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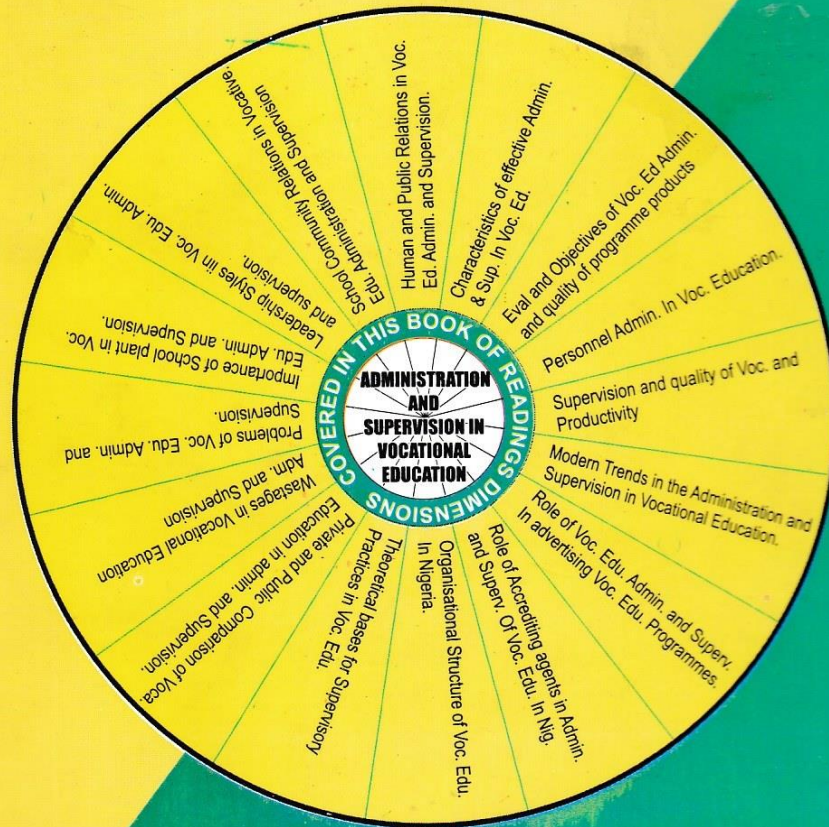School Community Relations and supervision.
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THEORETICAL BASES FOR SUPERVISORY PRACTICES IN VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

BY

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Abstract
Effectiveness of any business enterprise is heavily dependent upon the supervisors. One guiding principle of Vocational Education practice demands that Vocational Education given in schools or classes should be under public supervision or control. Although supervisory staff in Vocational Education carry certain administrative responsibilities, the major purpose of supervision in Vocational Education is the improvement of instruction. It is widely assumed that the performance of vocational education teachers, like employees in all other occupations, improves when the supervisors employ certain styles of supervision. These styles are based such leadership theories as life cycle theory of leadership, contingency theory of leadership path-goal theory, situational leadership theory; developmental approach focuses on effective supervision as a product of the influence of the supervisor's stages of development, positive management theory and others. These theories appear to constitute the bases for supervisory practices and effectiveness in vocational education. However, management experts have complained that educators are apparently reluctant in using management tools that have been widely acclaimed to be effective in shaping or asserting unconscious control over others. Supervisory behaviour is indeed an important determinant of workers' productivity or work effectiveness. Supervision in Vocational Education, however, is plagued by the problem of determining most conducive supervisory behaviour that would lead to instructional improvement. The chapter covers highlights of some conceptual propositions which attempt to predict, explain and guide effective supervisory behaviour in Vocational Education.

Introduction

An important contribution of supervision to management practices is in the daily operations of industrial organizations through routine direction and control of employees' activities. According to Simmons (1978), the measure of effectiveness and efficiency of an organization is determined by how effectively and efficiently the supervisors perform the basic role of motivating the employees to increase their productivity. Creating an optimal production requires that the right skills, equipment, materials, and information be brought together at the right time and in the right place. This bringing together of the needed resources for pedagogic tasks results from supervisory efforts in developing the detailed modules of the organisation's plan and schedules, in maintaining the quality of subordinate task behaviour, and in co-ordinating separate task behviour into an integrated task process. Megginson (1978) in endorsing this principle declared, that "the effectiveness of any business enterprise is heavily dependent upon the supervisors" (p. 244). He also urged management to give sufficient time and attention to the effective and efficient utilization of human resources at their disposal. This altruistic goal characterized the various issues and concern which led to a greater effort on the part of organizational theorists in the search for and formulation of leadership/ supervisory theories that can have direct application to organizational growth and human behaviour.

Concept of Supervision

Contemporary management thought has been plagued by a confusion between supervision and leadership. Simmons (1978) traced the source of the confusion and gave a clear distinction between the two processes, suggesting that such distinction would help clarify a number of operational problems. According to him, the common meanings of the two concepts would be preserved if leadership is understood as a process of goals or direction setting and supervision is taken as a process assuring the meeting of given goals or the following of given directions. By this clarification, leadership focuses on the administrative process while supervision is a task-oriented process. However, there appears to be a convergence of ideas regarding both concepts as indicated by the various attributes attached to them. Boardman, Douglas, and Best (1963) and Nwaogu (1980) described supervision as the effort to stimulate, co-ordinate, and guide the continued growth of teachers toward a better understanding of, and a more effective performance of all the functions of instruction. On the other hand, Ukeje (1991) and Ezeocha (1992) agreed with Stogdill (1974) in conceptualizing leadership as the art of directing, influencing, co-odinating and motivating the activities of an organized group toward goal setting and goal achievement. The convergence of ideas concerning the two concepts becomes more glaring when one considers Alfonso, Firth, and Neville's (1975) description of leadership as behaviour that causes individuals to move toward goals they find to be important and that creates in the followers a feeling of well being. According to them, successful instructional supervision cannot exist in the absence of effective leadership behaviour; since, by assuming the position of a supervisor, one indicates willingness to exert leadership influence and to be held accountable for effecting the behaviour of teachers in such a way that the goals of the organization are achieved. Also, Burton and Bruechkner (1985) clarify goal-oriented leadership in education as "supervisory leadership" and subsequently assert that "democracy in supervision means enlisting the abilities of teachers, principals and superintendents in the co-operative enterprise of improving teaching or other aspect of teaching-learning situation". In the light of the above one can equally say that supervision implies leadership (p. 83) the effectiveness of which suggests that it has theoretical bases which should be consistent with theories of supervisory effectiveness.

The focus on the study of supervision as a means of increasing, productivity appears to be very prominent following an assertion by Locke (1966) that supervision can lead to maximum performance if it includes the establishment of specific performance goals. Based on this assertion, Ronan, Lotham and Kinne (1973) undertook a study to examine supervisory variables that effect performance. The findings of their investigation indicated that:

1. Supervision without goal setting results in inferior performance.
2. Goal setting without supervision result in high labour turnover.
3. Supervision as defined by staying on the job and setting production goals results in higher productivity.

Of theoretical significance of the study was that its findings provided rudimentary support to the Management By Objectives (MBO) philosophy advocated by Drucker (1954) and Odiorne (1965). They stressed the need for the interaction between supervision and goal setting.

However, there are dissenting views that closeness of supervision has some detrimental effects on workers' performance. For instance, Kaln and Katz (1970) in highlighting the detrimental effect of close supervision explained that most workers desire maximum autonomy and that supervision that does not permit it leads to lower morale and motivation. It was also explained that the regularity of supervisory activities might have other adverse effects on work patterns. They gave examples of situations in which supervisory check-ups have been used to ensure job performance. They noted that with regular check-ups, the workers may learn when they need to be present to coincide with the appearance of the supervisor, and thus may spend little additional time on the job. With irregular check-ups, such anticipation may not hold and so workers remain on the job for longer periods. Examples such as these suggest the potential adverse effects of the schedule of an activity in supervisory situations. But Mole, Plant and Salaman (1993) countered that these effects may be limited to certain types of setting and production techniques.

The choice of criteria for supervisory effectiveness is frequently complicated by extraneous influences. Hill (1979) made it apparent that situational variables such as centralization and work evaluation, organizational complexity, size and structure of organization, work group structure, and communication patterns have important influence on the effectiveness of supervisory behaviour. In their views, Hersey and Blanchård (1982) related supervisory behaviour to effectiveness and defined effectiveness and ineffectiveness as occurring when a supervisor's style is appropriate and inappropriate respectively. Although, they recognized that effectiveness can be viewed as a continuum, they did not acknowledge the multifacet nature of the concept. Besides, it is widely assumed that employees will work harder for supervisors who employ certain styles of supervision than they will for supervisors who use other styles (Simmons, 1978; Cohen, Fink, Gardon & Willits, 1980). But one of the most perplexing problems in researches relating to organizational management has been that of determining the supervisory style(s) most conducivie to promoting effective work group. There are reports that empirical studies directed toward determining the style which is most effective have yielded inconclusive results (Hill, 1979; McCormick, 1989; Fitzgerald, 1993; Hutchinson, 1993).

Several conceptual propositions which could predict, explain, and guide effective leadership or supervisory behaviour have been developed. The approaches most prominently featured in literature on supervisory practices and highlighted in this review are consideration and initiating structure, life cycle theory, contingency theory of leadership, path-goal theory, situational leadership theory, the developmental approach, positive management theory, and quality approach.

Consideration and Initiating Structure of Leadership behaviour in supervision:

One of the earliest sets of modern studies which focused on the kinds of behaviour engaged in supervisory practices was the extensive Ohio State University Studies (Fleishman and Harris, 1962). The investigators developed over 1,800 items descriptive of what supervisors do in their leadership roles. These items were then classified into ten broad categories of leadership behaviour. Their further analysis of the items revealed that the ten categories overlapped with one another and that the items could be grouped into two basic dimensions of leader behaviour. These were labelled consideration and initiating structure. Consideration refers to behaviours indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth in the relationship between the supervisory and the subordinates. Initiating structure, on the other hand, refers to the supervisor's behaviour in delineating the relationship between himself and members of the work-group, and in endeavouring to establish well defined patterns of organization, channel of communication, and procedure. Fleishman and Harris compared these two dimensions with other modes of supervisory behaviour. From the comparison, consideration was said to be very much like employee centred supervision. Initiating structure, on the other hand, was said to be most similar in meaning to terms life job-centred, directive and task-oriented supervision. When leaders behaviours were examined in an industry in Germany, the factors which emerged were very clearly consideration and initiating structure (Strauss, 1977). There is little doubt that these two dimensions represent reliable phenomena in the assessment of leadership behvariour. Bedeian (1986) has cited the results of the study by Likert and associates (1961) on differences in leadership styles. The findings of Likert's investigation appear to support those of Felishman and Harris (1962) and Strauss (1977). Supervisors and managers who achieve the highest productivity, lowest costs, least turnover and absence rates and highest levels of employee motivation and satisfaction appear to rank high on both on consideration and initiating structure. Likert viewed his effective supervisor or leader, employee-centred and the less effective supervisors, job

centred. Even though the leadership studies were based on industries, their findings are very relevant to the administrative and supervisory practices in vocational and technical education. The interdependence of the two dimensions is an important practical and theoretical issue. Various studies have shown consideration and initiating structure to be either positively correlated, or uncorrelated, and sometimes negatively correlated (Frost and Jamal, 1979; Orpen, 1981; Arnold, 1982). Although Halpin (1966) acknowledged that these two patterns of behaviours may be the production of both individual and situational factors and also recognized that the supervisor may need to adopt different behaviour patterns in different situations, he did not conceptualize in any systematic way the situational conditions that could affect the relationship between supervisory behaviour and effectiveness. Despite this limitation, consideration and initiating structure has gone a milestone in the study of supervision because it represents the first serious attempt to consider supervision in a behavioural dimension.

Life cycle theory of leadership:

Hersey and Blanchard's (1982) life cycle theory was developed in 1976 as a follow-up to Reddin's (1970) Three Dimensional Theory. Reddin's Three Dimensional Theory posits the importance of relations orientation and task orientation in conjunction with effectiveness. From the interplay of these dimensions, he proposed a typology of management styles (autocrat, missionary, the deserter). Although Reddin explained that his framework suggests effectiveness as a function of matching style to situation his approach did not identify specific situational attributes that could be explicitly incorporated into a predictive scheme.

Building on Reddin's (1970) suggestion that leadership or supervisory effectiveness varies according to style, Hersey and Blanchard (1976) proposed a life cycle theory of leadership. According to life cycle theory, degrees of task orientation and relations orientation must be examined in conjunction with the dimension of workers maturity to account for supervisory effectiveness. The central precept of Hersey and Blanchard life cycle theory is that "as the level of workers maturity increases, effective supervisory behaviour will involve less structuring and less socio-emotional relations" (p.129). However, the decline in need for both supervisory styles is not straight forward. During the early stages of an employees'

tenure, a low level of relations orientation coupled with task orientation is considered ideal. As the employee matures, the need for socio-emotional supervisory support increases, while the need for structure declines. At the highest levels of employees' maturity, supervisory task and social behaviour becomes superfluous for effective employee performance.

Contingency Theory of Leadership:

This theory claims to evaluate the supervisory problems inherent in an organization and to predict the characteristics of the supervisor who can enhance maximum productivity in the organization. Its general thrust is that effective supervision depends upon the fit between the motivation of the supervisor and the favourableness of the situation. According to Fiedler (1967), supervision involves a personal relationship in which one person directs, co-ordinates, and controls others in the performance of a common task. Fielder maintained that the relations motivated leaders/supervisors would be more effective than task motivated leaders/supervisors in situations of moderate favourableness. The reverse holds in highly favourable or highly unfavourable situations. The degree to which a situation is favourable to the supervisor depends upon: (a) the quality of the supervisor-subordinate relations (the warmer and friendlier, the more favourable); (b) the nature of the tasks performed by the subordinate (the more structured, the more favourable); and (c) the positional power of the supervisor (the greater the positional power, the more favourable).

The contingency theory has three main criticisms. First, as Ashour (1973) pointed out, the theory appears vague as it fails to offer any meaningful explanations for the relationships that are specified. The second criticism relates to the inference from the theory that task-motivated supervisors would be more effective than relations-motivated supervisors when the relationships are friendly, the tasks highly structured, and the positional power relatively great. In this regard, Ashour argued that Fiedler did not explain why the task-motivated supervisor is more likely to be effective than the relations-motivated supervisor under the stipulated circumstances. Thirdly, Ashour also alleged that the theory had weak empirical support in both educational and non-educational settings and that data offered in support of the theory are often in the hypothesized direction which fail to attain statistical

significance.

Path-Goal Theory:

The path-goal view emerged as a potentially useful theory of leadership (House, 1973). A path-goal theory of motivation or energy expenditure was first introduced by Georgopolous, Mahoney, and Jones (1957). The path-goal theory, emphasizes how the leader influences the subordinate's perceptions of his work, personal goals and paths to goal attainment. The central hypothesis is that thetheory is that a leader's behaviour is motivating or satisfying to the degree that the behaviour increases subordinate goal attainment and clarifies the paths to these goals (Bedeian, 1986). The theory is based on two propositions, namely:

(1)   the force on a person to engage in an activity is a function of the person's expectation that a behaviour will result in a specific outcome and

(2)   the force on a person to engage in certain activity is a function of the sum of the utilities which are derived from that outcome.

In simpler terms, these propositions mean that a subordinate will engage in activities necessary for group effectiveness if, and only if, group effectiveness is seen as leading to outcomes and rewards which are personally rewarding. One of the implications of these propositions, as emphasized by House (1973), is that the motivational function of a supervisor is to increase the personal payoffs to the subordinate for work goal attainment, hence, his definition of an effective supervisor as one who enhances the motivation of subordinates. In a sense, the supervisor functions to make the path to the goal easier to follow by clarifying it and removing obstacles which impede the progress of the subordinates. The motivational impact of the supervisor depends upon the type of supervisory behaviour displayed under various situational circumstances, namely the nature of the task to be performed by subordinates, formal authority system of the organization, and the primary work group of the subordinates. Although this theoretical formulation offers a relatively less complex view of supervisory effectiveness with considerable heuristic value, Bridges and Tierney (1991) cautioned users to bear in mind that indicators of effectiveness in the application of this theory are the psychological states of subordinates, and not the extent to which the subordinates accomplish their tasks.

It is also useful to note that the path-goal is a situational theory involving two

situational variables: personal characteristics of the subordinates and environmental pressures and demands with which the subordinates must cope in order to meet their work goals and satisfy their needs.

Situational Leadership Theory:

The situational leadership theory is a refinement of life cycle theory of leadership first published by Hersey and Blanchard in 1976. In the situational leadership perspective, supervision is viewed as the process of accomplishing goals with and through people. The theory is based upon an interplay among task- behaviour, relations-behaviour, follower maturity and effectiveness of supervisory style. The essence of this theory is that the subordinate performance, which leads to task accomplishment, is a function of the appropriateness of the fit between the maturity level of subordinate and the behaviour of the supervisor (Gates, Blanchard and Hersey, 1976). Maturity refers to the subordinate's capacity to set high but attainable goals, willingness and ability to take responsibility, and education or experience relevant to the task. Supervisory behaviour consists of relations behaviour and task behaviour. Heresy and Blanchard (1982) provided still greater precision to these concepts. They suggested that followers' maturity can be broken into benchmark categories of high, moderate and low, and that appropriate supervisory style can be summarized in terms of a supervisor telling, selling, participating, or delegating in relations with subordinates. According to the situational leadership theory, as the level of maturity of the subordinate continues to increase in accomplishing a task, the supervisor should reduce the task behaviour and increase relations behaviour until their individual reaches a moderate level of maturity. As the individuals begin to move into and above average level of maturity, it becomes appropriate for the supervisor to decrease both task and relations behaviour. When the individual is fully matured both psychologically and in terms of task performance, and can provide his own strokes and reinforcement, a great deal of the socio-emotional support from the supervisor is no longer necessary. People at this level see a reduction of close supervision and an increase in delegation by the supervisor as a positive indication of trust and confidence. Thus situational leadership theory focuses on the appropriateness of effective supervisory style according to the task relevant of the subordinates.

At purely theoretical level, it has been observed by Sanford (1973) that

the concepts embedded in the situational leadership theory have a good deal of overlap with those contained in other popular views such as Maslow's (1959) Need Hierarchy and McGregor's (1960) Theory X and Y. The fact that the situational leadership theory overlaps with other theories which contain a high degree of overlap suggests that it focuses on critical features of behaviour that have been previously identified. Moreover, it can be contended that since most of these theories have not achieved a high degree of empirical support, despite a fair amount of attention in academic literature, the situational leadership theory overlapping with them is not in itself sufficient evidence of its validity. In terms of internal theoretical coherence, Bridges and Tierney (1991) suggested that the manner in which components of dimensions in situational leadership theory are combined and the manner of graphic presentation of a four-dimensional model in only two dimensions are critical problems for the theory. They however argued in its favour that the situational leadership theory focuses on issues of leader flexibility and the importance of subordinates' attributes as the key situational determinants of appropriate leader behaviour. At an empirical level, they submitted that investigations of the theoretical and empirical robustness of the situational leadership theory have been rare. Although the theory contains strong intuitive appeal, the veracity of the theory has not yet been assessed via a rigorous test.

Developmental Approach:

The developmental approach advanced by Glickman (1980) is still one of the most recent propositions for effective supervision. The developmental approach was predicated on the concern that, contrary to the homogeneity of views of workers implied in other theories, human beings do not think alike. Glickman cited some popular works to buttress his consideration and the justification for the developmental approach to supervisory practices. Some of such works include the work of Piaget (1973) which documented developmental stage changes from infancy to adolescence, the works of Erickson (1975) and Sheeby (1976) which suggested that people encounter common experiences at varying stages of adult life, and the work of Fuller (1979) which suggested that the child developmental progression from egocentric to altruistic thinking recapitulates itself when adults enter a new career. The reasoning in the developmental approach is that for a supervisor to work effectively with each worker, the supervisor needs to be

knowledgeable about the developmental stages of the worker and the different approaches to supervision.

Using the teaching profile to illustrate the developmental stages of workers, Glickman (1980) explained that the beginning stages of teaching are characterized by teachers' concern for their adequacy. The beginning teacher wants to be shown the "tricks" for survival. Later as the teacher becomes more secure, the concern moves from one's self to one's students. The teacher desires to seek resources, share ideas, and become involved in tasks that focus on refining and expanding educational opportunities for students. The logical conclusion of this sequence is the outstanding teacher who eventually moves away from self-concern to concerns for improving one's classroom, and then to concerns with one's school and profession as a whole. The teacher at this stage knows his or her competencies, knows where to seek resources and feedback, and desires to help other teachers and students and to improve education for the collective group.

Following Glickman and Esposito's (1979) models, the various approaches to supervision were also categorized as non-directive, collaborative, and directive. The matching between the various approaches to supervision and stages of teacher development were made as follows:

1. Teachers inS the first stage, concerned with self survival, might profit most from the directive model.
2. Teachers in the second stage, who are concerned with improving the learning environment for their students, might be approached using the collaborative model.
3. Teachers in the third stage, who are concerned with helping other students and teachers, may need only the minimal influence of the non-directive supervision.

Glickman (1980) however cautioned supervisors to be aware of the fact that the stages as outlined above, naturally are not all inclusive. There may be overlaps from one to the next as well as the possibility of regression when obstacle becomes too great. It is however apparent that a supervisor might serve the teacher better by responding to individual needs instead of fusing a single uniform approach.

Positive Management Theory:

The use of positive management approach in educational supervision was advocated for by Reyes (1980) who expressed dissatisfaction with the traditional mode of

supervision in which supervisors tried to change the behaviour of employees by threatening and pressing them. He observed that the ammunition of the traditional supervisors were the use of "angry words, suspensions, demotions, transfers, and docking" (p. 544). This traditional approach, instead of promoting group effectiveness, mostly produces apathy between the workers and supervisors (Bobele & Buchman, 1976). Reyes (1980) also observed that business and industry were finding that positive reinforcement is a useful tool in management and supervision. According to Hammer and Hammer (1976) managers and supervisors use the principles by finding ways to reinforce desired behaviours of employees when they occur.

In positive management approach, the supervisor tries to identify and reinforce employee behaviours which are consistent with the goals of the organization. Positive management requires that the goals be defined as changes in behaviour or performance. Target behaviours are usually identified by analyzing employee performance in those operations where improvement is desired. Behavioural goals can also be set for management and supervisory personnel. Once behavioural goals have been established, the supervisor applies the "Skinnerian" principle that behaviour which is reinforced is strengthened and occurs more frequently. Praise and feedback or giving information about performance level have been used extensively as reinforcers with good results. Feedback has the advantage of immediacy, an important element, since positive reinforcement is more effective when it closely follows the desired behaviour. Other reinforcers used by business and industry include granting time off, participating in lotteries, sharing in increased profits, and moving to more interesting jobs (Kreitner, 1975; McAdam, 1975).

In education, teachers have used positive reinforcement in the classroom to strengthen a wide variety of behaviour associated with students' learning and growth. However, there are few reports of the systematic use of positive reinforcement by educational administrators and supervisors. Reyes (1980) observed that educators seem to be reluctant in the use of management tools that have been widely acclaimed to be effective in shaping behaviour or asserting unconscious control over others. The apparent aversion may be caused by the difficulty of identifying appropriate dependent variables against which efforts of the educational supervisors could be measured. In business and industry, the

objective is usually to increase the frequency of behaviours associated with more production or better service. By analogy then, Reyes submitted that an intervention by the educational supervisor should lead to higher achievement by students. Just as the industrial manager reinforces employee behaviours that lead to increased production, profits, and service, the educational supervisor should reinforce teacher behaviours associated with learners' growth. Using measures of students' performance as a criterion variable assumes that the supervisor has a thorough understanding of education; that relationships between teaching acts, learning environment, and particular student outcomes are known and can be applied (Rosenbaum, 1979). Thus, given student objectives the supervisor can help teachers to establish appropriate learning environment for their attainment. It follows, therefore, from Reyes (1980) submission that the supervisor can reinforce the teacher behaviour and measure the success of the reinforcement. Reinforcement can be in the form of positive comments, personal or peer recognition, or any other suitable reward. Of course, the most significant and satisfying reinforcement is the teacher's own knowledge that students are learning, so frequent feedback on student achievement is a highly appropriate form of reinforcement (Chauhan, 1981).

Quality Approach:

Despite the abundance of supervisory theories, researches, and propositions on what supervisors should do to improve organization effectiveness, Segiovanni (1982a) observed with dissatisfaction that "they appear not to make much difference beyond a minimum level of satisfactory organization performance", and that by emphasizing supervisory tactics, the theories and propositions miss the whole point of what supervision entails (p. 330). In his view, effective supervision should embody quality components which require that balance be given to both "tactics" and "strategy", a delicate balance that is too often tilted in favour of tactical requirements. Tactical requirements are only concerned with task specific view of what should be done to achieve objectives and as such emphasize supervisory behaviours that are carefully and skillfully matched to task requirements. Supervisory behaviours in tactical domain are situationally specific, of short duration, and focus on specific outcomes. According to Sergiovanni, supervisors who are concerned with tactical requirements do not make much difference on the

effectiveness of their respective organization because their activities are "both dull and mundane." Strategic requirements, on the other hand, emphasize an enduring holistic philosophy of supervision to ensure consistency and give purpose and meaning to events. They are concerned with supervisory behaviour that reflects and nurtures this philosophy. Although Sergiovanni admitted that effective supervision is not likely to be within the reach of those who are not competent in basic supervisory skills, he acknowledged the differences that exist between competence and excellence in performance and suggested that to move beyond routine competence a supervisor needs to shift attention from the tactical to strategic requirements. Consequently, ten conditions to be satisfied in quality supervision were provided. According to him, the ten quality principles which have bearings on the tactical and strategic requirements of quality supervision are also "concerned with supervisory skills, antecedents, meaning, and supervision as a cultural expression" (p. 331). The ten principles arranged according to their various stages of occurrence are prerequisites, perspectives, guiding principles, platform, politics, purposing, planning, persisting, peopling, and patriotism.

Although the ten principles were offered as a new and more integrated way to view the quality requirements of supervision, Sergiovanni (1982b) observed that they appeared to be as old as organized thinking on leadership and excellence. He cited the work of Vaill (1980) which sought to identify leadership characteristics associated with high performing system as corroborating well with the quality principles. In conclusion, he claimed that the ten principles taken together would suggest a climate and commitment to work that goes well beyond mere competence and satisfactory performance into excellence.

Summary
Many writers have related work effectiveness to supervisory behaviour. According to them their effectiveness and ineffectiveness occur depending, respectively, on the appropriateness and inappropriateness of supervisory behaviour. Employees usually work harder under supervisors who employ given styles of supervision than the do under supervisors who use other styles. Regrettably, one of the most perplexing problems relating to organization management has been that of determining the supervisory styles and behaviours most conducive to promoting effective work group.

Theoretical approaches featured in this paper are some of the conceptual propositions which attempt to predict, explain and guide effective supervisory behaviours. The soundness, consistency, and defensibility of each of these theories are dictated by the assumptions and principles underlying it. However, the development and acceptance of these conceptual propositions do not in themselves guarantee supervisory effectiveness. These propositions must be translated into policies and plans for implementation. Accordingly, the supervisor of Vocational Education should possess certain qualities that will make him or her worthy of undertaking the activity of supervision of instruction in Vocational Education. These include his or her personal, academic, and professional qualities which help him to obtain not only the respect but also the cooperation of those under his or her supervision. These qualities are of immense value to the position of responsibility to which he or she is called.

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