisor works. The study was cast in the State of Georgia. A Q-Sort of 100 behaviours of the supervisor was used to make the descriptions. An analysis was made of supervisory observed behaviours in terms of the 'most liked' and 'least liked' behaviours of the ideal supervisors.

The greatest agreement among the observations of all the three groups was regarding those behaviours of supervisors which relate to (a) belief in people, (b) acceptance of contributions of each child and the teacher, and (c) respect for individual differences of teachers. The analysis also revealed a lack of

agreement, about some of the behaviours in the different perceptions of the three groups. For instance, both principals and teacher placed considerable significance upon the supervisor's 'having the knowledge and giving it to teachers'. However, this behaviour was ranked as 'least liked' by supervisors. The latter ranked high 'cooperative formulation of policies and plans' as a very significant supervisory behaviour. This particular behaviour, however, was given no place among the 'most liked' behaviours of supervisors.

The study further revealed that the supervisors, principals and teachers each ranked lowest the following supervisory behaviours :

- Discusses freely teachers' problems with outsiders.
- Points out specific teacher's deficiencies to help another teacher.
- Feels that he is fully capable of doing a good job, independently to help from others
-
- Makes the decisions and tells the staff what to do.
- Questions the authority of the principal.

The areas of agreement in regard to 'most liked' and 'least liked' behaviours of supervisors indicate that there is much common ground and much overlapping of basic human values among the three respondent groups. With these human values in common, other differences tend to be minimised.

Burnham and King (1961) as a result of some case studies of the beginning supervisors, concluded that a successful supervisor 'helps teachers to do a better job in providing learning opportunities for boys and girls. He strives to give and get help for each teacher in examining his or her perceptions of teaching. He works with individual teachers and with groups of teachers to create a concern about a problem and to assist in working toward the solution of a recognised problem."

The implications of researches on supervision during sixties and recent times are that just as the role of the classroom teacher is changing, so also the role of the school supervisor should change. Supervisors cannot perpetuate the status quo; they must be sensitive to changes. They should try to understand the implications of modern technology being applied in the classroom and various sized groups and the types of grouping being used in classrooms. The sociological factors, psychological factors, administrative factors and the educative process - these are some of the focal points which should engage their attention and care than had been done in the past and is being done in the past and is being done to day. They must be geared to help teachers adjust to change, motivate them to dig deeper, extend their academic and professional horizon and advance their frontiers of knowledge.

Western studies reveal a trend towards minimising and reducing the administrative load of school principals and clerical load of school supervisors so that they have more time

and leisure to exercise their supervisory functions towards their staff. Indian studies - especially Gujarat studies on supervision reveal a different trend - principals still continue to be over-burdened with administrative and clerical tasks. Separate supervisors are found only in a small number of schools which are mostly located in large cities, having more classes and a higher enrolment. Even there, the academic teaching load on school supervisors is pretty too high to allow him to function as a democratic, creative, innovative supervisor who is a source of teacher motivation and a releaser of his potential.

2.8 LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOUR

The modern trend in researches on leadership is to emphasise, as leadership task, to initiate a new structure to accomplish an organization's goals or objectives or to change them in desired directions. In this context leadership and supervisionₓₛ fᵤₙₓₜᵢₒₙ become closely allied. Supervision's function is also to change the instructional structure and programme of a school and the instructional behaviour of the school teachers Chester and others (1963) have reported that the propensity of a school ₓ ₚᵣₒₚₑₙₛᵢₜy to change is closely related to the school principal's ability to perceive his faculty's expectations accurately.

Gross and Herriot (1965) measured the ability of 50 per cent principals of 41 cities to stimulate improvement in the quality of teachers' instructional performance. Teachers rated

those principals as the highest who consistently provided for their (teachers') involvement in decision-making of their school, who kept their inter-personal relationship egalitarian rather than status based, who provided social support, who provided also managerial support and who supported the authority of the faculty. Teachers' ratings were also found to be higher for young principals and for those with less professional, formal education in administration. Ericksay (1965) arrived at similar conclusion.

The researches on teachers' perceptions and rating of school principals by Cater (1951), Bradfield (1959), Bowers and Soar (1961), Luckie (1963) and others have found that teachers rated high leadership acts which were perceived as democratic and which involved good human relations and group interactions.

Enns's (1965) conclusion was that the task of teacher evaluation should not be with the school principal who wields status leadership and authority.

M.D. Patel (1970) found that supervision tended to be authoritarian when it was done by school principals.

Patel (1974) found that in more progressive schools, supervisory responsibilities were discharged mainly by 68.38 per cent of school headmasters whereas that was the case in 94.4 per cent of the least progressive schools.

have reported

Miles and Porter's(1966) three theoretical models of leadership which they called (a) Traditional Model, (b) Human Relation Model, and (c) Human Resource Model. The first model prescribes close supervision and tight control; the second model prescribes a limited amount of subordinate participation in decision-making; and only in the third model a continually expanding degree of subordinate participation, self-direction and self-control find expression.

The implications of the vast amount of literature as well as research efforts on instructional leadership are that the school principal and supervisors should assume the role of democratic leadership; the leadership should involve the teachers in decisions regarding the planning of better instructional programmes; it should practice pleasant and stimulating human relations; adopt group processes and group dynamics; and build up high teacher morale.

2.9 ORGANIZATIONAL CLIMATE OF SCHOOL
AND ITS CORRELATES

One important trend in researches pertaining to instructional supervision is to include in its scope related factors and issues. Some such related fields are organizational climate of schools, leadership, staff morale, pupils' academic motivation, pupil control ideology and others.

Organizational climate of school as a field of research came into focus in 1954 as a result of the pioneering efforts of Halpin and Croft (1954), but it took the form of a movement only after 1963, when the synopsis of the findings was published in 'The Administration Note Book' in 1963. Halpin's critical presentation of the findings in his book 'Theory and Research in Administration' (1966) gave a momentum to this new movement even outside the U.S.A. in countries like Canada, Australia and England. The research in this area had its beginning in India in 1970.

The trend in researches on climate is to establish relationship between climate as a whole or any of its eight dimensions and variables like smallness or largeness of the school faculty, faculty age, teacher satisfaction, headmaster's effectiveness, leadership behaviour of the headmaster, teacher morale, pupils' academic achievement, school quality and others. As supervision is largely concerned with improvement of teaching-learning situation, the findings of researches on climate pertaining to teacher satisfaction, headmasters' effectiveness, leadership behaviour of headmasters, teacher morale, pupil motivation towards school and school quality are briefly reviewed here.

Carver and Serquiovani (1969) found that large (over 25-30 teachers) sized secondary schools cannot have high 'esprit' and 'thrust' scores and, they tend to be closed climate schools.

Research evidence as reflected in the studies by Gentry and Kenney (1967), Richens (1967), Halpin (1969), Sharma (1973), and Shelat (1974) is conflicting, and one cannot say for certain that urban schools are more open or closed than rural schools and vice versa. Sharma (1969) also reported that no significant differences in respect of climate exist between government and private aided schools. The research findings ax of Feldvebel (1964), Nichols et al (1965), Gentry and Kenney (1967), Pumphrey (1969) and others on relationship between socio-economic status and climate are also conflicting and unconclusive.

Sharma (1974) investigated relationship between school climate and teacher satisfaction. He found significant difference in regard to teacher satisfaction between schools having autonomous and paternal climates, autonomous and closed climates, familiar and paternal climates, and controlled and paternal climates whereas other combinations of climate types showed no significant difference. He, therefore, retained his null hypothesis that no significant differences exist among different climate types of schools in regard to teacher satisfaction.

Sharma, in a study done in 1972, found that 'headmaster's effectiveness' was a significant predictor variable to fortell the organizational climate of a school. In his doctoral study in 1973, he found headmaster's effectiveness as a contributing factor to be more significant in autonomous climate type schools than in open climate type schools, in autonomous,

controlled and closed climate types schools than in paternal type schools. He found that the mean headmasters' effectiveness score lowest in paternal climate type schools and highest in the autonomous climate type schools. In Sharma's study schools of different climate types (except the pairs of open and autonomous, autonomous and paternal, autonomous and closed, and controlled and closed) did not differ significantly in terms of school effectiveness.

Significant correlationship has been reported between climate and leadership behaviour in researches of Halpin and Winter (1952), Andrews (1965), Bhogle (1969), Jhaveri (1969), Sharma (1972)(1973), Lulla (1973), Pillai (1973), Parikh (1973), Bhagia (1973), Doctor (1973), Shukla (1973), Patel (1974), Shelat (1974) and others.

Pillai's major finding regarding the relationship between climate and pupil performance is that it is significantly better in open and autonomous climate schools than that in other climate schools. She also found that openness of climate does facilitate the capacity of the school to adopt newer educational practices in greater number and in shorter time. The same trend in research evidence is to be seen in recent studies of Sharma (1972,1973), Patel (1974), and Shelat (1974).

Almost all climate studies, western as well as Indian, investigated relationship between climate and teacher morale have reported high significant positive relationship between

open and autonomous climate and teacher morale. Pillai has particularly stressed the fact that "the ability of the school to introduce innovation in educational practices is higher in high morale schools than the average or low morale schools." Her significant generalisation is : 'Higher the faculty morale, quicker and better is the school in introducing newer practices.'

Patel (1973) found significant positive relationship between qualitative categories of schools and open type of organizational climate. He also found inter-relatedness among climate, leadership qualities, teacher morale, school's effectiveness in supervision and school's innovativeness.

Harper (1969), in a study based on 20 school systems in the U.S.A., found that as many as ten factors were responsible for low morale of teachers in them. These causative factors are :

- Inadequate salary,
- Large classes,
- Poor administration,
- Authoritarian Supervision,
- Lack of daily period of relaxation,
- Unsatisfactory school plant and buildings,
- Lack of teaching materials and equipment,
- Lack of cooperation between school board administration and public,
- Poor social life and recreational facilities, and
- Inadequate tenure provisions.

Anderson (1953) investigated the problem of teacher morale and its effect on student achievement in 20 secondary schools in Iowa. The statistical analysis of the data collected in the study revealed significant differences in achievement between schools in which there were differences in teacher morale. Groups ranking high in pupil achievement were those with teachers ranking high on the morale scale. This study clearly shows that one cannot ignore the attitudes of teachers toward teaching. No programme of supervisory services is likely to succeed in schools where the teacher morale is low. Teachers' attitude do affect pupil achievement.

In a recent doctoral study by Shelat (1974), it was found that teacher morale is related to school effectiveness, but it seems to bear no relationship with either the size of the school or its achievement index. She also found that organizational climate of schools is not related significantly and positively to variables like rural-urban location, size, achievement index of schools, teachers' age, academic qualifications, their professional qualifications, urban-rural upbringing but is positively and significantly related to variable such as school effectiveness, leadership patterns, and pupil academic motivation.

The over-all generalisation which emerges from the steadily growing research literature on organizational climate is that climate bears close, positive and significant relationship with leadership behaviour, teacher morale, school's effectiveness,

and quality, school's effective supervisory practices, school's innovativeness and pupil academic motivation.

Herald (1969), while reviewing research studies on teacher morale in the fourth edition of 'Encyclopaedia of Educational Research' (edited by Robert L. Ebel), has observed that "although it has been hypothesised that morale has direct effect on teaching effectiveness, research supporting this conclusion is largely lacking, for the reason that measures of teaching effectiveness have not been lived upto their promise." (p.1396).

2.10 OBSTACLES TO EFFECTIVE SUPERVISION

Studies have been directed to identify obstacles to effective supervision in schools and problems faced by supervisors.

Weber (1942) found the following as the most serious obstacles encountered in programmes of inservice teacher education. The figures in the parenthesis at the end of each obstacle denote the number and per cent of schools in which these obstacles were met :

- Lack of time, heavy teaching loads, heavy extra-curricular loads, no suitable time of day. (112, 45.5 p.c.)
- Unprofessional attitudes of teachers. (99, 40.2 p.c.)
- Lack of money for providing professional books and magazines and suitable library facilities for staff. (34, 13.8 p.c.)

- Lack of planning. (21, 8.5 p.c.)
- Conflicts of personality between teachers and
  between teachers, supervisors and administrators. (14, 5.7) p.c.
- Weariness of teachers, teachers' ill-health. (12, 4.9 p.c.)
- General unrest in the school and community. (11, 4.5 p.c.)
- Authoritarian administration. (10, 4.1 p.c.)
- Teacher turn-over (9, 3.7 p.c.)
- Lack of supervision (8, 3.2 p.c.)
- Life certificates (7, 2.8 p.c.)
- Petty arguments (7, 2.8 p.c.)
- Reading of bulletins by the principal (6, 2.4 p.c.)

Weber also analyses one of the above obstacles to
inservice education of teachers. He found the following
types of teachers' attitudes in the schools specified (in term
of percentages) at the end of each statement of hostile
attitude.

- Older teachers who have little interest in any kind
  of inservice education (7, 25.2 p.c.)
- Indifference, inertia, complacency of teachers (22, 22.2 p.c.)
- Vested interests of departments (11, 11.1 p.c.)
- Lazy teachers who shun work (9, 9.1 p.c.)
- Degree - teachers think Master's degree makes
  study unnecessary (8, 8.1 p.c.)
- Opposition to change of any kind (7, 7.1 p.c.)
- Tenure makes teachers indifferent (5, 5.1 p.c.)
- Suspiciousness (4, 4.1 p.c.)

Hill (1944) surveyed 475 researches on teachers' instructional difficulties covering reports from 12,372 teachers and listed the following . Figures in the parenthesis placed at the end of each category of instructional difficulty denote the number of studies in which the difficulty was among the first six. Each one of the following refers to teachers' difficulties.

- In providing for individual differences among pupils (19)
- In teaching method (18)
- Of discipline, control, social development of the pupil (17)
- Of motivation, getting children interested, getting them to work (12)
- In the direction of study (9)
- In organizing and administering the classroom (6)
- In selecting appropriate subject matter (6)
- In organization of instructional materials (6)
- In planning and making assignments (5)
- In grading and promotion of pupils (5)
- Of inadequacies of supplies and materials (4)
- In testing and evaluating (4)
- Personal difficulties of the teacher (4)
- Arising from conditions of work (3)
- In diagnosing and correcting particular pupil difficulties (3)
- In making plans for teaching (3)
- In promoting desirable habits (2)

- In securing study aids (2)

- In controlling class (2)

- Outside interruptions of class work (2)

Turpin (1960) studied major problems of supervisors in the State of Georgia in the U.S.A. and causes thereof. He used a sample of 96 supervisors. On the basis of his findings, Turpin classified the supervisory problems as follows :

- Insufficient time to render all supervisory services in a satisfactory manner (20.0 per cent);

- Unfavourable attitudes of teachers and principals towards change (16.0 per cent);

- Insufficient money for travel, study and materials (15 p.c.);

- Insecurity due to lack of role clarification and scope of the job (14.0 per cent);

- Inadequate clerical assistance and work space in office (9.0 per cent);

- Communication difficulties with general public, the State University, State Department of Education and the local Board of Education (8.0 per cent); and

- Miscellaneous (9.0 per cent).

Supervisors stated that the causes of their problems are interrelated. Some of the causes yielded by the research were as under :

- The supervisor's role is not clear to himself or to those with whom he works.

- The scope of the job is large, the responsibilities are numerous and there is insufficient time to accomplish all tasks involved in the job.

- Funds for clerical assistance are limited and therefore supervisors had to take time from their professional duties to perform clerical tasks.

- Frustrations and feelings of guilt occur when supervisors are unable to provide as much help to individual teachers or school facilities as they desire.

The findings of this researchers point out to one over-riding conclusion that administrators should provide to supervisors enough time and facilities so that they - the supervisors are able to discharge their professional obligations adequately and effectively.

AnNEA Study reported in 1962 revealed that elementary and secondary school principals listed local school officials and faculty members as the two most important groups in bringing changes in instructional practices. However, Alberty and Alberty (1962) found that among the same groups, officials and principals were the major barriers to change. Noda (1952) found that the most important 'blocks' to curriculum and instructional change arise out of the attitudes of teachers as well as out of the nature of their relationships with administrators, supervisors and students. Coon (1951), in a study of the attitudes of teachers and administrators towards high school curriculum reorganization,found that teachers

were more resistent to change than either students, parents
and administrators.

A major conclusion emerging from Jerome's (1964) study of
the library facilities in secondary schools of the Kheda
District is that supervisory services cannot draw much on the
library resources of schools which are, on the whole, very
inadequate and there is little involvement of teachers.

Desai (1971), in a study of the changing concept and
practices in school supervision, attributes much of the
traditional philosophy, authoritarian overtones, directive
climate and limited scope of supervisory services to the
managerial, superintending and controlling functions of head-
masters developed during the British rule.

> "The school supervision has not always resulted in
> better schools, because the very philosophy
> of the old supervision and inspection has
> many illogical and invalid premises. The
> methods and techniques used in the old
> system of supervision and inspection left
> the teacher - the main actor in the school
> instructional drama - ill-directed, ill-
> motivated, more refregerated and more
> regulated. No serious attempt was made to
> release his creative talents. A kind of
> hidden distrust about his ability and
> integrity prevailed. The school principal
> did not regard it as a practical proposition
> to delegate some authority and responsibilities
> to the teacher; he saw no wisdom in involving
> him in important decision-making. His
> co-operation was, no doubt sought, but not
> as a co-worker in a joint enterprise, but as
> an employee whose bounden duty was to extend
> extend willing and always ready co-operation.
> Planning, too, was regarded essential, but
> it was not the planning of free thinkers or
> academic partners, whose creative talents and involve-
> ment had the fullest scope; it was directed or contro-
> lled planning in which the ideas and view points of the

principal always set the tone and often decided
the methods and conclusions."

2.11   PERCEPTIONS AND ATTITUDES

Boardman (1949) studied the perceptions of high school
teachers about the effectiveness of supervisory techniques.
He found the following among those mentioned as most promising
by the teachers of 20 or more high schools.

- Organizing teachers into committees to study problems.

- Organized study of special topics in general staff meetings.

- Providing a professional library and borrowing room for
  teachers.

- Having Teachers (not principals) giving reviews of articles
  in current educational magazines.

- Giving special financial awards for participation in
  programmes of inservice education.

- Cooperatively engaging in a systematic evaluation of the
  school.

- Carrying out a well-planned attack upon the problems of
  curriculum development.

- Holding forums where parents, pupils, teachers and Board
  Members participate.

- Attending summer workshops.

- Visiting teachers in one's own school or in other schools.

- Holding small group meetings to study revision of the
  course of study in a department.

A study sponsored by National Education Association (NEA, U.S.A.) in 1958 showed that school principals were more concerned about devoting more time to supervisory activities and less time to clerical duties :

> "They would increase the time spent in 'working
> with the teaching staff' from 16 to 24 per
> cent and the time spent in 'programme
> development' from 6 to 8 per cent. While
> the principals perceive their supervisory
> role as an increasingly important one, the
> average amount of time which they say they
> devote to supervision has not changed,
> significantly in recent years. In 1958,
> the average amount of time spent in super-
> vision, as reported by the principals, was
> 35 per cent, with 13 per cent of this
> amount devoted to working with pupils. This
> is essentially the same amount of time
> reported in 1948."

One of the most challenging findings of Sarolx Carolyn Guss's study (1961) pertains to the reactions of teachers to the supervision work done in their schools. It appeared from the analysis of teachers' reactions to supervision that "they tended to avoid being the object of supervision. Some of them considered supervision as an attack on them personally. Others thought of supervision as a programme dealing with materials, ideas, and scheduled rather than with the teaching-learning situation as it reflects personal relationship."

Teachers also felt that the function of motivating and inspiring them and improving their morale was also not recognized by respondents as being performed.

After comprehensively reviewing research carried out over a period of 25 years into teacher morale or job satisfaction,

Blocker and Richardson (1963) concluded that the administrator was the key figure. Whether teachers were satisfied or dissatisfied depended greatly, apparently, on the quality of the administrative relationships in which they were involved and on the quality of the leadership they were given within this structure.

Corwin (1965) found that there was a high correlation between the degree of professional orientation and the number of conflicts reported per interview. Nearly half of the conflicts in which teachers had been involved were concerned with the exercise of authority.

Serviovanni (1967), in a study involving 71 teachers whom he interviewed on job satisfaction, found that recognition and responsibility were 'satisfiers' and inter-personal relations with superiors and peers, supervision school policy and administration and the feeling of being fairly or unfairly treated, 'dissatisfiers'.

In Raval's (1971) study, supervisors' perceptions as to how the teachers feel about their supervisory work were investigated. It was found that 77 per cent of teachers liked the supervisory exercises whereas 23 per cent were antagonistic to supervisory visits. A good majority of the teachers perceived that the best way the supervisors can hope to enlist the co-operation and support of teachers is to adopt a democratic attitude and human relation approach.

Patel (1974) found that more progressive high schools in
South Gujarat are more aware of the need for change in instructional
practices than the less progressive high schools. He also found
that some of the conditions like the open minded policy of
school management, availability of modern teaching aids,
sufficient democratic supervision, funds, well qualified staff,
wellequipped library, coordination with the Extension Services
Centre and maintenance of good relations within and without are
considered to be <u>most</u> desirable by the teachers of the most
progressive schools. Among the conditions which are considered
as favourable to <u>some</u> <u>extent</u> by the teachers of the most
progressive schools are included such conditions as comfortable
accommodation, democratic school traditions, young and enthu-
siastic teachers and interest in guiding the teacher programme.
Patel's overall conclusion as regards teachers' perceptions of
innovation and change is that the teachers of the most progre-
ssive schools tend to perceive many of the conditions as more
useful for the process of change, whereas the teachers of the
least progressive schools perceive many of the essential
conditions as unfavourable. The steps of the process of change
as ranked by the teachers of the most progressive, less
progressive and the least progressive schools are : (1) analysis
of the present situation; (2) determinations of the changes to
be brought about; (3) implementation of changes; and (4) stabili-
zation of the new situation.

Patel's study under reference also provides a pointer to
what supervisory activities are practical in situations

—— obtaining in high schools of Gujarat and which are not perceived to be practical by the teachers. The activities perceived to be most practicable are : methodical guidance in instruction, teachers' committees to solve school academic problems, organization of demonstration lessons by good teachers, adoption of programmed learning, organization of learning activities through project work, use of cumulative record cards in high school standards, regular staff meetings and sessional planning of academic work. The ideas perceived to be least practicable by teachers are : helping teacher in his progress, giving practical training to teachers in the use of audio-visual materials and aids in classroom teachings, use of standardised intelligence, achievement and aptitude tests, planning of purposive teaching organized around instructional objectives of the developmental type, paper reading in seminars and deputation of teachers to inservice teacher training programmes being organized by Departments of Extension Services of various Colleges of Education. This does not suggest that these ideas are not perceived as worthwhile by teachers, but it simply means that the organizational climate in most schools is such that it is not possible to implement them.

2.12 CONCLUSION

A conspicuous characteristic of recent research on school supervision in the U.S.A. has been that it is based on the analysis of perceptions by teachers and supervisors as

observers. There is a trend in recent studies for the supervisor himself to be one of the observers of supervisor's behaviour. Johnny Cox (1961) concludes that "as supervisors research the role of the supervisor, they are involving more and more people in the process of co-operative research. This research is directed toward action for clarifying and improving the services of the supervisor".

Supervision is being perceived as contributing to the maintenance of the quality of educational programme. It aims at growth not only of pupils and teachers but also of the supervisory staff itself as well as parents and other laymen. Supervisors have to assume instructional leadership basing its functioning on the ideology of recognition, encouragement, supporting, assisting and sharing. Supervision is now being seen as a group process and cooperative activity. It is recognised as a process and not identified with a position or status.

Organizational climate of schools, leadership behaviour, and teacher morale, pupil academic motivation influence perceptibly and determine the effectiveness of supervision. They directly contribute to school quality and school innovativeness. The stress is on the development of common purpose and values which provide group cohesion and unity. Faculty planning and evaluation are the result of such group unity. It has been found easier to change ideology or cultural habits by dealing with groups rather than individuals. This process of change is

greatly facilitated by the leader becoming a real group member
identifying himself with the group. The group norms have first
to be studied by the supervisor and then work for change in
them through group study of solutions to problems the group
faces.

A group's productiveness is affected by the quality of its
human relations. Effective supervision can thrive in an open
school climate where teachers' emotional and social needs are
satisfied and where they have intimacy, consideration, recogni-
tion, warmth and security. A supervisor who shares decisions
and respects the integrity of individual teachers is more
successful.

Greater communication, frequent interactions, free involve-
ment and constant feedbacks improve group process, group parti-
cipation and consequent output or production. It is the crux
of the effectiveness of supervision. Besides these, the
supervisor will do well to work for decrease in status lines.

Studies of the degree to which supervision is effective
are limited. This is so far as the western scene goes. In
India, studies on all aspects of supervision are far and few
between. This is seen from Adval's Indian Year Book on Educa-
tional Research (1968) and Buch's 'A Survey of Research in
Education' (1974). Adval's reporting is largely studies done
on school inspection - he has reported only two studies. Buch
has reported five studies of which only one has a direct bearing

on supervision work by the school principal. The other non-
reported studies on school supervision in the Universities of
Gujarat are hardly a dozen in number. Therefore, in Indian
school situation there is abundant scope of research on super-
vision and supervisors. The paucity of research effort
expended so far on the study of school supervision on scientific
lines in Indian education is discomforting. It accentuates the
need for planning and directing more research to school super-
vision. The research to school supervision should find out how
the concept of supervision is undergoing a change in Indian
schools, what is the sensitiveness of teachers to the modern
ideology regarding school supervision, what should be the goals
and objectives of supervision, what philosophy and principles
should guide supervisory activities, what is the best supervisory
programme that can be undertaken in Indian schools and what
tools, methods and techniques of supervision can be realistically
adopted by Indian schools, what conditions favour or hinder
effective supervision, what are the perceptions and attitudes of
teachers, principals and supervisors to the supervisory activities,
what should be the best methods to train supervisors and prepare
them for democratic and cooperative supervision work and what
should be the criteria, tools and methods of evaluating the
effectiveness or the impact of supervision on the improvement of
school quality and its achievement index. Studies in India on
school supervision should be built around such issues and
questions.

This is the lesson and the major conclusion emerging from the survey of research on school supervision presented in this chapter. The present study undertaken by this investigator is a natural corollary or an outcome of this survey.

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