

Knowledge of what needs to be done for teacher growth and school success is the base of a triangle for supervisory action (see Figure III.1). Knowledge needs to be accompanied by interpersonal skills for communicating with teachers and technical skills for planning, assessing, observing, and evaluating instructional improvement. We will now turn to the interpersonal skill dimension.

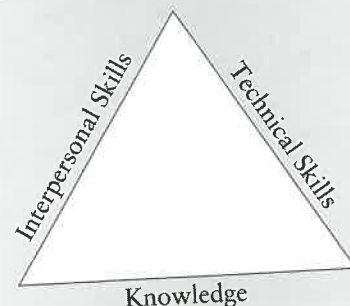


FIGURE III.1 Prerequisite Dimensions for a Supervisor

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## Supervisory Behavior Continuum

### Know Thyself

#### outline

Outcomes of Conference  
Valid Assessment of Self  
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Comparing Self-Perceptions with Others' Perceptions  
Comparing Self-Perceptions to Recorded Behaviors  
Summary, Conclusions, and Preview  
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Re-Booting

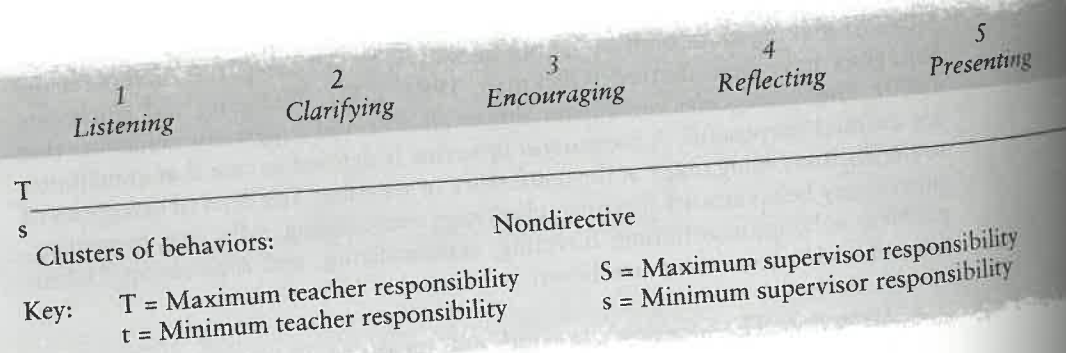
This chapter looks at the range of interpersonal behaviors available to a supervisor who is working with individuals and groups of teachers. It will assess how supervisors typically behave with staff in school settings and then determine other behaviors that might be used skillfully and effectively. Later chapters will provide training in each of four clusters of interpersonal skills.

What are the categories of behaviors? After many years of collecting supervisors' observations in meetings with individuals and groups of teachers for purposes of making classroom or school decisions, broad categories of supervisory behaviors have been derived (Glickman, 1981, 2002; Wolfgang and Glickman, 1980). These categories encompass almost all observed supervisor behaviors that are deemed purposeful. A *purposeful* behavior is defined as one that contributes to the decision being made at the conference or meeting. The derived categories of supervisory behaviors are listening, clarifying, encouraging, reflecting, presenting, problem solving, negotiating, directing, standardizing, and reinforcing. Definitions of each category are as follows:

- **Listening.** The supervisor sits and looks at the speaker and nods his or her head to show understanding. Gutteral utterances ("uh-huh," "umm") also indicate listening.

- *Clarifying.* The supervisor asks questions and statements to clarify the speaker's point of view: "Do you mean that?" "Would you explain this further?" "I'm confused about this." "I lost you on . . ."
- *Encouraging.* The supervisor provides acknowledgment responses that help the speaker continue to explain his or her positions: "Yes, I'm following you." "Continue on." "Ah, I see what you're saying; tell me more."
- *Reflecting.* The supervisor summarizes and paraphrases the speaker's message for verification of accuracy: "I understand that you mean . . ." "So, the issue is . . ." "I hear you saying . . ."
- *Presenting.* The supervisor gives his or her own ideas about the issue being discussed: "This is how I see it." "What can be done is . . ." "I'd like us to consider . . ." "I believe that . . ."
- *Problem solving.* The supervisor takes the initiative, usually after a preliminary discussion of the issue or problem, in pressing all those involved to generate a list of possible solutions. This is usually done through statements such as: "Let's stop and each write down what can be done." "What ideas do we have to solve this problem?" "Let's think of all possible actions we can take."
- *Negotiating.* The supervisor moves the discussion from possible to probable solutions by discussing the consequences of each proposed action, exploring conflict or priorities, and narrowing down choices with questions such as: "Where do we agree?" "How can we change that action to be acceptable to all?" "Can we find a compromise that will give each of us part of what we want?"
- *Directing.* The supervisor tells the participant(s) either what the choices are: "As I see it, these are the alternatives: You could do A . . . , B . . . , or C . . . . Which of these make the most sense to you and which will you use?" Or the supervisor tells the participants what is to be done: "I've decided that we will do . . ." "I want you to do . . ." "The policy will be . . ." "This is how it is going to be." "We will then proceed as follows."

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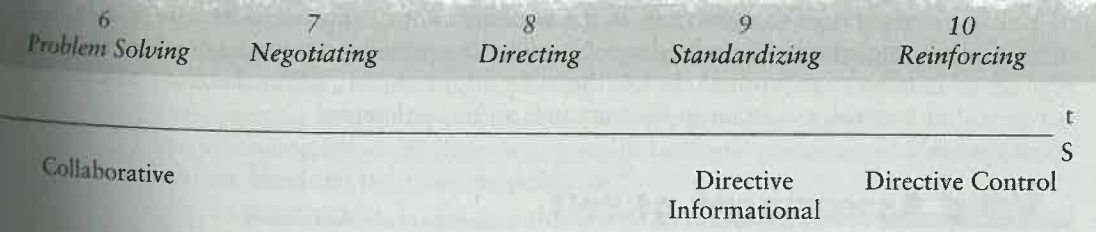
**FIGURE 6.1** The Supervisory Behavior Continuum

- *Standardizing.* The supervisor sets the expected criteria and time for the decision to be implemented. Target objectives are set. Expectations are conveyed with words, such as: "By next Monday, we want to see . . ." "Report back to me on this change by . . ." "Have the first two activities carried out by . . ." "I want an improvement of 25 percent involvement by the next meeting." "We have agreed that all tasks will be done before the next observation."
- *Reinforcing.* The supervisor strengthens the directive and the criteria to be met by telling of possible consequences. Possible consequences can be positive, in the form of praise: "I know you can do it!" "I have confidence in your ability!" "I want to show others what you've done!" Consequences also can be negative: "If it's not done on time, we'll lose the support of . . ." "It must be understood that failure to get this done on time will result in . . ."

The foregoing categories of interpersonal supervisory behavior move participants toward a decision. Some supervisory behaviors place more responsibility on the teacher(s) to make the decision, others place more responsibility on the supervisor to make the decision, and still others indicate a shared responsibility for decision making. The categories of behaviors are listed in a sequence on the supervisory behavior continuum (Figure 6.1) to reflect the scale of control or power.

When a supervisor *listens* to the teacher, *clarifies* what the teacher says, *encourages* the teacher to speak more about the concern, and *reflects* by verifying the teacher's perceptions, then clearly it is the teacher who is in control. The supervisor's role is that of an active prober or sounding board for the teacher to make his or her own decision. The teacher has high control and the supervisor low control over the actual decision (big T, small s). This is seen as a *nondirective interpersonal approach*.

When a supervisor uses nondirective behaviors to understand the teacher's point of view but then participates in the discussion by *presenting* his or her own ideas, *problem solving* by asking all parties to propose possible actions, and then





*negotiating* to find a common course of action satisfactory to teacher and supervisor, then the control over the decision is shared by all. This is viewed as a *collaborative interpersonal approach*.

When a supervisor *directs* the teacher in what the alternatives are from which the teacher might choose, and after the teacher selects, the supervisor *standardizes* the time and criteria of expected results, then the supervisor is the major source of information, providing the teacher with restricted choice (small *t*, big *S*). This is viewed as a *directive informational interpersonal approach*.

Finally, when a supervisor *directs* the teacher in what will be done, *standardizes* the time and criteria of expected results, and *reinforces* the consequences of action or inaction, then the supervisor has taken responsibility for the decision (small *t*, big *S*). The supervisor is clearly determining the actions for the teacher to follow. These behaviors are called a *directive control interpersonal approach*.

### Outcomes of Conference

Another way of clarifying the distinctions among supervisory approaches is by looking at the outcomes of the conference and determining who controls the final decision for instructional improvement.

Approach	Outcome
Nondirective	Teacher self-plan
Collaborative	Mutual plan
Directive informational	Supervisor-suggested plan
Directive control	Supervisor-assigned plan

In the nondirective approach, the supervisor facilitates the teacher's thinking in developing a self-plan. In the collaborative approach, both supervisor and teacher share information and possible practices as equals in arriving at a mutual plan. In the directive informational approach, the supervisor provides the focus and the parameters of possible actions, and the teacher is asked to choose within the supervisor's suggestions. In the directive control approach, the supervisor tells the teacher what is to be done. Nondirective provides maximum teacher choice; collaborative, mutual choice; directive informational, selected choice; and directive control, no choice in the outcome of the conference.

### Valid Assessment of Self

We need to make sure that how we perceive ourselves is consistent with how others perceive us. For example, if we checked that we typically use a collaborative approach with individuals and a nondirective approach with groups, then we need

further information to know whether that is true. If not, then later in this chapter we might recommend a continuation, refinement, or discontinuation with a cluster of behaviors that simply do not exist in anyone's mind but our own. As an example, let us give a personal instance of erroneous self-perception.

As a school principal in New Hampshire, one of the authors regarded himself as operating a successful school and being accessible to teachers. He could document success by external evidence—state and national recognition the school had received and complimentary letters from numerous visitors. He documented his accessibility through casual discussions with teachers in the lounge and by having an open-office policy for every staff member who wished to speak with him. In his third year as a principal at this particular school, the superintendent asked all principals in the school system to allow teachers to evaluate principal performance. One item on the evaluation form was "Ability to Listen to Others," followed by a numerical scale of responses from 1 ("rarely listens") to 7 ("almost always listens"). Before giving the form to teachers, the author filled out the same evaluation form according to his own perception of his performance. He confidently circled the number 7 on "ability to listen." Once the teachers' responses were collected and results were received, he was amazed to find that the lowest teacher rating on the entire survey was on that very item on which he had rated himself highest. To the author's chagrin, there was an obvious discrepancy between his own perception of performance and staff perceptions.

### Johari Window

The Johari Window (Luft, 1970; Janas, 2001) provides a graphic way to look at what we know and do not know about our behavior (see Figure 6.2). Visualize a window with four windowpanes. In this scheme, there are four windowpanes of the self in which behaviors are either known or not known by self (the supervisor) and others (the teachers). In windowpane 1, there are behaviors that both supervisor and teachers know the supervisor uses. This is the *public self*. For example, the supervisor knows that when he or she is anxious, speech will become halting and hesitant; teachers are also aware of what such speech indicates.

In windowpane 2 is the *blind self*—behaviors the supervisor practices that are unknown to the self but are known to teachers. For example, as a school principal, one of the authors was displaying behaviors toward teachers that he thought were listening behaviors, but teachers saw the same behaviors as a failure to listen. Of course, once one becomes aware of teachers' perceptions of those behaviors, the blind self becomes the public self.

In windowpane 3 is the *private self*—behaviors the supervisor has knowledge about but that teachers do not know. For instance, in new situations a supervisor might mask his or her unsureness by being extroverted in greeting others. Only the supervisor knows that this behavior is covering up insecurity. Once the supervisor discloses this perception to others, the private self becomes public.

	Known to Supervisor	Not Known to Supervisor
Known to Teachers	1. Public self	2. Blind self
Not Known to Teachers	3. Private self	4. Unknown self

**FIGURE 6.2** Adaptation of Johari Window

Source: Adapted from Joseph Luft, *Group Processes: An Introduction to Group Dynamics* (New York: National Press Books, 1970).

Finally, there is windowpane 4, the *unknown self*. There are actions a supervisor takes of which both supervisors and teachers are unaware. From time to time the supervisor might rapidly shift his legs while speaking behind a table. Neither supervisor nor teachers are aware of this leg movement. Perhaps a supervisor becomes irritated while a certain teacher is speaking. The supervisor may not know why she is irritated or even that she feels this way, and the teacher may not know either. The unknown self is unconscious to all; it becomes private, blind, or public only by circumstances that create a new awareness.

What does the Johari Window have to do with supervision? We cannot become more effective as supervisors unless we know what we are doing. We may, at our discretion, decide to keep parts of ourselves private. (For example, we may not want teachers to know all the details of our life and personality.) Yet we need to understand that by remaining largely private and not sharing the experiences that bind us as humans, we are creating a distance when we work with teachers. We may prefer formality and distance and may be able to document that such privateness accomplishes certain results. On the other hand, we must also accept that our privateness will be reciprocal, and that staff may not easily discuss personal situations that may affect teaching performance. First, we must be aware of how private or public we are with our staff and determine if we desire teachers to be the same way with us. Second, as supervisors, we cannot afford to be blind to our own behaviors and the effect of those behaviors on others. We can improve only what we know; to believe only our own self-perceptions is to court disaster.

The author's perception of his listening behavior as a principal is a case in point. As long as he saw himself as a wonderful, accessible listener, it did not seem probable that teachers were not coming to him with instructional problems. However, he discovered that on two different occasions teachers had gone to the

superintendent about instructional problems of which he was unaware. After the superintendent had told him that teachers were going over his head, he angrily confronted the teachers with their "unprofessional" behavior. It did not occur to the author that he might have been the one at fault. After the staff evaluations, he could no longer delude himself. Many teachers were not telling him their concerns because they did not believe that he would really listen. The author had to face the fact that the staff did not see him as accessible. He might have avoided collecting such information, continued with his euphoric self-perception, and then been devastated as the school fell apart.

## Cognitive Dissonance

Invalidity of perceptions creates *cognitive dissonance*, according to a model of motivation by psychologist Leon Festinger (1957). The model is based on the premise that a person cannot live with contradictory psychological evidence—that is, thinking of himself or herself in one way while other sources of information indicate that he or she is different. When the author's perception of his listening abilities were contradicted by teacher perceptions, mental turmoil or cognitive dissonance was created. For example, if you believe that you are a collaborative supervisor and then you receive feedback from teachers that you are a directive supervisor, this will cause cognitive dissonance. We must wrestle with disparate perceptions and reconcile them. If not, the two differing sources of information will continue to bother us. This mental anguish strives to resolve the question of what is it that we really do. The resolution can come about in three alternative ways (Hyman, 1975).

First, we can dismiss the source of contrary evidence as biased and untrue. For example, the principal might rationalize, "I really am a good listener; teachers marked me low because they didn't like the way I scheduled bus duties." Or the supervisor might think he or she really is collaborative: "Teachers simply don't understand what collaboration is." By dismissing the other source of information as erroneous, we can continue to believe that we are what we originally thought. No further change is necessary.

Second, we can change our own self-perception to conform to the other source of information and can then live with the new perception of ourselves. We accept that they are right and we are wrong; thus, our perception will now be theirs. For example, "I really was wrong about my listening abilities, and I now reconcile myself to being a poor listener," or "The supervisor is really not collaborative but instead is, as the teachers say, directive." Accepting the other source of information makes dissonance vanish so that no further change is necessary.

Third, we can accept our original self-perception as how we wish to be perceived, use the other source of information as an indicator of how we are currently perceived, and then change our behaviors to be more similar to our wish. In other

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words, our perception was not accurate, but it still represents what we want to be. In our example, the author thought he was a good listener, but others said that he was not; so he attempted to change his listening behaviors in order to become a good listener. The supervisor thought he or she was collaborative but others said that he or she was directive; so he or she changed behavior to become more collaborative.

The third alternative to resolving cognitive dissonance creates behavioral change. Whenever we have an idea of how we desire to be matched against the reality of how others see us, there exist conditions for individual change. The acknowledged gap between what is and what should be becomes a powerful stimulus to change. We change our behaviors and gather feedback from others to determine whether others are forming new perceptions of us and more positive results are forthcoming.

### Comparing Self-Perceptions with Others' Perceptions

Box 6.1 provides an instrument that the supervisor uses to compare self-perceptions with teacher perceptions of supervisor performance. The *Supervisor's Self-Assessment* is divided into four sections: "Professional Characteristics," "Skills," "Individual Assistance," and "Schoolwide Assistance," and yields a sub-score for each section. The process of self-assessment begins with the supervisor completing and self-scoring the instrument. It is important for the supervisor to be totally open when completing the self-assessment, so as a general rule the supervisor should not be expected to share results with superiors or teachers. The supervisor next distributes the instrument to the teachers or a randomly selected sample of the teachers he or she supervises. It's important that the teachers complete and return the completed instruments anonymously. After calculating item, section, and overall means of teacher responses, the supervisor can compare self-perceptions with teacher perceptions. When comparing self-ratings to teacher ratings on any particular item, the supervisor can reach a variety of conclusions, including:

1. Supervisor and teacher satisfaction with supervisor performance
2. Supervisor satisfaction and teacher dissatisfaction with supervisor performance
3. Supervisor dissatisfaction and teacher satisfaction with supervisor performance
4. Supervisor and teacher dissatisfaction with supervisor performance

Any of the last three conclusions can be the basis for supervisor-defined improvement objectives, and supervisor-designed action plans for the improvement of instructional assistance.

#### BOX 6.1 Supervisor's Self-Assessment

**Directions for Completing:** Place in the space before each item the number (1, 2, 3, or 4) of the response that most nearly indicates your level of agreement with the item:

1. Strongly disagree
2. Disagree
3. Agree
4. Strongly agree

##### Section A: Professional Characteristics

- \_\_\_ 1. The supervisor is genuinely concerned with the growth and development of students.
- \_\_\_ 2. The supervisor is genuinely concerned with the growth and development of teachers.
- \_\_\_ 3. The supervisor is trustworthy.
- \_\_\_ 4. The supervisor treats teachers fairly.
- \_\_\_ 5. The supervisor is flexible.
- \_\_\_ 6. The supervisor is ethical.

##### Section B: Skills

- \_\_\_ 7. The supervisor displays communication skills.
- \_\_\_ 8. The supervisor displays needs assessment skills.
- \_\_\_ 9. The supervisor displays planning skills.
- \_\_\_ 10. The supervisor displays group facilitation skills.
- \_\_\_ 11. The supervisor displays problem-solving skills.
- \_\_\_ 12. The supervisor displays change agency skills.
- \_\_\_ 13. The supervisor displays observation skills.
- \_\_\_ 14. The supervisor displays conflict resolution skills.

##### Section C: Individual Assistance

- \_\_\_ 15. The supervisor effectively observes teaching and provides helpful feedback.
- \_\_\_ 16. The supervisor provides useful instructional resources.
- \_\_\_ 17. The supervisor fosters teacher reflection.
- \_\_\_ 18. The supervisor demonstrates effective teaching.

- \_\_\_ 19. The supervisor shares innovative instructional strategies.
- \_\_\_ 20. The supervisor effectively assists beginning teachers.
- \_\_\_ 21. The supervisor effectively assists teachers with instructional problems they are experiencing.
- \_\_\_ 22. The supervisor effectively assists teachers to plan for instruction.
- \_\_\_ 23. The supervisor effectively assists teachers to assess student learning.
- \_\_\_ 24. The supervisor effectively assists teachers to individualize instruction.

##### Section D: Schoolwide Assistance

- \_\_\_ 25. The supervisor effectively facilitates instructional dialogue among teachers.
- \_\_\_ 26. The supervisor fosters a positive school culture.
- \_\_\_ 27. The supervisor facilitates collective vision building.
- \_\_\_ 28. The supervisor fosters teacher collaboration for schoolwide instructional improvement.
- \_\_\_ 29. The supervisor fosters teacher empowerment.
- \_\_\_ 30. The supervisor effectively facilitates teachers' professional development.
- \_\_\_ 31. The supervisor effectively facilitates curriculum development.
- \_\_\_ 32. The supervisor effectively facilitates program evaluation.

**Directions for Scoring:** For the instrument completed by the supervisor, add the ratings for the items in each section to find subtotals. The range of possible subtotals for each section follows:

Section A: Professional Characteristics, from 6–24.  
Section B: Skills, from 8–32.  
Section C: Individual Assistance, from 10–40.  
Section D: Schoolwide Assistance, from 8–32.

The overall rating (the sum of the four subtotals) ranges from 32 to 128.

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For the instrument completed by teachers, calculate the mean scores for each item, section, and the overall rating. For example, if five teachers responded to the same item with ratings of 2, 3, 4, 4, and 5 respectively, the teachers' mean rating for that item would be 3.6. For an example at the sec-

tion level, if the subtotals on Section A from five teachers were 16, 18, 19, 21, and 22, the mean ratings for Section A would be 19.2. For the overall mean, if individual overall ratings by five teachers were 83, 92, 100, 112, and 118, the overall mean for teacher ratings would be 101.

### Comparing Self-Perceptions to Recorded Behaviors

Another way to create cognitive dissonance as a catalyst for improvement of supervisory practice is for the supervisor to compare his or her perceptions to data gathered on the supervisor's actual behaviors. One of the key processes a supervisor is responsible for is gathering data on classroom behaviors to assist teachers to improve their instruction. It makes sense, then, for the supervisor to analyze data on her or his own performance for the purpose of improved supervision. Data gathering on supervision often takes place while the supervisor is interacting with individual teachers or groups. The data can be gathered in a number of ways. Another supervisor can observe a conference or meeting that the observed supervisor is conducting and gather requested data. The supervisor can tape a supervisory conference or meeting and review the tape. The supervisor can analyze documents that reflect supervisory behaviors, such as e-mails, memos, and observation reports that she or he has prepared. The purpose of analyzing these types of data is to compare the supervisor's perceptions to recorded supervisory behaviors. Comparison of perceptions to data can create the same types of cognitive dissonance as the comparison of supervisor and teacher perceptions discussed in the previous section. In fact, comparing supervisor perceptions to hard data may bring about cognitive dissonance more easily than comparison of supervisors and teacher perceptions. The cognitive dissonance caused by self-analysis of data on supervisory behaviors can lead to changes in supervisory behaviors.

What types of data on supervisory performance should be gathered and analyzed? Data might be gathered on interpersonal behaviors in general. For example, when a supervisor attempts to use a collaborative approach, are collaborative behaviors in evidence, or does the supervisor slip into directive or nondirective behaviors? Data also can be used to compare the supervisor's behaviors with different groups. Does the supervisor treat men and women differently? Hispanics and Whites? Younger and older teachers? If so, why is one group treated differently from the other? If equity is an educational goal, then equitable treatment of teachers by supervisors should be a model for teachers and students. By recording and analyzing supervisory behaviors through the lens of equity, the supervisor can recognize problems in this area and begin to improve her or his own performance.

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND PREVIEW

This chapter outlined the supervisory behavior continuum and the clustering of interpersonal behaviors into nondirective, collaborative, directive informational, and directive control approaches. An assessment instrument was provided. A discourse on the Johari Window and cognitive dissonance was given so that we might check the perceptions of our beliefs and behaviors by those who are recipients of our behaviors. To compare our own supervisory beliefs and self-perceived interpersonal behavior with teacher perceptions of our behavior or with objective data is believed to be important in refining and changing behaviors.

We will next examine and practice the skills of each supervisory approach in terms of actual conferencing and meeting behaviors. Understanding how we behave as supervisors and then refining our present behaviors are the first steps toward acquiring new interpersonal behaviors.

### PRACTITIONER REFLECTION

#### Re-Booting

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I generally do not consider myself religious but spirituality is an important part of my life. One Sunday, not unlike any other Sunday, as I sat in my regular pew, my mind began to wander during the sermon. The sermon was on the need to transform one's self, away from conformity and self-importance toward what is really important in life. I was completely unaware until the moment when my mind began to wander that I needed to be transformed. As a leader I have experience with building master schedules, managing students, and solving technology problems. During all of these activities I frequently use the term *re-boot*. What I did not know was that in my daily rush of high standards, I needed to re-boot. My mind had conformed to the world around me. I had become lost in the tasks and pride of my personal accomplishments and forgotten to match my inner self with my outer self. I was suffering from a case of cognitive dissonance.

I have worked at the same school since it opened nine years ago, first as a teacher and now as an assistant principal. The majority of these years have been wonderful experiences of growth, excellence, and touching the lives of students. For the past three years a sense of discord and uneasiness had been present both in my heart and in my mind. When I began my nine-year journey at Connally, I worked for a legend in education and leadership who helped create a profoundly successful school. As legends often do, he retired and I then turned my loyalty and soul to the new leader. The new principal was a legend in his own right but was not worshiped by all as the inaugural principal had been. After the first year with the new leader I began to feel completely overwhelmed. Many of what I considered "principal tasks" were now mine, including making difficult leadership decisions, and I began to resent the new principal. I hate to admit it, but I was quite pleased when he left. For the third principal,

Connally was a one-year stepping-stone. She, unlike the previous two principals, never quite embraced Connally as the best place you could be as an educator. These three years were difficult for me, and when the Connally success began to falter during this time I blamed the top. I never looked at myself as part of the problem. I was the solution. I love Connally. I was part of the original staff. I had a master's degree. I was working on my Ph.D. I was Queen Connally. Sometimes the queen is part of the problem. My realization was that I had been conforming to my surroundings. I realized that I had my own hand in the problems my school was experiencing.

As my mind wandered in church that day I decided to drive out the discord I could no longer ignore. The cognitive dissonance I was experiencing was that my inner professional self was not matching my outer professional self. This experience helped me to formulate three lessons.

Lesson one is to remember who you are. To do this I had to realize that I was not the job I had, and I needed to rediscover my purposeful behaviors. Lesson two is to choose the present and future over the past. Connally must continue to educate students. It should not matter who the leader of Connally is. I should be able to work to reverse problems at Connally and not spend my time blaming the leadership. I must drop the past, stand in the present, and look forward. Lesson three is to choose reason over emotion. This does not mean becoming emotionless, but rather to realize that what you feel today can control your thoughts and can influence how you feel and act in the future. I had to refocus my thoughts on the present and future.

My inner self was guilty of exaggerating my own importance and causing an imbalance between my inner and outer self. Fortunately, the cognitive dissonance I was experiencing had yet to greatly affect the perceptions or behaviors of those around me. Now that I have taken the time to reflect and "re-boot," I am at peace and willing to do whatever it takes to be the best educational leader I can. I can do this because I have been transformed by the resolution of my cognitive dissonance. My inner and outer selves are once again in balance. Well, at least until my mind needs to be re-booted again.

## EXERCISES

### Academic

1. After reviewing the 10 categories of supervision defined in this chapter, list specific behaviors your supervisor has exhibited while supervising you. For each example, write a brief description of your feelings toward the supervisor while he or she was using the given behavior, as well as your behavioral response to the situation. What does a review of your feelings and responses tell you about the supervisory approach you most prefer? Least prefer?
2. This chapter proposes three possible ways of resolving the mental conflict brought about by cognitive dissonance. Prepare a report in which you cite examples of cognitive dissonance you have personally experienced and your reaction to each resulting dilemma. Based on your recollections, which of the three possible responses to cognitive dissonance has been your typical mode of resolution?

3. Label the left-hand column of a sheet of paper "Public Self" and the right-hand column "Private Self." Think of personality or other characteristics that you intentionally disguise in your work setting. For each characteristic, describe in a few words the image you consciously present to others (left-hand column) and the real you that your public behavior conceals (right-hand column).
4. Locate a research study on the effectiveness of one or more of the following supervisor approaches to supervisor-teacher conferences: (a) directive control, (b) directive informational, (c) collaborative, and (d) nondirective. Summarize the purpose, methods, results, and conclusions of the study in writing.
5. Chapter 6 relates an experience in which a discrepancy between a blind self and a public self led to communication problems with subordinates. Discuss in writing three other situations in which conflicts between a supervisor's blind self and public self might eventually lead to leadership problems.

### Field

1. Arrange to visit a teacher's class and for a postobservation conference with that teacher. The postobservation conference should include an analysis of the teacher's instructional performance, the setting of instructional improvement goals, and planning a strategy for meeting those goals. Record the postobservation on audiotape. Refer to the categories of supervisor behavior in this book as you listen to the tape. Write a paper in which you state whether you used a primarily directive, collaborative, or nondirective approach during the postobservation conference. Cite examples of specific behaviors you exhibited during the postobservation conference. Compare those behaviors with your results on the Supervisory Beliefs Inventory (Chapter 5).
2. Carry out the exercises suggested in this chapter. Prepare a written report on the results of the exercises and your reaction to those results.
3. Put yourself in the shoes of an individual you supervise or have supervised. (Even those not in formal supervisory roles have at one time or another been responsible for supervising others.) Write a description of your supervisory style; be careful to describe your supervisory style as the other person would, not as you would. Compare this description of your supervisory style with your results on the Supervisory Beliefs Inventory.
4. Draw a two-frame cartoon for each of the following themes: (a) public self—private self, (b) my message—their perception, (c) cognitive dissonance. Base your cartoons on personal experiences or observations in a school setting. Write narratives explaining each cartoon.

### Developmental

1. Begin to make mental notes on behaviors you use when supervising others. Look for patterns of behavior that can be related to an orientation toward supervision (directive, collaborative, nondirective, eclectic) of which you may not now be conscious.