PERCEPTIONS OF PROFESSORS OF INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION,

EXPERT PRINCIPALS, AND EXPERT TEACHER LEADERS OF

HOW PRINCIPAL PREPARATION PROGRAMS SHOULD

PREPARE INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERS

DISSERTATION

Presented to the Graduate Council of
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ABSTRACT

PERCEPTIONS OF PROFESSORS OF INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION,

EXPERT PRINCIPALS AND EXPERT TEACHER LEADERS

OF HOW PRINCIPAL PREPARATION PROGRAMS

SHOULD PREPARE INSTRUCTIONAL LEADERS

by

Karen Taylor-Backor, M.Ed.

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August 2013

SUPERVISING PROFESSOR: DR. STEPHEN P. GORDON

This qualitative study examined the perceptions of expert professors, principals, and teacher leaders on how principal preparations programs should prepare aspiring principals to be effective supervisors and instructional leaders. Although the current knowledge base includes a great deal of literature on effective supervision and instructional leadership as well as on the need to reform principal preparation programs, there is little research on how principal preparation programs can assist aspiring principals to develop the necessary skills, knowledge, and dispositions to be effective supervisors and instructional leaders.

The research method chosen for this study was the open-ended interview. Interviews were conducted using the interview guide approach. An expert panel on

supervision and instructional leadership nominated participants for the study. Fifteen participants were selected because of their expertise in supervision and instructional leadership. The participants included five professors of instructional supervision, five principals, and five teacher leaders. The research process was interactive and consisted of interviews, data analysis, member check, additional data analysis, conclusion drawing, and model building.

Research Question 1was: What do professors, principals, and teacher-leaders who are considered experts in supervision and instructional leadership believe aspiring principals should learn about supervision and instructional leadership in principal preparation programs? The participants recommended a screening process for principal preparation programs, including interviews, review of applicants' leadership experience, a written exercise, and a leadership exercise. Recommended tasks that aspiring principals be prepared to perform included teacher evaluation, carrying out typical campus procedures, professional development, curriculum development, teacher observation for assisting teachers to improve their instruction, and action research. The interviewees suggested that future principals develop knowledge in school law, cultural diversity, special education, effective instruction, and instructional technology. Suggested skill development encompassed communication, classroom observation, teaching assessment, and group facilitation skills. Recommended dispositions to be developed by aspiring principals included commitments to understanding self, cultural responsiveness, positive interpersonal relations, and visibility and collaboration within the school and with the community served by the school. The participants suggested teaching and learning strategies to be used in principal preparation programs, including modeling effective

teaching, students doing data analysis, collaborative learning, and student research. The interviewees recommended that future principals engage in a variety of field experiences, including classroom observations, experiences that integrated theory and practice, engaging in typical practitioner responsibilities, and shadowing principals. The respondents agreed that new principals should be provided induction support, but did not agree on the nature or length of the support, or who should be responsible for providing that support. Finally, the participants did not agree on whether a principal preparation program should be offered entirely face-to-face or partially face-to-face and partially online, but they did agree that a program should not be completely online.

Research Question 2 was: What model or models from preparing principals as supervisors and instructional leaders emerge from data gathered to answer Research Question 1? I developed two models to answer this question. Model I is based directly on the participants' perceptions and consists of three phases: screening, preparation, and induction. The preparation phase of the model includes six components: tasks, knowledge, skills, dispositions, teaching and learning strategies, and field experiences. Model II, my own model, draws on both the participants' perceptions and the extant literature. In constructing Model II, I retained the same three phases and the same six components of the preparation phase in Model I, but I deleted some of the elements that are present in Model I, and I added some elements that are not part of Model I.

The findings of the study indicate there is a need for more effective principal preparation that emphasizes instructional leadership for the purpose of improving student learning. Faculties of university principal preparation programs should examine the components of their program and use Model I and Model II from this study as resources

to develop their own model. The screening, preparation, and induction components included in Model I and Model II could be used as a guide for faculty to redesign their curriculum in order to better prepare principals to be effective supervisors and instructional leaders.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Students today require instruction with strategies and skills to meet their diverse needs, and teachers are in need of supervision and instructional leadership[*]that supports and facilitates the improvement of teaching. The positive outcomes of effective supervision and instructional leadership have been well documented (Bamburg & Andrews, 1990; Marzano, Waters, & Nulty, 2005; O'Donnell & White, 2005). It stands to reason, therefore, that supervision and instructional leadership should be a crucial component in principal preparation programs.

The goal of supervision and instructional leadership is to facilitate the improvement of teaching and learning (Blasé & Blasé, 1998, 2004; Bottoms & O'Neil, 2001; Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2010; Hoy & Hoy, 2003). Research has established links between a principal's instructional leadership and student achievement (Bamburg & Andrews, 1990; Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Glickman, et al., 2010; Marzano, et al., 2005; Marzano, Frontier, & Livingston 2011; O'Donnell & White, 2005). Schools with high academic performance have principals who are recognized by their teachers as instructional leaders because of their instructional guidance, ability to effectively define and communicate the school mission and desired instructional goals, visibility on

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[*] For the purpose of this study, supervision and instructional leadership will be considered an integrated, singular entity, and thus will be written in singular tense.

campus, active participation in staff development, facilitation of instructional needs, ability to build a positive campus climate, and fostering of teacher morale (Bamburg & Andrews, 1990; Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Bottoms & O'Neil, 2001; Glickman, et al., 2010; Marzano, et al., 2005; O'Donnell &White, 2005; Stiggins & Duke, 2008).

On one hand, research substantiates the positive benefits that effective supervision and instructional leadership has on instruction and student achievement. On the other hand, there is considerable concern in the literature about the quality of principal preparation programs. These concerns revolve around preparation programs' student selection process, curriculum, and rigor in general, as well as their capacity to prepare principals as instructional leaders with the specific skills needed to enhance teaching and learning (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Myerson, 2005; Harris, 2008; Hess & Kelly, 2005; Mohn & Machell, 2005; Young, Petersen, & Short, 2002). Extensive research on effective supervision and instructional leadership has been conducted in recent years; however, there is a dearth of research on how principal preparation programs should prepare aspiring principals to be instructional leaders (Hess & Kelly, 2005; Levine, 2005; Mohn & Machell, 2005).

Research Questions

The research questions this study attempts to answer are:

1. What do professors, principals, and teacher-leaders who are considered experts in supervision and instructional leadership believe aspiring principals should learn about supervision and instructional leadership in principal preparation programs?

2. What model or models for preparing principals as supervisors and instructional leaders emerge from data gathered in order to answer Research Question 1?

Overview of the Study

Although the current knowledge base includes a great deal of literature on effective supervision and instructional leadership, as well as on the need to reform principal preparation programs in general, there is insufficient literature on how principal preparation programs should prepare aspiring principals to be effective supervisors and instructional leaders. This study sought to address the gap in literature by examining the perceptions of expert professors, principals, and teacher leaders on how principal preparations programs should prepare aspiring principals to be effective supervisors and instructional leaders. An overview of the study is provided in Figure 1.

A review of literature by Castles-Bentley, Fillion, Allen, Ross, & Gordon (2005) found that effective supervision and instructional leadership support better teaching and learning throughout the campus. The effective supervisor recognizes the fluctuating culture and climate of the campus as well as the impact his or her behavior has on others (Hoy & Hoy, 2003). The effective instructional leader uses non-threatening interpersonal skills and supports teacher reflection, professional development, and collaboration. The successful instructional leader also models instructional classroom strategies and facilitates action research to improve instruction (Blasé & Blasé, 2004). Effective supervision and instructional leadership includes the technical skills of needs assessment, planning, observation, conferencing, and formative evaluation (Castles-Bentley, et al., 2005; O'Donnell & White, 2005; Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2011).

Relevant Literature on Supervision and Instructional Leadership:

• Models
• Scope
• Characteristics of Effective Supervision
• Links with Student Learning
• Principal Preparation

Research Questions:

1. What do professors, principals, and teacher-leaders who are considered experts in supervision and instructional leadership believe about supervision and instructional leadership in principal preparation programs?

2. What model or models for preparing principals as supervisors and instructional leaders emerge from data gathered in order to answer Research Question 1?

Epistemology: Constructionism

Theoretical Perspective: Interpretivism

Methodology: Grounded Theory

Method: Interview

Participants:

• 5 Expert Professors
• 5 Expert Principals
• 5 Expert Teacher Leaders

Research Design

Data Analysis

Data Gathering (Interview)

Conclusion Drawing and Theory Building

Figure 1: Overview of the Study

High achieving schools have principals who are considered instructional leaders by their faculty because of their guidance, communication, visibility, and active participation in staff development (Bamburg & Andrews, 1990). Effective instructional leaders understand the power of developing learning communities and have clear organizational goals (Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Glickman, et al., 2010). Student learning results when instructional leadership provides the fundamental elements of collaboration, high expectations, and resources that support student learning (Center for the Future of Teaching and Learning, 2011).

As discussed above, effective supervision and instructional leadership requires specific knowledge, skills, and dispositions for the improvement of teaching and student learning. It is imperative that principals have the capacities necessary to support the teaching and learning process. However, current research strongly suggests there is little or no connection between effective instructional leadership and what is taught in university principal preparation programs (Young, et al., 2002). A full review of the relevant literature is provided in Chapter 2. In the paragraphs below I will provide a brief overview of the epistemology, theoretical perspective, and methodology that will guide this study.

This study was based on the epistemology of constructionism. "Constructionism, by definition, permits the researcher to explore the views and comprehension of the different participants within the subject context and recognizes that each may have experienced a different understanding of the same situation, flexibility not available to objectivists" (Levy, 2006, p. 373). The epistemology of constructionism was well-suited for this study as it supported constructing knowledge from the perceptions of the

participants as it drew "attention to the fact that human experience, including perception, is mediated historically, culturally and linguistically...[and] suggests that there are 'knowledges' rather than 'knowledge'" (Willing, 2001, p. 7).

This study explored the knowledges or realities of each participant as well as themes within and across the perceptions of the three groups of participants: expert professors of instructional supervision, principals, and teacher leaders. Both individual meaning and group themes emerged as I engaged with the data (Crotty, 1998; Patton, 2002; Shaddish, 1995).

The study was guided by the theoretical perspective of interpretivism. Each participant in the study had his or her own perspective or reality of what instructional leaders should know and be able to do (Crotty, 1998; Neil, 2006). The data told the perspectives of each individual, but interpretivism allowed me to understand what was revealed as I discovered the emerging meaning of the participants' perspectives (Corbin & Strauss, 2008; Creswell, 2009; Schutz, 1973).

The goal of this study was to *build* theory; therefore grounded theory was the selected methodology for this study (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). The guidelines of grounded theory provided the researcher with strategies that sought to ensure that theory emerged from the data (Crotty, 1998; Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Grounded theory fit well as the theoretical perspective for this study, as the study was about complex social processes between individuals and sought to build theory about what should be taught in principal preparation programs, an area in which existing theory was inadequate (Carson, Gilmore, & Gronhaug, 2001; Levy, 2006). The epistemology, theoretical perspective, and

methodology that guided this study are discussed in more detail in Chapter 3. Below, I briefly describe the general method and design of the study.

The method chosen for this qualitative study was interview. The grounded theory approach and interpretivist framework consider interview an appropriate research method (Levy, 2006). Interviews allowed me to establish a rapport with the interviewees, comprehend the unobservable perceptions of each participant, and probe for more information (Isaac & Michael, 1995; Patton, 2002). Immersing myself in the interview data and studying the concrete realities of the participants led to my developing a conceptual understanding of their knowledge and reality (Holstein & Gubrium, 1995).

A panel of experts on supervision and instructional leadership, previously approved by the dissertation committee, nominated the participants for the study. Fifteen interviewees were selected because of their roles and expertise in supervision and instructional leadership. The interviewees included five professors of instructional supervision, five principals, and five teacher leaders.

Two rounds of interviews were conducted. An open-ended interview guide served as a checklist for ensuring that each participant had the same strand of questions and kept me focused on the topic (Patton, 2002). The language of the interview topics was adjusted to fit the role of each interviewee (professor, principal, or teacher leader). The first round of interviews was face-to-face. However, due to distance, Skype interviews were also used. After the data were analyzed and preliminary themes emerged, a second round of member checks were used to clarify, determine accuracy, and answer questions that materialized from the initial data analysis (Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

Data analysis was ongoing throughout the study. The procedures of grounded theory allowed the theories of the preparation of effective supervisors and instructional leaders to emerge from the data (Charmaz, 2006; Corbin & Strauss, 2008). The data analysis included open coding, axial coding, selective coding, matrices, analytic memos, and diagraming. After concluding all of the interviews and initial data analysis, I identified tentative themes that cut across the perceptions of all three groups of participants. I then sent them written summaries of the tentative themes and asked them whether or not they agreed with each of the summaries. This member check was followed by another phase of data analysis (Charmaz, 2006, Corbin & Strauss, 2008). This recurring data gathering and analysis allowed for more sophisticated interpretation of the findings (Patton, 2002). The final phases of data analysis included conclusion drawing and theory building (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). The research design is described in detail in Chapter 3.

Definition of Terms

Clinical supervision – the aspect of instructional supervision which draws upon data from direct, firsthand observation of actual teaching, or other professional events, and involves face-to-face and other associated interactions between the observer(s) and the person(s) observed in the course of analyzing the observed professional behaviors and activities and seeking to define and/or develop next steps toward improved performance (Goldhammer, Anderson, & Krajewski, 1993).

Instructional supervision – Leadership for the improvement of teaching and learning (Gordon, 2008). For the purpose of this study, the terms instructional supervision and instructional leadership are used interchangeably, and the term "supervision and

instructional leadership" is often used as per the title of the book *Supervision and Instructional Leadership* by Glickman, et al. (2010) or the "Supervision and Instructional Leadership" Special Interest Group of the American Educational Research Association (AERA).

Tasks of Instructional Supervision – The responsibilities of an instructional supervisor and instructional leader. These tasks vary throughout the literature, but most scholars would include direct assistance, curriculum development, and professional development as supervisory tasks.

Assumptions

This study assumed that all participants were open and honest in their responses to the interview questions. Another assumption was that the expert panel correctly identified the professors, principals, and teacher leaders who are experts on supervision and instructional leadership. The third assumption was that subgroup (professor, principal, teacher leader) and/or whole-group themes would emerge from the data.

Significance of the Study

Linda Darling-Hammond (2004) states, "becoming a principal requires completion of a training program that includes a mix of coursework…whether those regimens produce administrators who can improve school performance is, for the most part, anyone's guess" (p. 8). The significance of this study is that there is no body of research on what aspiring principals should learn about supervision and instructional leadership in their principal preparation programs or how they should learn it. Documenting the perceptions of expert professors, principals, and teacher leaders on what pre-service principals should learn in their preparation program can break ground

for the building of a body of research in this area. This study hopefully will not only

provide important information on what should be taught in principal preparation

programs but also initiate a new line of research in this area.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Over the last decade there have been calls from policy makers, scholars, the business community, and others to improve teaching and learning in our public schools, and especially to reduce the achievement gaps among student groups. Teachers are in need of leadership that supports and facilitates successful instruction. In order to fulfill the instructional leadership role, school principals should have a thorough understanding of what effective instruction embodies, as they "look for observable evidence that students are learning as a result of various stimuli presented by all their teachers" (Sergiovanni, 2002, p. 4). In order for the campus administrator to recognize evidence of quality instruction, he or she must be adequately prepared by a principal preparation program. Historically, the curricula in university preparation programs for principals "are disconnected from the needs of leaders and their schools" (Levine, 2005, p. 23), and training programs for principals reinforce "deemphasizing teaching and learning …focusing primary attention on a myriad of administrative competencies and devoting little time or attention to questions of learning, curriculum, and professional development" (Fink & Resnick, 2001, p. 3). University curricula need to include more knowledge and skills to assure "that principals are able to fulfill their instructional leadership role" (Hallinger, 2003, p. 334).

This literature review discusses historical models of supervision and instructional leadership, the scope of supervision and instructional leadership, the characteristics of an effective instructional leader, and university principal preparations programs.

Historical Models of Supervision and Instructional Leadership

To understand the function of campus leadership in the twenty-first century it is necessary to visit the historical models of supervision and instructional leadership. This chapter will focus on models of supervision that are categorized by approximate timeframes, as they cannot be separated by exact dates and often overlap in their periods of influence.

Supervision as Inspection

"Instructional supervision finds its historical roots in the inspectorial function of the school committees of the early eighteenth century" (Noland & Hoover, 2008, p. 3). Even though the customs of supervision were influenced by Western Europe with transplanted patterns and traditions, supervision in the American public school took on a character of its own as the responsibility for education shifted "from parent to church and society" (Karier, 1982, p. 2). The inspectors were generally well-known citizens such as ministers, selectmen, or schoolmasters, and their "methods of supervision stressed strict control and close inspection of school facilities" (Glanz, 1992, p. 47). Bolin and Panaritis (1992) describe the tasks of the inspectors as "ascertaining the tone and spirit of the school, the conduct and application of the pupils, the management and methods of the teacher, and the fitness and conduction of the premises" (p. 33).

Inspection by committee also had a religious dimension. Duffy (1998) explains that the "ideology of supervision-as-inspection put supervision in the hands of

committees of ministers and lay people who focused on inspecting schools to ensure that teachers conformed to religious and moral standards prescribed by the communities" (p. 181). Glanz (1998) notes that the purpose of supervision as inspection was "based on intuition rather than technical or scientific knowledge" (p. 49) as the untrained supervisor "commended excellence and suggested improvements" (p. 32). The practice of supervision by inspection committees continued through the mid-eighteenth century. For the most part the inspections of teaching practices were inauspicious and usually based on a predisposition about the teacher instead of the quality of teaching or student learning (Eye, Netzer, & Krey, 1971; Noland & Hoover, 2011).

Eventually inspection committees were replaced by school directors who were assigned the roles of managing the school, teaching classes, and being a liaison between teachers and the school board (Pellicer, Allen, Tonnsen, & Surratt, 1981). As school districts began to form, the superintendent assumed the role of chief inspector. In the late nineteenth century the most influential educator of the time, William Torrey Harris, maintained that "the superintendent must be at the foremost educational expert maintaining 'supervisory control in the management of the schools'" (Glanz, 1998, p. 49). Harris strongly believed that the superintendent should be the school supervisor and assume an autocratic supervisory role.

Scientific Management Movement

Toward the end of the 19th century the United States transformed from agriculture to an industrial society that resulted in dramatic economic and population changes. Separate schools and grade levels replaced the one-room schoolhouses. These changes required teachers to reevaluate and change their instructional methods. In an

effort to maintain high standards, supervisors adopted a new approach of leadership similar to the authoritarian approach used in industry (Pollock & Ford, 2009; Marzano, et al., 2011).

As school enrollment increased, the need for definition and clarity in the instructional program grew (Pellicer, et al., 1981, p. 7). Bolin and Panaritis (1992) write that this period was characterized by "standardization in the curriculum based on analysis of the real-life needs of adult citizens" (p. 34). This task analysis, known as "Taylorism," was named after the leading proponent of the efficiency model, Frederick Taylor, and "ultimately had a profound impact on administrative and supervisory practices in schools" (Glanz, 1998, p. 53). A primary goal of Taylor was to promote a relationship where the worker would be more productive with proper training and tools for the task to be executed. Taylor challenged convention and stressed that observation by the supervisor of the worker would enable the worker to progress to the highest level that his ability would allow (Neville & Garman, 1998). Taylor (1911) explained his task analysis model as it related to schools as follows:

> No efficient teacher would think of giving a class of students an indefinite lesson to learn. Each day a definite, clear-cut task is set by the teacher before each scholar; stating that he must learn just so much of the subject; and it is only by this means that proper systematic progress can be made by the students. (pp. 120-121)

"The work by Taylor inspired [Franklin] Bobbitt to apply Taylor's model to the nation's schools" (Glanz, 1998, p. 53). In the educational literature this new approach to supervision became known as *Supervision as Social Efficiency,* which was viewed as an

avenue for school leadership to address teacher deficits with "efficiency in organization of supervision and increased control over the curriculum" (Bolin & Panaritis, 1992, p. 32). Bobbitt envisioned two specific tasks of scientific supervisors: "guiding teachers in the selection of methods and preparing and renewing teachers" (McNeil, 1982, pp. 18-19).

W. W. Charters, a professor and director of the Bureau of Educational Research at Ohio State University, applied the principles of scientific management taken from the 'activity analysis' that Frank Winslow Taylor had perfected in industry to develop a framework for teaching that addressed the subject of wasted time in schools (Bolin & Panaritis, 1992).

Taylor's model for increasing productivity and Charters' "framework for thinking about thinking" (Bolin & Panaritis, 1992, p. 34) were consistent with the supervisor being the authority on teacher practices, as well as the trainer of teachers. The school supervisor was to be actively involved in finding "the best procedures for performing teaching tasks and to help teachers acquire these methods in order to ensure maximum pupil achievement" (McNeil, 1982, p. 19). Scientific rating scales were used extensively across the country by supervisors as tools of determining teacher efficiency (Glanz, 1998). Supervisors hoped the social efficiency model and scientific rating scales would legitimize their place in schools. The rating scales were viewed as a means to rid their schools of objectionable teachers and teaching practices, but despite the intent, they were met with much resistance. This type of bureaucratic school governance placed an emphasis on business ideology and 'factory-type' education that placed the teacher in a subservient position (Glanz, 1998).

By the end of the 1920s supervisors were in search of pioneering new ideas and methods in supervision (Glanz, 1998) due to the negative response by teachers to what Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993) describe as a "classic autocratic philosophy of supervision [with the intention of viewing workers as] appendages of management and… hired to carry out prespecified duties in accordance with the wishes of management" (p. 12).

Democratic Supervision

Criticism of the autocratic model of scientific supervision in the early twentieth-century led to the quest for an alternative form of supervision. John Dewey "influenced an educational theory and pedagogy that seemed consistent with the needs and stated ideals of an increasingly diverse, democratically inclined society" (Neville & Garman, 1998, p. 221) in his text *Democracy and Education*. Democratic values in education and new definitions of supervision like "bettering the conditions which surround learning directly through improvement of instruction" (Barr & Burton, 1926, p. 21) led to a break from the autocratic tradition of supervision that had been dominant. James Hosic's 1920 article, *Democratization of Supervision*, outlined the new mission of supervision that focused on developing relationships within the teaching community with the underlying "hope of more democratic instructional leadership" (Gordon, 1992, p. 65). An anonymous poem "The Snoopervisor, The Whoopervisor, and The Supervisor" published in *Playground and Recreation* in 1929 describes emerging attitudes regarding the evolution of supervision.

With keenly peering eyes and snooping nose,

From room to room the Snoopervisor goes.

He notes each slip, each fault with lofty frown,

And on his rating card he writes it down;

His duty done, when he has brought to light,

The things the teachers do that are not right.

With cheering words and most infectious grin,

The peppy Whoopervisor breezes in.

'Let every boy and girl keep right with me!

One, two, three, four!

That's fine! Miss Smith I see.

These pupils all write well. This is his plan.

Keep everybody happy if you can.'

The supervisor enters quietly,

'What do you need? How can I help today?

John, let me show you. Mary, try this way.'

He aims to help, encourage and suggest,

That teachers, pupils all may do their best. (p. 558)

Democracy as a guiding principle in education was a focal point during this period, and a great deal of attention was focused on democratic leadership. Edward C. Elliott (1914) described supervision in schools as being closely related to "the democratic motive of American education" (p. 2). Glanz (1992) acknowledges the influence of Dewey's combination of democracy and scientific thinking on the evolution of supervision in education. Dewey (1916) stated that a democratic society "must have a type of education which gives individuals a personal interest in social relationships and

control, and the habits of mind which secure social change without introducing disorder"

(p. 115). According to Dewey, education in a democratic society should epitomize shared

interests, freedom in interaction, participation, and social relationships (1916).

Democratic supervision during this period "implied that educators, including

teachers, curriculum specialists, and supervisors would cooperate in order to improve

instruction" (Glanz, 2000, p. 74). During this period of supervision a dramatic shift

occurred as

> supervision was no longer considered a function to be performed by only one
>
> individual, but the responsibility of a wide array of school personnel, such as
>
> special supervisors, consultants, principals, department chair people, coordinators,
>
> deans, directors, and … even teachers. (p. 61)

The role of the supervisor was downplayed and more emphasis was placed on

"the functions of supervision" (Glanz, 2000, p. 61) to help teachers improve their

instruction. Democratic supervision in the early 1920s "emphasized collaboration, group

processes, inquiry, and experimentation" (Nolan & Hoover, 2008, p. 4). Barr, Burton, and

Brueckner (1938) put emphasis on democratic supervision, which included recognizing

the worth of each individual, flexibility in organization, free participation by all, and

pursuit of the common good. Democratic supervision required training in techniques to

encourage group participation for the purpose of decision making and problem solving

(Maier, 1948), resulting in the professionalization of supervision as supervisors

developed the belief that "democracy must govern their relationships with teachers if they

were to be considered professionals" (Glanz, 1990, p. 169). Democratic supervision was

the dominate paradigm until the late 1930s (Duffy, 1998; Nolan & Hoover, 2011).

Supervision as Promoting a Technology of Instruction

The United States government became actively interested in the improvement of education with the launching of the Soviet Union satellite, Sputnik, in 1957. The National Defense Education Act of 1958 funded curriculum reform, especially in the areas of mathematics, sciences, and languages. The reforms included the appointment of supervisors with specific subject matter knowledge with the charge of improving instruction (Wiles, 1967).

Behaviorists, such as Skinner and Watson, were developing theories on human behavior. Instructional supervision was being influenced by behavioral science research.

Behavioral scientists believed…that it was possible to use a natural sciences perspective (with ethos and values) in the study of social phenomena---that knowledge is inert and neutral; that social phenomena can be meaningfully analyzed using natural science methods; and that the underlying investigative purposes are the same, namely, to generate empirically grounded theory and predictive statements. The behavioral sciences approach assumed particular significance through the development of psychological theories of learning, as well as through the research, development, and diffusions model of educational change. (Smyth, 1984, p. 430)

Supervisors were now viewed as change agents, possessing all the knowledge and skills required to facilitate a change in the teacher's classroom behavior (Aiken & Tanner, 1998). School supervision became more technical, a behavioristic approach toward the improvement of teaching and learning emerged (Wiles, 1967). This supervisory approach initiated a programmed form of teaching as "behavioral scientists

thought that the problem of effective instruction could best be met by applying

psychological theories of learning and the results of experiments involving controlled

manipulation of specific factors" (McNeil, 1982, p. 23). Instruction was indirectly

controlled with curriculum and materials developed by outside researchers and publishers

(Gordon, 1992, p. 65). Teachers were "evaluated on quantifiable measurements for the

improvement of their effectiveness in three areas: good teaching characteristics,

behaviors, and conditions" (Aiken & Tanner, 1998, p. 643).

Human Relations in Supervision

Even as the technology of instruction approach was in full swing, Kimball Wiles

(1967) began to articulate a new theoretical and conceptual base for supervision by

drawing upon sociological research in human relations and organizational psychology.

Schoonmaker, Sawyer, & Borrego-Brainard, (1998) explain that Wiles' "work in

synthesizing relevant research from other fields of study and theorizing about supervisory

practice began to open a new form of inquiry" (p. 120). A paradigm shift from technical

supervision to human relations in supervision emerged. Wiles (1959) noted the technical

approach made "distinctions among the levels of teaching…with merit rating[s] and

salary scales… [but had no] agreement concerning the nature of unsatisfactory,

satisfactory, and quality teaching" (p. 3). Without an agreement on the level of teacher

performance, there would be no means to measure quality teaching versus minimum

performance.

Wiles (1959) recognized the need for teachers and leaders to understand that

learning is never ending, and the "process of change in a person through interaction is

learning" (p. 17). Quality teaching is the result of continuous learning from pervious

experiences with an understanding "that minimum teaching will not enable the school to fulfill its social responsibility" (p. 33). The human relations perspective embraces the teacher's acceptance of self and others. The teacher's "responsibility is to demonstrate constantly that he values a way of living together in which each person is accepted, respected, and encouraged to achieve" (p. 82), and every "faculty member is a part of the leadership of the school and the community and takes an active part in seeking program improvement if he is a positive force" (p. 247).

Wiles' (1967) research stemmed from his theory that teachers were not developing to their full potential, and the supervisor's function was to help teachers maximize their potential. Wiles argued that the human relations approach to supervision required self-reflection and the ability to

> believe in the worth of others—all others. [The official leader] must believe that each principal, teacher, and each child in the school has value and a contribution to make; that the failure of any individual to make a contribution is due to the ineffectiveness of the leader. (pp. 19-20)

Clinical Supervision

Historic reforms in the supervision of teachers continued to be the source of scrutiny as the effort to improve student learning increased. As educational reform efforts grew, so did the need for improved supervision of teachers. Morris Cogan (1973), who is considered the father of clinical supervision, noted that when examining educational history, two factors were obvious.

> The first is that almost every reform that attained national scope embodied some valuable innovative educational ideas that deserved to be incorporated

into the instruction offered in the schools. The second is that most of the

innovations were poorly understood in the schools (the activity school)

or were starved for resources to implement them (the core curriculum),

and were therefore delayed and deformed in their implementation (team teaching)

and often perished, sweeping good ideas into oblivion along with the bad.

(p. 2)

Clinical supervision was the conscious result of reintroducing democratic

practices to improve classroom learning and teaching (Pollock & Ford, 2009, p. 18). This

model was the result of the Master of Arts in Teaching program at Harvard University

under the supervision of Morris Cogan during the late 1950s. Cogan recognized a need to

improve supervisory practices as student teacher candidates voiced concern about the

quality of supervision by their university supervisors and mentor teachers during their

student teaching experience. "Cogan developed the concept and techniques that

comprised clinical supervision" (Pajak, 1993, p. 6), in which supervisors made a

conscientious effort to improve their supervision by scheduling more time in the

classroom with the students to discuss their teaching practices prior to and after teaching.

When Cogan introduced clinical supervision, the use of data gathering to document

teacher behaviors and student achievement, with more frequent and extended

observations by the supervisor, was unique to the practice (Cogan, 1973). The word

clinical was selected by Cogan to specifically draw attention to the emphasis placed on

the classroom observation, the analysis of in-class events, and the focus of in-class

behaviors by teachers and students.

Cogan's model of clinical supervision united theory and practice with an emphasis on collegiality which was based on "research from human behavior and guided by a desire to help individual teachers be more accountable" (Beach & Reinhartz, 1989, p. 23). Clinical supervision was "grounded in the traditional views of learning, which saw the teacher as the adopter of practices that had been shown as effective through the work of research and developers" (Noland & Francis, 1992, p. 52). The process of clinical supervision included the familiar sequence of pre-teaching conference, a classroom visit, and a follow-up conference of historical supervision, but Cogan elaborated on this process – viewing clinical supervision as a "vehicle for developing professionally responsible teachers who were capable of analyzing their own performance, who were open to change and assistance from others, and who were, above all, self-directing" (Pajak, 1993, p. 6).

Cogan (1973) defined clinical supervision as "the rationale and practice designed to improve the teacher's classroom performance" (p. 90). The model developed by Cogan (1973) was a supervision cycle consisting of eight interdependent and interrelated experiences:

1. establishing the teacher-supervisor relationship

2. planning with the teacher

3. planning the strategy of observation

4. observing instruction

5. analyzing the teaching—learning process

6. planning the strategy of the conference

7. the conference

8. renewed planning

Each stage in Cogan's model was created with the intent to bring about a collegial "relationship between the supervisor and teacher and promote professionally conscientious teachers who were not only self-directing, but also able to self-reflect on their own teaching abilities, and be open to receiving assistance from others in the field" (Pajak, 1993, p. 97).

As a graduate student at Harvard in the early 1960s, Robert Goldhammer (1969) was actively involved with Cogan's research and reiterated Cogan's concept, stating, "clinical supervision is meant to imply supervision up close" (p. 54). Goldhammer continued his research and refinement of clinical supervision with Cogan. Goldhammer died prior to the completion of his book, *Clinical Supervision: Special Methods for the Supervision of Teachers,* and Robert H. Anderson completed the final editing. In his book, Goldhammer (1969) proposed a five systematic stage cycle to clinical supervision to improve teaching for student academic success. Each stage was comprised of teacher and supervisor tasks and key questions that should be considered. Pajak (2003) details each of Goldhammer's stages:

Stage 1—Pre-observation Conference

Teacher's Task: To mentally rehearse and orally describe the upcoming lesson, including the purpose and the content, what the teacher will do, and what students are expected to do and learn.

Clinical Supervisor's Task: To learn about and understand what the teacher has in mind for the lesson to be taught by asking probing and clarifying questions.

Questions to Consider: What type of data will be recorded (e.g., teacher questions, student behaviors, movement patterns)? How will data be recorded (e.g., video or audio recording, verbatim transcript, anecdotal notes, checklist)? Who will do what in the subsequent stages?

Stage 2—Classroom Observation

Teacher's Task: To teach the lesson as well as possible.

Clinical Supervisor's Task: To record events occurring during the lesson as accurately as possible.

Stage 3—Data Analysis and Strategy

Teacher's Task: To help make sense of the data (if directly involved in this stage).

Clinical Supervisor's Task: To make some sense of the raw data and to develop a plan for the conference.

Questions to Consider: What patterns are evident in the data? Are any critical incidents or turning points obvious? What strengths did the teacher exhibit? Were any techniques especially successful? Are there any concerns about the lesson? Which patterns, events, and concerns are most important to address? Which patterns, events, and concerns can be addressed in the time available? How will the conference begin? How will the conference end?

Stage 4—Conference

Teacher's Task: To critically examine his or her own teaching with an open mind and to tentatively plan for the next lesson.

Clinical Supervisor's Task: To help clarify and build upon the teacher's understanding of the behaviors and events that occurred in the classroom.

Questions to Consider: What patterns and critical incidents are evident in the data? What is the relationship between these events and student learning? Were any unanticipated or unintended outcomes evident? What will the teacher do differently for the next class meeting (e.g., new objectives, methods, content, materials, teacher behaviors, student activities, or assessments)?

Stage 5—Postconference Analysis

Teacher's Task: To provide honest feedback to the clinical supervisor about how well the clinical supervision cycle went.

Clinical Supervisor's Task: To critically examine his or her own performance during the clinical supervision cycle.

Questions to Consider: Generally, how well did the clinical supervision cycle go? What worked well? What did not work well? If you could do it again, what would you do differently? What will you do differently during the next clinical supervision cycle? (pp. 6-7)

Goldhammer's basic five-stage clinical supervision sequence remains the most widely known today (Pajak, 2003).

Pajak, (1993) notes that the original models of clinical supervision proposed by Goldhammer and Cogan offered "a blend of empirical, behavioral, phenomenological, and developmental perspectives" (p. 7). These approaches emphasize the importance of collegial relationships with teachers, cooperative discovery of meaning, and development of unique teaching styles. Beach and Reinhartz (1989) add that "the aim of the clinical model was to help the teacher be aware of classroom results by diagnosing the problems interfering with teaching/learning and prescribing a 'cure'" (p. 24). Even though the

initial purpose of clinical supervision was to improve the student teacher candidates'

teaching practices through collegial evaluation and communication, the outcome was a

systematic form of supervision "which has exhibited an almost unparalleled staying

power and resiliency" (Pajak, 1993, p. 7).

The Eclectic Period

The late 1970s through the present can be characterized as the Eclectic Period of

Supervision, with a variety of supervision models overlapping in their periods of

popularity. These more recent supervision models, along with traditional clinical

supervision, all have some degree of influence on present-day supervision. Supervision

models during the eclectic period include the Hunter model, developmental supervision,

differentiated supervision, peer coaching, cognitive coaching, human resources

supervision, new supervision, and the Blasé and Blasé model of instructional leadership.

The Hunter model. Madeline Hunter's model of more directive version of

clinical supervision became very popular in the 1970s and 1980s. Hunter's clinical

supervision model revolved around her model of teaching with its seven suggested

elements for successful instruction.

The Hunter model recognized the principal as the supervisor. Hunter (1984)

stipulated the role of the principal included "analyzing the process of teaching and

reinforcing and/or remediating and/or stretching from both a curricular and a pedagogical

theory base" (p. 186). This model stressed that the principal "*must* be a pedagogical

specialist in order to stimulate, observe, and validate constantly escalating effectiveness

in instruction" (p. 186).

The responsibilities of the supervisor in Hunter's model are explicit. First, the principal must have a significant educational knowledge-base. The principal must be able to state:

- learning objectives in performance terms,

- diagnostic procedures that reveal student knowledge and articulate future learning procedures,

- effective instruction to accommodate learning modalities and leaner styles,

- procedures to elicit and assess student learning,

- principles of learning and methods used to facilitate achievement, and

- evaluate time efficient teacher techniques used to foster student learning (p. 187).

According to Hunter, the supervisor also has a number of performance tasks, including the following:

- internalize pedagogical knowledge,

- hold staff meetings that reflect application of knowledge about teaching,

- incorporate script taping teaching for the purpose of analysis of instruction and principal-teacher interaction,

- analyze curriculum implementation and teacher pedagogy,

- use task analysis for the purpose of determining future teacher growth,

- monitor teacher performance,

- develop effective conference skills, and

- incorporate effective discipline skills (pp. 189-190).

Hunter "perceives supervision as a complex monitoring task that includes diagnosis of teaching deficits and prescription of specific knowledge and skills acquisition toward improvement" (Garmston, Lipton, & Kaiser, 1998, p. 253).

Unlike other clinical supervision models, the Hunter model does not include the pre-observation conference. The Hunter Model has been criticized "as simple-minded prescriptions of uniform criteria for evaluating teaching" (Wiles & Bondi, 2004, p. 264). The Hunter model "further exacerbated the confusion between teacher supervision and evaluation in the minds of many educators" (Noland & Hoover, 2008, p. 5) as it had little resemblance to the original Cogan and Goldhammer models.

Developmental supervision. Carl Glickman (1981) looked to an alternative model of supervision to help teachers improve instruction. Glickman conceived developmental supervision as an approach to assist teachers at their professional level of development. He stressed the need for supervisors to identify their beliefs in the supervisory process and determine the amount of assistance required by the teacher to improve student learning. Glickman's eclectic model combined psychological orientations of behaviorists, humanists, and cognitive theorists with supervisory actions ranging from directive to collaborative to nondirective (Garmston, et. al., 1998). This model stressed that campus faculty were heterogeneous, therefore various approaches to supervision were necessary. If supervision was an attempt to change teacher behavior for the purpose of improving student learning then it was primarily an educative task with "human learning and adult and teacher development critical when deciding which supervisory orientation and which supervisory behaviors to use with a particular teacher" (Glickman, 1981, p. 47). Developmental supervision was grounded in the thought that

teachers have various levels of commitment and abstract thinking, from low to high, with the supervisor facilitating development "through these stages toward higher levels of commitment to schoolwide concerns and the ability to think abstractly about instructional practice through strategic and conscious interaction" (Garmston, et al., 1998, p. 256). The type of approach used for supervision (directive, collaborative, or nondirective) depended on the level of teacher development.

A supervisor using the directive orientation assumes responsibility for identifying the most effective way to improve instruction by making standards clear and by demonstrating how to achieve such standards…in a thoughtful, business-like approach based on a careful collection of data. This approach assumes the supervisor is the expert on the practice of teaching and learning, and will make the decisions for the teacher on ways to improve their teaching with an assignment to be carried out by the teacher within a specific period of time (Garmston, et al., 1998). Eventually, Glickman differentiated between directive control supervision in which the supervisor *mandates* teacher improvement effort, and directive informational supervision in which the teacher *suggests* improvement efforts (Glickman, 1990).

The collaborative orientation identifies supervisor behaviors of listening, presenting, problems solving, and negotiating. The supervisor and teacher collaboratively negotiate a plan of action for instructional improvement. In collaborative supervision, the supervisor and teacher are jointly responsible for the improvement plan.

The nondirective orientation relies on the assumption that the teacher has the competency to see a need for instructional change with the supervisor facilitating the process. The supervisor incorporates the behaviors of listening, clarifying, encouraging,

and reflecting to guide the teacher toward finding their true teaching potential (Glickman, 1981).

Glickman, et al. (2010) emphasize that selecting the best approach to supervision is a human decision based on a teacher's level of development, expertise, and commitment (p. 113). One goal of developmental supervision is to determine the teacher's developmental level and to match the supervisory approach to that developmental level. A second goal is to promote teacher development toward higher levels of reflection and decision making (Glickman, 1984).

Differentiated supervision. Differentiated supervision materialized in the mid-1980s from the theory that "teachers should have some choice about the kind of supervision they receive" (Glatthorn, 1984, p. 1). Like Glickman, Allen Glatthorn fostered the thought that no two teachers were the same, therefore using only one type of supervision would not meet their individual needs. Differentiated supervision, however, does not categorize and respond to teachers' levels of development. Instead, this model is "gives the teacher a choice of four types of supervision: clinical supervision, cooperative professional development, self-directed development, and administrative monitoring" (p. 4). A summary of Glatthorn's four supervision model is provided below:

1. Clinical supervision is a carefully planned program to supervise and assist the professional growth of a teacher. The clinical supervision cycle consists of pre-observation conference, observation, analysis of data from the observation, a conference to provide feedback to the teacher about the observation, and evaluation of the cycle.

2. Cooperative professional development is a process of a small group of teachers working together for their own improvement by observing each other teach and having conversations about their observations. There should be at least two cycles of pre-observation conferences, observations, and post-observation conferences per year.

3. Self-directed development is a process of a teacher systematically planning for their own professional growth, and then carrying out the plan over the course of a school year. The principal serves as a resource to help plan for growth, make resources available, and assess the teacher's progress.

4. Administrative monitoring is an informal process of observation and giving the teacher informal feedback about the observation. The principal is highly visible, monitors student learning, and demonstrates authentic interest in all areas of the teacher's professional life.

Zepeda (2005) reinforces the positive features of differentiated supervision, stating that it is "built on the foundation of collaboration and collegiality, and this foundation is fortified through differentiated practices that more holistically meet the career needs of teachers" (p. 70). Differentiated supervision encourages teachers to use metacognition and to reflect about teaching and learning for the purpose of becoming an active problem solver in their own classroom (Glatthorn, 1984). Each component is used to identify short-term and long-term learning goals. "Because differentiated supervisory options promote collaboration, teachers can be actively nurtured to become involved in discovery and refinement of practice through ongoing dialogue, reflection, and inquiry" (Zepeda, 2005, p. 71).

Peer coaching. In the 1980s Joyce and Showers began research on teacher implementation of professional development training. "Educators assumed that teachers could learn new strategies, return to a school, and implement their new learning smoothly and appropriately" (Showers & Joyce, 1996, p. 12). However, surveys acknowledged that less than ten percent of teachers actually put into practice what they had learned at staff development. This prompted Joyce and Showers to test their hypothesis that a weekly peer coaching session would facilitate the practice of staff development. Peer coaching, a version of clinical supervision, is defined as "a confidential process through which two or more professional colleagues work together to reflect on current practices; expand, refine, and build new skills; share ideas; teach one another; conduct classroom research; or solve problems in the workplace" (Robbins, 1991, p. 1). Joyce and Showers' research specified that the core of each coaching session was the analysis of teacher and student responses during implementation of new instructional strategies. The results of this research indicated that peer coaching led to increased implementation of skills learned during staff development. This suggested that "teachers who had a coaching relationship…practiced new skills and strategies more frequently and applied them more appropriately than did their counterparts who worked alone to expand their repertoires…exhibiting greater long-term retention of new strategies and more appropriate use of new teaching models overtime" (Showers & Joyce, 1996, p.14). They concluded that learning is fostered through collaborative peer coaching without the hindrance of a formal evaluation (Garmston, et al., 1998).

Joyce and Showers (1996) more recent version of peer coaching includes teachers observing each other as well as participating in study teams. Joyce and Showers also

redefined the meaning of the "coach" in their new model: when pairs of teachers observe each other, the one teaching is now the "coach" and the one observing is "coached." Both of Joyce and Showers' models of peer coaching are still widely used today.

Peer coaching provides a means for teachers to become proficient in observation skills and the format of clinical supervision, which enables teachers to work collaboratively for the improvement of instruction (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2009, p. 234). Joyce and Showers' (1995) research indicated that when campus faculties were organized into peer-coaching teams after staff development the level of implementation of new concepts could reach 90% to 100%.

According to Joyce & Showers (1995) the supervisor must be actively involved in peer coaching program. The specific leadership tasks include:

- organize the coaching teams and faculty into study groups, meet with each team and facilitate their activities,

- organize and coordinated a staff development/school improvement council,

- arrange time for the collaborative study of teaching practices and implementation of curriculum and pedagogy,

- become well-informed on current school improvement, staff development and ensure the faculty is knowledgeable as well,

- participate in training and the implementation of collective and systemic initiatives, and

- constantly assess the educational climate of the school. (p. 40)

Although the metamorphosis of Joyce and Showers' model of peer coaching has been significant, the overall goal continues to be developing a collegial environment and teacher professional development for student success.

Cognitive coaching. In the early 1980s Costa and Garmston (1994) introduced cognitive coaching as a process that applies "specific strategies to enhance another person's perceptions, decisions, and intellectual functions" (p. 2). The fundamental belief behind cognitive coaching is that everyone has the inherent resources to change and grow from within and "changing these inner thought processes is prerequisite to improving other behaviors that, in turn, enhance student learning" (p. 2). The cognitive coaching relationship between two individuals in the educational setting is a "nonjudgmental process—built around a planning conference, observation, and a reflecting conference" (p. 2).

Costa and Garmston (1994) structured cognitive coaching around three major goals:

- establishing and maintaining *trust*, an assured reliance on the character, ability, or strength of someone or something;

- facilitating mutual *learning*, which is the engagement and transformation of mental processes and perceptions;

- and enhancing growth toward *holonomy,* which Costa and Garmston define in two parts: individuals acting *autonomously* while simultaneously acting *interdependently* with the group. (p. 3)

Cognitive coaching supports the view that teaching is a profession. Costa and Garmston state that cognitive coaching is not evaluation; "teachers wishing to improve

their teaching skills never lose their need to be coached…and coaches support and attend to the professional growth of teachers for the improvement of instruction" (p. 5).

The coaching process has four phases of instructional thought: planning, teaching, reflecting, and applying. The coach conferences with the teacher during the *planning phase* to build trust with the teacher; discuss the lesson to be observed by the coach; determine objectives, strategies, and desired student achievement; and identify the means of data gathering by the coach. During the *teaching phase* the coach gathers data on teaching strategies and student achievement. The *reflecting phase* gives the teacher the opportunity to ruminate all aspects of the lesson prior to the post conference. The coach utilizes this time to organize the data and plan the reflective coaching strategy. The *applying stage* includes the teacher and coach participating in a post conference in which they discuss the lesson, how the teacher can improve future instruction, and the coaching process itself. The ultimate goal of cognitive coaching is the improvement of teaching practices and student achievement (Costa & Garmston, 1994).

Human resources supervision. Human resources supervision theory was promoted by Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002), who sought to "combine emphasis on both task and human concerns" (p. 16). Human resources supervision differs from human relations supervision. Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) explain that with *human relations* supervision,

> productivity of workers could be increased by meeting their social needs at work, providing them with opportunities to interact with each other, treating them decently, and involving them in the decision-making. When [human relations] was applied to schooling, teachers were viewed as whole persons in their own

right rather than as packages of needed energy, skills, and aptitudes to be used by

administrators and supervisors. Supervisors needed to work to create a feeling of

satisfaction among teachers by showing interest in them as people. The movement

actually resulted in widespread neglect of teachers. Participatory supervision

became permissive supervision, which in practice was laissez-faire supervision.

(pp. 15-16)

Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002) continue to explain that the goal of the *human

resources* supervisor is to adopt shared decision-making practices to increase school

effectiveness, which leads to an increase in teacher satisfaction, adopting shared decision-

making practices to increase teacher satisfaction in order to improve school effectiveness.

Human resources supervision is supportive rather than directive or patronizing. This form

of supervision displays a higher regard for human needs, potential, and satisfaction. The

rationale underlying this theory is that when school effectiveness increases due to shared

decision-making teachers feel a sense of ownership and self-worth.

The new supervision. In response to changing beliefs about leadership, teachers,

and change itself, Stephen Gordon (1992) articulated the needs of the modern educational

community by examining the historic supervisory paradigms, *the old supervision*, and the

emerging paradigm, *the new supervision* (p. 64). With the belief that "traditional

supervision is becoming increasingly less effective at solving the problems in today's

school (p. 64), Gordon described the new supervision as characterized by six transitions,

illustrated in Figure 2.

Gordon states "the single most important [transition] within the overall paradigm

shift" (p. 64) moves from supervisor control of teachers to the empowerment of teachers.

Old Supervision	⟶	New Supervision
Control	⟶	Empowerment
Separate Functions	⟶	Integrated Functions
Sameness	⟶	Diversity
Occasional Supervisor Assistance	⟶	Continuous Collegial Support Networks
Applied Science	⟶	Professional Inquiry
Mechanical Change	⟶	Organic Change

Figure 2: The Shifting Paradigm in Supervision

Gordon states that authoritarian supervision has been the primary source of disparagement and low morale among teachers. Gordon theorizes that when teachers are empowered, they develop ownership of their change efforts and can become:

- highly skilled, reflective practitioners, actively involved in their professional
- development,
- collaborative colleagues in curriculum and instructional leadership,
- accountable for their own pedagogical performance and that of the school.

Supervision goals remain the improvement of curriculum, instruction, and student learning, however in new supervision the supervisor "becomes a mentor of mentors and leader of leaders—an authentic colleague and role model rather than control agent" (p. 67). The supervisor assumes the role of a facilitator of change.

New supervision integrates the functions of leadership development, improvement of the school environment, curriculum development, schoolwide

instructional improvement, staff development, classroom-based instructional assistance, improvement of assessment, and external relations. Gordon explains that the "first step in dealing with the interactive nature of a curricular-instructional system is to recognize it as such, and to begin to develop a supervision system for dealing with all aspects of curriculum and instructional leadership" (p. 68).

Supervision should understand that no two teachers are the same and recognize their diverse needs. Gordon states that "empowerment and diversity, taken together, imply that teachers should be allowed choice in terms of the instructional strategies they use and the supervisory assistance they are provided" (p. 69).

The paradigm shift from occasional supervisor assistance to collegial support networks aims to understand the limitations of a school supervisor. The "new supervisor" develops support networks among peers to foster teacher empowerment and provide assistance on a continuous basis. Not only do the support networks allow the supervisor more time to attend to the most urgent needs of the school, but they lead to "increased dialogue, access to information, development of professional norms, a greater sense of efficacy, and recognition of individual and group progress" (Goodlad, 1984, p. 70). Gordon believes that supervisors need to support the process of teachers "collaboratively creating their own knowledge base for professional practice, rather than being forced to adopt practices described in external research or theory" (p. 72).

Gordon identifies the final transition in the paradigm shift from a mechanical to an organic view of change. With the understanding that teachers are human beings and not machines, Gordon states that a blueprint for all teachers to follow is not practical. The individual needs of each teacher require an alternative type of planning that features:

- an emphasis on medium-range planning (one to two years) rather than long-range planning (fine to ten years),

- an analysis of the political, cultural, economic, and educational interactions that currently are taking place and that may take place as a result of the change effort, with the results of that analysis serving as input for the planning process,

- an emphasis on general goals, broad guideline, and allowance for flexibility at the school and classroom level, rather than narrow objectives and prescribed behaviors, and

- a formal plan that is viewed as tentative rather than fixed, with the initial plan as a starting point rather than an end point. (pp. 73-74)

The series of changes that Gordon maps out in new supervision exemplify the break from traditional supervision and growing need for new leadership in schools.

Blasé and Blasé model of instructional leadership. Blasé and Blasé (2004) acknowledge the theoretical existence of collegial supervision, but believe the "advanced forms of collegiality are rarely found in practice" (p. 8). Their review of literature on supervision and instructional leadership divulged "connections between the actions a principal takes and the professional growth of teachers, teacher commitment, involvement, and innovativeness, ... and increases in student learning" (p. 10). Believing that supervision and instructional leadership should move from the bureaucratic, control model to an instructional leadership model that includes reflection, collaboration, problem-solving, and dialogue about instruction, Blasé and Blasé initiated a study on instructional leaders' successful practices that "enhance teaching and learning and the

effects that their behaviors have on teachers' performance and well-being" (p. viii). The outcome of this study provided in-depth knowledge of "what good instructional leaders are doing but also what can be expected when they support teachers, teaching, and learning in our schools" (p. xv). Their study revealed that principals who were successful instructional leaders possessed skills necessary for conducting instructional conferences, providing staff development, and encouraging the development of teacher reflection. These principals' behaviors were being visible, encouraging, and promoting autonomy of instructional practices. Consequently, teachers in this study disclosed that the "principals' use of these behaviors had 'enhancing' *affective, cognitive,* and *behavioral* effects on teacher's feelings and attitudes, thinking and instructional behavior" (p. 162). Blasé and Blasé emphasize that "principal instructional leadership that results in positive feelings and provides teachers with relevant, concrete information to improve instruction will most likely result in grate reflectivity informed classroom behavior" (p. 163).

Detailed behaviors and tasks of instructional leaders will be discussed in the forthcoming sections "The Scope of Modern Supervision and Instructional Leadership" and "Characteristics of Effective Supervision and Instructional Leadership".

The Scope of Modern Supervision and Instructional Leadership

The scope of supervision and instructional leadership consists of the "processes that supervisors engage in, sometimes referred to in the literature as functions, duties, purposes, tasks, or activities" (Castles-Bentley, et al., 2005, p. 23). Stotko, Pajak, and Goldsberry (2005) emphasize that supervision practices are in reference to the supervision of *teaching* rather than of supervision of *teachers*. Alternative perceptions concerning the scope of instructional supervision are classified by Gordon (2006) into

three broad views: (a) the view that instructional supervision and clinical supervision are synonymous, (b) the view that instructional supervision is limited to classroom based instructional assistance that includes clinical supervision as well as a variety of other classroom-based formats, such as peer coaching, classroom action research, teacher portfolio development, and so on, and (c) the view that instructional supervision includes multiple forms of classroom-based instructional assistance as well as schoolwide instructional improvement formats such as professional development, curriculum development, schoolwide action research, and so on. Figure 3 places the three views of instructional supervision in concentric circles. Table 1 illustrates specific tasks of supervision as defined by various authors in the field. I provide summaries of each of these tasks below. For the sake of including the full range of supervisory tasks described in the literature, brief reviews of several tasks discussed in earlier sections will be included in the descriptions that follow.
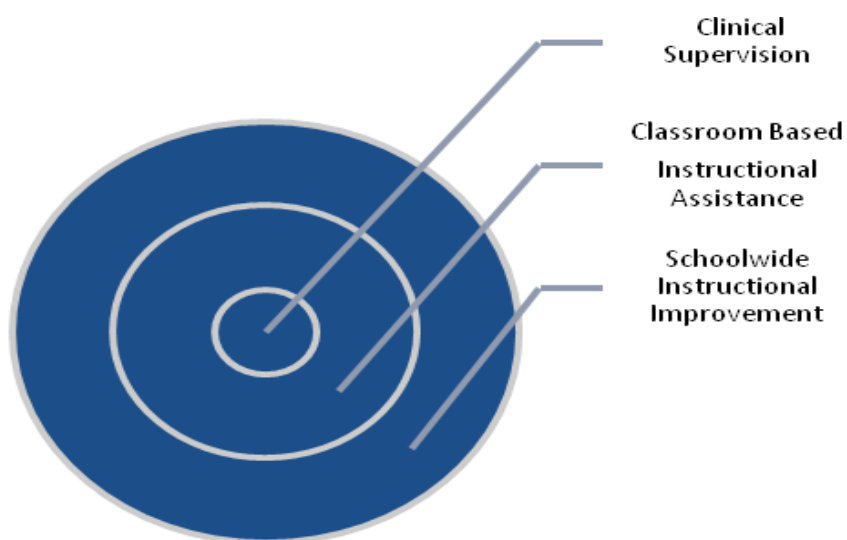
Figure 3: Three Views of Instructional Supervision

Clinical Supervision

According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002), clinical supervision is the "face-to-face contact with teachers with the intent of improving instruction and increasing professional growth" (p. 304). Clinical supervision facilitates collegial professional working relationships between supervisors and teachers for the purpose of improving instruction in a meaningful way (Stotko, et al., 2005). The "rationale for clinical supervision is intended to result in professional, responsible teachers who are self-directing, capable of objectively analyzing their own performance, and open to receiving assistance from others" (Pajak, 1993, p. 97).

Self-Directed Teacher Growth

Glatthorn (1984) states that supervisors should foster autonomous instructional decisions, and the ultimate goal of supervision is a "professional development process in which teachers work independently to foster their growth" (p. 70). Gordon (2005) concludes that successful supervision facilitates self-assessment and self-directed development when teachers are encouraged to gather data on their instructional behaviors and instructional needs, allowed time for reflection on the data in order to compare their

current teaching behaviors with their desired teaching behaviors, and supported in efforts to bridge the gap between current and desired teaching.

Table 1

Supervision Tasks Discussed by Various Authors

	Goldhammer	Cogan	Wiles	Glathorn	Pajak	Nolan & Hoover	Sullivan & Glanz	Sergiovanni & Starratt	Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon	Blasé & Blasé
Clinical Supervision	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Self-Directed Teacher Growth	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Facilitating Collegial Groups			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Collaborative Planning	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Peer Coaching				X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Action Research				X		X	X	X	X	
Facilitating Groups				X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Portfolio Supervision				X		X	X	X		
Professional Development			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Cultural Development			X	X		X	X	X	X	X
Mentoring	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Curriculum Development			X	X	X	X		X	X	X
Community Development			X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Program Evaluation					X	X			X	X
Summative Teacher Evaluation	X	X		X		X	X	X		X
Addressing Diversity				X	X		X	X	X	X

Facilitating Collegial Groups

To help dimenish teacher isolation, effective leadership facilitates teachers with similar interests forming support groups. These collegial support groups meet for the purpose of supporting each other while investigating practices and strategies to improve instruction (Glickman, et al., 2010). According to Zepeda (2005) facilitating collegial groups is a fundamental task of successful supervision. Zepeda explains that effective instructional leadership "creates and sustaines a learning community that supports teachers as both learners and leaders reduces islolation by encouraging teachers and other school personnel to collaborate by engaging in critical discussions about instructional practices that transcend individual classrooms" (p. 65).

> Nolan and Hoover (2008) define a collegial development group as
>
> a small (usually 12 or fewer participants) voluntary group of teachers who meet together regularly (at least once a month) on a long-term basis to support one another's personal and professional development through critical analysis of theories and ideas, new and existing practices, and student and teacher work. (p. 136)

These groups are self-directed and the supervisor acts as a facilitator.

Collaborative Planning

Effective instructional leaders have expertise in helping groups work collboratively (Buffie, 1989). Instructional leaders promoting collaborative planning convey a sense of ownership to all participants. Working together collaboratively

provides teachers the opportunity to work with others for the purpose of improving

student learning. Successful collborative planning:

- promotes a culture of cooperative work and risk taking among teachers

- promotes a can-do attitude and a safety net as teachers fact uncertainties associated with high stakes learningand work environments

- pays attention to affective domains, including devleoping professional relationships, promoting openness to individual and collecive improvement, and caring for teachers by nurturing relational trust, respect, personal regard, and

- integrity. (Zepeda, 2005, p. 65)

Peer Coaching

Utilizing differentiated forms of supervision allows teachers to improve their instruction. Joyce and Showers' (2002) research "showed that teachers who had a coaching relationship…shared aspects of teaching, planned together, and pooled their experiences—practiced new skills and strategies more frequently and applied them more appropriately than did their counterparts who worked alone to expand their repertoires" (p. 14). Peer coaching helps teachers work collaboratively for a common goal—the improvement of teaching practices for student achievement.

Action Research

Working collaboratively with teachers, supervisors help identify pedagogical areas in need of improvement. Glanz (2005) states that "supervision based on collaboration, participative decision making, and reflective practice as the hallmark of a viable school improvement program designed to promote teaching and learning" (p. 201).

Action research is a means for instructional supervision to facilitate teachers' reflective practices to improve instruction. Action research can be conducted by the individual teacher, a team of teachers, or schoolwide. In action research, teachers identify a focus area, gather data on the focus area, design an action plan, implement the plan, and evaluate the results (Glickman, et al., 2010).

Facilitating Change

School improvement involves change, and supervision must be actively involved in planning change to avoid chaos (Beach & Reinhartz, 1989). Effective instructional leadership supports those willing to take risks for school improvement and assists with any negative outcomes that may result from their attempts. In order to facilitate change the supervisor must be prepared to address issues that might arise from all perspectives, and work collaboratively to with all participants. Communication is vital in this process (Glickman, et al., 2010).

Portfolio Supervision

The professional development portfolio "provides teachers with a framework for initiating, planning, facilitating their own personal growth while building connections between their professional goals and those of the school" (Pawlas & Oliva, 2008, p. 499). The teacher portfolio is self-directed and could include evidence of professional development activities, instructional goals, and plans of action. The administrator acts as a facilitator, collaborator, and supporter in the teacher portfolio process (Pawlas & Oliva, 2008).

Professional Development

Instructional leaders utilize professional development for teacher improvement. Glickman, et al. (2010) state that "Virtually any experience that enlarges a teacher's knowledge, appreciation, skills, and understanding of his or her work falls under the domain of professional development" (p. 335). Collaborative communication between all parties is essential when planning, implementing, and coordinating professional development. Examples of professional development include beginning teacher assistance programs, skill development programs, teacher centers, teacher institutes, networks, teacher leadership, teacher as writer, and individually planned professional development (Glickman, et al., 2010).

Cultural Development

The educational school system is a constant source of change. The supervisor is responsible for maintaining positive cultural development on the school campus. The foundation of this development is trust that is built with actions and not words (Allen & Glickman, 1998). "Teachers trust supervisors when they are allowed to share in decision making about change, when their opinions are respected, when the commitments made to them are consistently kept, and when they are supported during the change process" (Glickman, et al., 2010, p. 417). Trust is reciprocated when supervisors see teachers focused on the mission of the school and working collaboratively with each other to meet the educational goals that support increased student learning (Glickman et al., 2010).

Mentoring

Mentoring is a way to induct beginning teachers into the profession by pairing them with master teachers. Successful mentoring requires open communication and

acceptance of help from colleagues. The mentoring process decreases the authoritarian concept of supervision by developing human relations (Pawlas & Oliva, 2008).

Curriculum Development

Effective instructional leaders have a clear understanding of curriculum as well as curriculum development. Gress and Purpel (1978) state that the meaning of curriculum is "particularly appropriate and useful because much of one's understanding of the problems and issues...will be colored by one's way of defining curriculum" (p.1). Portelli (1987) states that theorists of curriculum "understand the importance of clarifying the concept Curriculum before trying to solve questions encountered in their field" (p. 356). Portelli goes on to say that the term *curriculum* has over one hundred definitions. He classifies these definitions in three categories:

- curriculum defined in terms of content (what students should be taught)

- curriculum defined in terms of experiences (activities ranging from student to school to life experiences)

- curriculum defined in terms of a plan (the actions that take place prior to instruction). (p. 357)

Instructional leaders can align their definition of curriculum with the needs of the campus, whether it is content, experiences, or a plan.

Instructional leadership recognizes that decisions about curriculum and the needs of the students should be made by those closest to the students, as noted by H. M. Kliebard (2004) in *The Struggle for the American Curriculum*. Kleibard (1989) expounds that when curriculum developers associate themselves with a particular curriculum theory it "justifies who should teach *this* rather than *that* when [planning] school activities and

programs" (p. 3). Kliebard further states that historically "the child's real interests,
needs, and learning patterns" (p. 24) that support student inquiry and learning should be
taken into consideration when developing curriculum. When teachers are involved in
curriculum development they develop a sense of professional validation and ownership.
Validation and ownership promote instructional improvement (Glickman, et al., 2010).
The work of the supervisor includes "calling attention to teachers to the social purposes
of their work, to discussing how the academic and the social purposes can mutually
support each other" (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002, p 53).

Glickman, et al. (2010) explain the supervisor's involvement and responsibility
with curriculum development is based on five arenas that include: who will be
responsible for curriculum development, the purpose of the curriculum, the content of the
curriculum, how the curriculum is organized, and the format in which the curriculum is
written. They go on to explain that supervisors and teachers should work together on
these arenas in order to develop curriculum that will be most appropriate for students,
address student diversity, and encourage teachers' choice and commitment to curriculum
implementation.

Community Development

Glickman, et al. (2010) describe the authentic *school community* as one that
encompasses democracy, moral principles, inquiry, professional learning, and
engagement with the larger community. Developing a positive *school-community
relationship* must include clear communication about addressing the needs and goals of
the community. Effective supervision for community development creates an
environment that supports student learning.

Program Evaluation

Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993) state that the "supervisory process, whether exercised by a superintendent, a district supervisor, a principal, or a department chairperson inescapably involves program evaluation" (p. 164). Glickman, et al. (2010) identify two purposes for program evaluation: formative, to improve a program, and summative, to make a definitive decision about the value of a program. It is critical that teachers as well as other stakeholders be included on the evaluation team. Nolan (2005) suggests six standards for successful supervision of program evaluation. According to Nolan, successful supervision

- identifies evaluation goals, objectives, and questions

- collects a wide variety of data

- identifies and ensures valid data collection methods

- clearly communicates the purpose, procedures, and findings of the evaluation

- ensures validity of the program evaluation

- ensures that the program evaluation is formative to allow continuing adjustments to programs and leads to summative to determine the effectiveness of the program. (p. 205)

Summative Teacher Evaluation

According to Sergiovanni and Starratt (2002), summative teacher evaluation is based on the judgment of the quality of the teacher's performance. They explain that the summative teacher evaluation often is linked to a formal personnel decision that might include promotions or contract renewal. Glickman, et al. (2010) argue that summative teacher evaluation is an administrative function to ensure teacher accountability. It is

based on organizational policies that mandate its purpose, frequency, and procedures. A teacher's performance is usually documented on an evaluation form that rates and judges the quality of their instruction and includes classroom management and climate as well as noninstructional areas such as cooperation with administration and colleagues and compliance with school regulations.

Addressing Diversity

Successful supervision understands that diverse campus populations (racial, cultural, sexual orientation, gender equity, disabilities, ethnic, and linguistic) require an increased awareness of knowledge and skills in diversity. Geneva Gay (2005) suggests nine supervision standards for and about diversity. Gay maintains that successful supervision:

- provides a variety of opportunities for teachers and student to develop and disseminate desirable public and private visions, values, knowledge, and skills about diversity in U.S. history, life, culture, and education

- provides systematic assessment and constructive feedback to teachers and students about building their emerging competencies in ethnic and cultural diversity

- makes necessary resources available and facilitates their use, ensuring that ethnic and cultural diversity are woven into all aspects of the educational enterprise in ways that are appropriate to task, domain, context, and audience

- determines if multiple ethnic, cultural, social, and experiential perspectives are used in analyzing challenges and providing opportunities for learning about and responding to diversity

- monitors teaching and learning activities for and about cultural diversity to ensure that they are always multiethnic, multiracial, multidisciplinary, and multidimensional

- helps classroom teachers and other educators develop a deep knowledge and critical consciousness of how cultural diversity influences the educational opportunities, programs, practices, and outcomes for students from different ethnic groups, and develop skills to make these processes more multicultural

- ensures that comprehensive approaches are used to teach and learn about ethnic, racial, cultural, and social diversity on a regular basis throughout the educational process

- helps teachers and students determine and continually improve the quality of their teaching and learning about ethnic and cultural diversity with respect to relevance, accuracy, and significance

- assists teachers to systematize their decision making, problem solving, implementation actions, and progress monitoring for making all aspects of the educational enterprise more inclusive of and responsive to ethnic, racial, cultural, social, and linguistic diversity. (pp. 109-110)

Supervisors who facilitate multicultural education among teachers make possible improved learning for all students.

Glickman, et al. (2010) support Gay's standards to address cultural diversity, and maintain that effective supervision responds to and supports culturally responsive teaching and schools by becoming aware of diverse populations and their individual needs and addressing those needs in a way that will support academic success.

Characteristics of Effective Supervision and Instructional Leadership

Effective supervision and instructional leadership support the schoolwide improvement of teaching and learning. A study by Castles-Bentley, et al. (2005) examined knowledge, skills, and dispositions associated with effective instructional supervision across over 50 supervision texts written over the last 40 years. The knowledge, skills, and dispositions discussed in supervision textbooks ranged from low frequency to high frequency (see Figure 4).

Hoy and Hoy (2003) argue that effective supervision and instructional leadership includes knowledge of the changing school climate and culture. Supervisors must understand that the school culture and climate are "two ways to capture the feel or atmosphere of the school workplace" (p. 274). Instructional leaders must also realize their behaviors can be influenced by teacher behaviors as well as influence teacher behaviors. With this knowledge effective instructional leaders have the ability to positively impact the culture and climate of a school.

Blasé and Blasé (2004) discuss conferencing skills as essential to the effective instructional leadership:

> principals who are good instructional leaders develop a deep appreciation for the potential artistry of an instructional conference with a teacher—that magical, creative, intuitive, and reflective talk—as they discover the complexity and challenge of conducting an effective conference (p. 21).

Blasé and Blasé's research revealed that successful principal conferences were positive, reflective, and motivated teachers. The conferences included five strategies: making

Frequency of Discussion	Knowledge	Skills	Desired Disposition Toward:
High Frequency	Teaching and learning History of supervision Change process School as organization Human dynamics/relations Supervision as field of study	Observation Interpersonal/communication Conferencing Change facilitation	Democratic leadership Collegiality and collaboration Supervision as moral activity
Moderate Frequency	Differentiated supervision School climate and culture Teacher morale and motivation Legal dimension of supervision Philosophy of supervision	Leadership Organizational management	Creativity Flexibility Learning communities
Low Frequency (but still discussed in several texts)	Developmental supervision Trends and issues in supervision Instructional strategies and learning resources Child development	Analysis of teaching Coaching Conflict management Decision making Planning Relationship building Group process	Empathy for others Diversity Inquiry Job-embedded learning Objectivity Reciprocity

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Figure 4: Examples of Knowledge, Skills, and Dispositions Discussed in Supervision Texts

suggestions, giving feedback, modeling, using inquiry, and soliciting advice and options that facilitate positive teacher classroom performance.

The Blasé's also found staff development skills to be a characteristic of good instructional leadership. The effective principals in their study without fail supported their teachers' quest to improve their practice with information on current trends and issues to improve student learning. They encouraged teachers to attend workshops, seminars, and conferences for the purpose of instructional innovation. The effective instructional leaders understood the importance of building a culture of collaboration and learning for successful teaching and learning, and promoted peer coaching for teacher development. They used inquiry and action research, and provided resources to promote growth and redesign. The Blasés' research found that effective instructional leaders promote a culture of lifelong learning through staff development.

Blasé and Blasé concluded that principals in the study who consistently created conditions to provoke reflection by teachers were successful instructional leaders. Reflection was used for the purpose of helping teachers think critically and abstractly in order to improve their instructional choices.

Supervision and instructional leadership has evolved from *Snoopervision* to a collegial model. Traditional characteristics of control, restricting, and authoritarian supervision have significantly changed over time so that effective supervision now is considered to include the following:

- promoting teacher reflection through dialog,
- making purposeful, appropriate, and nonthreatening suggestions,
- giving feedback,

- modeling teaching techniques,

- using an inquiry approach,

- giving praise,

- promoting professional growth,

- providing staff development opportunities,

- supporting collaboration among educators,

- developing coaching relationships among educators,

- encouraging and supporting program redesign,

- applying the principles of adult learning, growth, and development to staff

- development and,

- implementing action research to inform instructional decision making

(Blasé & Blasé, 2004).

Glickman, et al. (2011) confirm the findings of Blasé and Blasé, adding that prerequisites for effective supervision and instructional leadership include knowledge, interpersonal skills, and technical skills. First, supervisors must have a knowledge base to see teachers and schools for what they are, and understand what teachers and schools can be. Second, supervisors must have interpersonal skills. Interpersonal skills help supervisors see how their behaviors affect faculty members as well as groups of teachers. When supervisors study the range of available interpersonal behaviors they may realize how those behaviors can be used to facilitate additional constructive and change oriented relationships. Third, the supervisor must have the technical skills needed for observing, assessing planning, and evaluating instructional improvement.

Links between the Principal's Instructional Leadership and Student Learning

The responsibility of the school principal is daunting. The demands of high stakes testing and accountability have placed more pressure on principals to show evidence of student academic achievement. A study by Bamburg and Andrews (1990) examined the link between instructional leadership and student learning. They found that principals at high achieving schools were:

- sought out by teachers for instructional guidance,

- able to clearly and effectively communicate instructional goals,

- visible on campus,

- active participants in staff development, and

- recognized by teachers as effective instructional leaders.

In a similar vein, participants at the United States Department of Education Forum (1999) concluded

> [the] number one characteristic of an effective leader is the ability to provide instructional leadership. Good instructional leaders have a strong commitment to success for all students, and are especially committed to improving instruction for groups of students who are not learning now. (para. 2)

O'Donnell and White (2005) agree with the previous authors, stating that principals' instructional leadership behaviors "facilitate effective teaching and learning with the overall mission of enhancing student achievement" (p. 56).

Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005) analyzed 35 years of research and found significant evidence that student achievement was affected substantially by school leadership. Their research identified a framework for effective leadership for the

improvement of student achievement. Their research supported studies discussed earlier in this work by identifying similar characteristics of effective leadership such as defining school mission and goals, facilitating instructional needs, developing the climate of the campus, facilitating positive teacher moral, and providing support for effective curricular and instructional implementation. The research of Blasé and Blasé (2004) emphasized that "by combining the skills of instructional leadership with those essential to the development of a learning community one can build a powerful, constructivist leading and learning environment" (p. 173). Glickman, et al. (2010) maintain that effective leadership has clear organizational goals and meets teachers' instructional needs to increase student achievement.

O'Donnell and White (2005) studied teacher perceptions of principal behaviors. Teachers in their study perceived that effective principals focused on the improvement of the learning climate with an impetus for student achievement. School leaders should "create a focused mission to improve student achievement and a vision of the elements of school, curriculum and instructional practices that make higher achievement possible…[and] recognize and encourage implementation of good instructional practices that motivate and increase student achievement" (Bottoms & O'Neil, 2001, pp. 8-10).

A study conducted by the Center for the Future of Teaching and Learning (2011) supports the previous research finding that the key to promoting schoolwide learning in a collective community of teachers is the leadership of the principal. This study concluded that effective instructional leaders must:

- build collaborative structures and cultures of trust,
- create high expectations for adults and students alike, and

- provide support for educator learning and establish structures and deploy resources in support of student learning.

Principal Preparation for Supervision and Instructional Leadership

Bottoms and O'Neill (2001) propose the following:

[If] principals are to turn schools around so more struggling students are taught to grade-level standards and higher, they need to understand how to engage faculty in creating and maintaining a culture of high expectations and support for all students. They will need to inspire faculty to develop engaging instruction and curricula that link students' learning to their interests, aspirations and talents. Developing school leaders with these characteristics requires a new approach to their selection, initial preparation and continuing support. (p. 3)

Today's educational setting is in need of instructional leaders who know good teaching methods and student learning when they see it, and "future principals will have to know a great deal more about teaching and learning and associated support systems than they currently do" (Fullan, Hill, & Crevola, 2006, p. 96).

In order for the principal to meet the expectations of an effective instructional leader, university principal preparation programs must equip them with the knowledge and skills needed to perform these tasks. This leads to the growing concern about what is taught in administration leadership programs. Levine (2005) states,

there is a good deal of research showing that principals make a difference in the success of students, there is no systematic research documenting the impact of school leadership programs on the achievement of children in the schools and school systems that graduates of these programs lead. (p. 12)

Since a pivotal role of the principal is to improve school performance, it makes sense that university preparation programs would be reflective of the characteristics of the instructional setting. For the most part, however, university preparation programs emphasize the managerial role (Mohn & Machell, 2005). According to Young, Petersen, and Short (2002) there is a strong consensus that there is no connection between what school leaders actually do in their schools and what is taught in university preparation programs. Instructional leaders should be able to assist teachers with instruction because they know what good teaching is. However, when instructional leadership does not meet with current expectations, university principal preparation programs have become the "focus of blame with the charge that isolated theories and outdated management models were not relevant to the primary need of today's schools" (Harris, 2002, p. 30).

The Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards are used by many states to guide the design of principal preparation programs and the state principalship certification. Although the intent of the standards is to be helpful, they "represent a very particular and relatively narrow view of the principalship and contradict efforts to broaden the talent pool or skills that principals possess" (Hess and Kelly, 2005, p. 163). Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, and Myerson (2005) argue "the processes and standards by which many principal preparation programs traditionally screen, select, and graduate candidates are often ill-defined, irregularly applied, and lacking in rigor" (p. 5).

Hess and Kelly (2005) state that significant "reform of principal-preparation programs must ensure that the content of these programs is well suited for the challenges confronting principals in a new era of schooling" (p. 39). University principal preparation

programs have the mammoth task of redesigning their curriculum giving "greater attention to learning experiences that apply leadership and research-based knowledge to solving field-based problems, and they must…provide more school-based learning" (Bottoms & O'Neill, 2001, p. 22). A study by the Southern Regional Education Board (2005) disclosed "a few universities have excelled at redesign, [however] the majority fall short of implementing the conditions necessary to create high quality programs centered on preparing principals who can lead improvement in student achievement" (p. 8).

Summary

This literature review considered the historical progression of teacher supervision and instructional leadership, the characteristics, tasks, and behaviors of the instructional leader, the links between effective supervision and student learning, and the principal's preparation for supervision and instructional leadership. The implications of this review indicate that in order for the principal to be an effective supervisor and instructional leader, university principal preparation programs must equip them with the necessary knowledge, skills, and dispositions.

Murphy (1992) states that the most common criticisms of university-based preparation programs are a weak knowledge base, fragmented programs, and lack of attention to practice. There is reason to believe that student improvement hinges on the abilities of the principal. Fry, O'Neil, and Brown (2006) support those findings stating that there is a growing concern for the principal preparation programs across the nation.

There is almost "no current research [that] systematically documents the content studied in the nations' principal-preparation programs, the instructional focus, or the

readings assigned to students [and there seems to be an absence of] a clear understanding of just what principals are learning in the course of their preparation" (Hess & Kelly, 2007, p. 4).

There are considerable gaps in the research on what students in principal preparation programs should learn and how they should learn it. This study gathered perceptions from university experts on supervision and instructional leadership, practicing principals who are strong instructional leaders, and outstanding teacher leaders on how university principal preparation programs should prepare effective instructional leaders.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

This section describes the research design used to answer the research questions introduced in Chapter 1. This was a qualitative study. Constructionism, interpretivism, grounded theory, and the interview method provided the framework for the study. This chapter provides an in-depth discussion of the research framework and describes the selection of participants, specific procedures for data gathering and analysis, and ethical considerations.

Specific models of supervision and instructional leadership as well as the scope and characteristics of effective supervision and instructional leadership were described in the review of literature. Each model theoretically expounds what effective supervision and instructional leadership should do to facilitate improved teaching and learning. The review of literature discloses little research on the connection of effective supervision and instructional leadership with university principal preparation. To review, my research questions are:

1. What do professors, principals, and teacher leaders who are considered experts in supervision and instructional leadership believe aspiring principals should learn about supervision and instructional leadership in principal preparation programs?

2. What model or models for preparing principals as supervisors and instructional leaders emerge from data gathered in order to answer Research Question 1?

Epistemology: **Constructionism**

For the purpose of this study I situated myself within the epistemology of constructionism. Shaddish (1995) states that constructionism "refers to constructing *knowledge* about reality, not constructing reality itself" (p. 67). Crotty (1998) emphasizes that constructionism finds meanings that

> are constructed by human beings as they engage with the world they are interpreting…*therefore all meaningful reality as such, is contingent upon human practices, being constructed in and out of interaction between human beings and their world, and developed and transmitted within an essentially social context.* (pp. 42-43)

Constructionism focuses on the ways in which individuals and groups participate in the creation of their perceived reality (Berger & Luckmann, 1966; Patton, 2002; Willig, 2001). Crotty (1998) states that constructionism "emphasizes the hold our culture has on us: it shapes the way in which we see things…and gives us a quite definite view of the world" (p. 58). Constructionism contradicts the notion that humans make sense of their engagement in the world. Instead, Crotty explains, constructionism views individuals making sense of and defining the "all" that is around them.

The lens of constructionism assisted in understanding the fifteen participants' perceptions of how principal preparation programs should prepare supervisors and instructional leaders. It was imperative for me, as a constructionist interviewer, to capture the different experiences and perceptions of the participants through open-ended

interviews. The implications of different perceptions or realities of the participants were examined. However, there was no "right" or "true" answer (Patton, 2002). As the researcher, I constructed *meaning* from the data.

Theoretical Perspective: Interpretivism

I conducted this study through an interpretivist perspective. Crotty (1998) describes this theoretical perspective as the

> philosophical stance lying behind the methodology [and thus] providing a context
>
> for the process involved and a basis for its logic and its criteria
>
> methods…whenever one examines a particular methodology, one discovers a
>
> complexus of assumptions buried within it. It is these assumptions that constitute
>
> one's theoretical perspective and they largely have to do with the world that the
>
> methodology envisages. (p. 66)

Interpretivism was utilized for this research in order to understand, construct meaning, and explain the results of the data collected. "The interpretivist approach…*looks for culturally derived and historically situated interpretations of the social life-*world" (p. 67). The interpretivist lens suggests that there are numerous realities of a phenomenon and that these realities fluctuate across time and place (Neill, 2006). Crotty (1998) explains that interpretivism is a way to achieve understanding by discovering meanings as we improve our comprehension of the whole. Corbin and Strauss (2008) add that "interpretivism implies a researcher's understanding of the events as related by participants" (p. 48).

The goal of conducting research through the theoretical perspective of interpretivism was to help me, as a researcher, consider the viewpoints or multiple

realities of the participants in the study, while constructing a second order theory, or theory of participants' theories (Creswell, 2009; Schutz, 1973). The aim of this study was to recognize the viewpoints and underlying assumptions of the participants on the effective preparation of supervisors and instructional leaders, as the models for the preparation of supervisors and instructional leaders emerged from the data (Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Orlikowski & Baroudi, 1991).

Methodology: Grounded Theory

Glaser and Strauss (1967) developed grounded theory as a detailed methodology for building theory from data. Grounded theory provides the researcher

> systematic inductive guidelines for collecting and analyzing data to build middle-range theoretical frameworks that explain the collected data. Throughout the research process, grounded theorists develop analytic interpretations of their data to focus further data collection, which they use in turn to inform and refine their developing theoretical analyses…. The power of grounded theory lies in its tools for understanding empirical worlds.... [The strategies for] grounded theory methodology include (a) simultaneous collection and analysis of data, (b) a two-step data coding process, (c) comparative methods, (d) memo writing aimed at the construction of conceptual analysis, (e) sampling to refine the researcher's emerging theoretical ideas, and (f) integration of the theoretical framework. (Charmaz, 2000, pp. 509-510)

Grounded theory methods specify analytic strategies to guide the researcher. Charmaz (2000) cautions that the strategies are not intended to be a non-negotiable prescription for data collection methods. Crotty (1998) defines grounded theory as

a specific form of ethnographic inquiry that, through a series of carefully planned steps, develops theoretical ideas. Throughout the process, it seeks to ensure that the theory emerging arises from the data and not from some other source. It is a process of inductive theory building based squarely on observation of the data themselves. (p. 78)

The use of grounded theory is consistent with constructionism and interpretivism. As the data was gathered and analyzed from the perspectives of the participants, ideas that emerged from the data were used by the researcher to construct meaning. Gephart (1998) explains,

[the] primary analytic methods used in interpretive research are grounded theorizing and expansion analysis…data are collected often in the form of field notes of interactions and conversations with an interest in surfacing a focus and collecting multiple examples of the phenomenon of emergent interest. Sensitizing concepts act as theoretical lenses to help the researcher find examples as well as patterns in the meanings represented in data, using theoretical sampling rather than random sampling to identify examples of research interest. (para. 11)

Carson, Gilmore, Perry, and Gronhaug (2001) note that the researcher using the interpretive framework is encouraged to apply personal experience and prior knowledge, as understanding and interpretation rather, than being a disconnected spectator are the goal of a study. Strauss and Corbin (1998) elaborate on the nature of the researcher's sensitivity stating that "experience and knowledge are what sensitize the researcher to significant problems and issues in the data and allows him or her to see alternative explanations and to recognize properties and dimensions of emerging concepts" (p. 59).

This study examined the participants' perceptions of what principals should learn about supervision and instructional leadership in principal preparation programs. The professional experience of the researcher enhanced data sensitivity and helped in understanding the significance evolving from the data (Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

Method: Interview

Crotty (1998) explains that research methods are the "techniques or procedures used to gather and analyze data related to some research question or hypothesis" (p. 3). For the purpose of this qualitative study, interviews were the most appropriate form of data collection. The open-ended questions of qualitative interviewing were used to account the individual differences or perceptions of the participants.

Isaac and Michael (1995) explain that there are four advantages to conducting an interview:

- permits greater depth.

- permits probing to obtain more complete data.

- makes it possible to establish and maintain rapport with respondent or at least determine when rapport has not been established.

- provides a means of checking and assuring the effectiveness of communication between the respondent and the interviewer. (p. 145)

Patton (2002) states that the purpose of using interviews for data collection is to find out what we cannot directly observe. The researcher cannot directly observe feelings, thoughts or intentions. Nor can the researcher observe past behaviors or circumstances, or the process of developing perspectives. Patton (2002) also emphasizes that the "quality of the information obtained during an interview is largely dependent on the interviewer" (p.

341). Preparation prior to the interview and sensitivity to the participant are crucial.

Patton identifies "three types of qualitative interviewing:

- the informal conversational interview,

- the general interview guide approach, and

- the standardized open-ended interview" (p. 342).

The general interview guide approach was used in this study. Patton explains the interview guide helps keep the interviewer focused on the topics to be covered and provides a framework for the questions to use during the interview. The advantage of this approach "is that the interviewer/evaluator has carefully decided how best to use the limited time available in an interview situation" (p. 343). The interview guide ensured that each person interviewed had the same basic lines of inquiry, while it gave the investigator the freedom to

> explore, probe, and ask questions that will elucidate and illuminate that particular
>
> subject. Thus, the interviewer remains free to build a conversation within a
>
> particular subject area, to word questions spontaneously, and to establish a
>
> conversational style but with the focus on a particular subject that has been
>
> predetermined. (p. 343)

An interview guide served "as a basic checklist during the interview to make sure that all relevant topics are covered… [and] minimize variation in the questions pose to interviewees" (p. 342). The interview guide also encouraged participants to recognize or evaluate their perceptions of what should be taught in the arena of supervision and instructional leadership in principal preparation programs. The specific research design for the study is described below.

Theoretical Sampling

The primary sampling strategy used by grounded theorists is theoretical sampling. Schwandt (2001) explains that in the "logic of sampling based on a *theoretical* or *purposive strategy* units are chosen not for their representativeness but for their relevance to the research question, analytical framework, and explanation or account being developed in the research" (p. 232). Marshall (1996) states that "theoretical sampling necessitates building interpretative theories from the emerging data and selecting a new sample to examine and elaborate on this theory" (p. 523). The use of theoretical sampling was consistent with the research design of this study, as the participants in the study were selected in order to gather "precise information to shed light on the emerging theory" (Charmaz, 2000), and to enable the "potential manifestation or representation of important theoretical constructs" (Patton, 2002, p. 238).

Participants

An expert panel, approved by the dissertation committee, nominated potential interviewees. The expert panel consisted of professors and practitioners who were considered experts in supervision and instructional leadership and who worked in positions of which they have contact with principals and teachers leaders from many schools. Individuals on the expert panel were selected from school districts and universities. Members of the expert panel nominated a pool of potential participants. The interviewees in this study were selected based on their roles and their expertise in supervision and instructional leadership. A total of fifteen participants were selected for the study: five professors, five principals, and five teacher leaders. Selection procedures for each type of interviewee are described below.

Professors

A pool of ten professors was nominated by professors on the expert panel as potential participants in the study. Five professors were selected in consultation with my dissertation committee.

Principals

A pool of ten principals was nominated by the expert panel as potential participants in the study. Prerequisites for consideration by the panel included: (a) being a principal on one campus for a minimum of five years and (b) having a campus rating of exemplary or recognized, or a significant improvement on Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) scores in recent years.

I administered Glickman and associates' (2010) Supervisory Assessment (see Appendix A) to the teachers of principals who were willing to participate in the selection process, and I selected five principals for the study based on the results of the assessment and consultation with my dissertation committee.

Teacher Leaders

A pool of ten teacher leaders were nominated by the expert panel as potential participant in the study. I conducted a phone interview with the principal of each teacher leader's campus with questions to help determine the teacher's level of expertise in supervision and instructional leadership. Based on information from the expert panel and principal phone interviews, I invited five of the teacher-leaders to participate in the study.

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Data Gathering and Analysis

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The grounded theory method is a cyclical process of data gathering and analysis. Gathering data is the first step of the grounded theory approach, however it is important

to note that "grounded theory methods specify analytic strategies, not data collection methods" (Charmaz, 2000, p. 514). The researcher derived theory from the context of the data collected. As the data was analyzed the investigator is encouraged to constantly re-examine the data through a systematic set of procedures as the theory emerges (Charmaz, 2006, Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

Interviews

Prior to each interview, I shared definitions of selected terms used in the interview to assure a common understanding of the meaning of those terms (see Appendix B). The interviews were semistructured and used the interview guide shown in Appendix C. Isaac and Michael (1995) explain that semistructured interviews are

> built around a core of structured questions from which the interviewer branches off to explore in depth. Accurate and complete information is sought when the additional opportunity to probe for underlying factors or relationships are too complex or elusive to encompass in more straight-forward questions. (p. 145)

The interview guide was used to establish consistency, accountability, and validity for the study. However, each interview also included the opportunity for each participant to elaborate or express additional comments that may not have been included in the interview protocol. Corbin and Strauss (2008) explain that with each interview, knowledge and understanding expand.

The general interview topics were adapted to the role of the interviewee (professor, principal, or teacher leader). The topics stemmed from Research Question 1: What do professors, principals, and teacher-leaders who are considered experts in

supervision and instructional leadership believe aspiring principals should learn about supervision and instructional leadership in principal preparation programs?

Prior to each interview, I informed the participant that, for the purpose of this study, instructional supervision and instructional leadership were considered synonymous and were defined as assistance for the enhancement of teaching and learning. The interview topics were shared with the participant at least one week prior to the interview. The participants were asked to provide rationales for leadership preparation program content and delivery that they recommend. In the first part of each interview, the participant was asked for her or his perceptions of the following:

1. The screening process that should be used for admittance to a university principal preparation programs that are committed to developing effective supervisors and instructional leaders

2. The tasks of effective supervisors and instructional leaders that principal preparation programs should address in the curriculum

3. The knowledge and skills for effective supervision and instructional leadership that principal preparation programs should develop in aspiring principals

4. The dispositions of effective supervisors and instructional leaders that principal preparation programs should develop in aspiring principals

5. The issues in supervision and instructional leadership that should be included in the curriculum of principal preparation programs

6. Classroom teaching strategies and learning activities that professors teaching in principal preparation programs should use to develop effective supervisors and instructional leaders

7. The types of field experiences that should be used to prepare aspiring principals to be effective supervisors and instructional leaders

8. Whether the university preparation program seeking to prepare effective supervisors and instructional leaders should provide induction support for the graduate who is a beginning principal and, if so, how long the support should last and what types of support should be provided

9. Whether there is a difference in the quality of principal preparation programs that are face-to-face or online.

In addition to the nine primary interview questions, throughout each interview I asked individual clarification, follow-up, and verification questions when necessary. The purpose of each type of these supplemental questions follows:

- clarification—to remove any uncertainty or confusion about participants' responses in the first round of interviews

- follow-up questions—probe for deeper understanding of participants' responses in the first round of interviews, or to ask new questions generated from analysis of the first set of interviews

- verification—to confirm the participants' responses

Data Analysis

Bogdan and Biklen (1982) define qualitative data analysis as "working with data, organizing it, breaking it into manageable units, synthesizing it, searching for patterns,

discovering what is important and what is to be learned, and deciding what you will tell others" (p. 145). The data collection and data analysis were ongoing processes throughout the course of the study. Patton (2002) defines qualitative content analysis as "any qualitative data reduction and sense-making effort that takes a volume of qualitative material and attempts to identify core consistencies and meanings" (p. 453). In this study, data analysis was carried out from the initial stages of data collection. Analysis of interview transcripts was followed by a member check, which in turn was followed by additional of data analysis. The following sections explain the processes of coding, analytic memos, matrices, diagrams, and member checking that were used in this study.

Coding. Analysts of data "should begin with the coding soon after the first interview...is completed because the first data serve as a foundation for further data collection and analysis" (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 163). Schwandt (2001) defines coding as a "procedure that disaggregates the data, breaks it down into manageable segments, and identifies or names those segments" (p. 26). Gibbs and Taylor (2010) explain coding as follows:

> [Coding] makes it easier to search the data, to make comparisons and to identify any patterns that require further investigation. Codes can be based on:
> - themes, topics
> - ideas, concepts
> - terms, phrases
> - keywords
>
> found in the data. Usually it is passages of text that are coded but it can be sections of an audio or video recording or parts of images. All passages and

chunks that are coded the same way – that is given the same label – have been

judged (by the researcher) to be about the same topic, theme, concept etc. The

codes are given meaningful names that give an indication of the idea or concept

that underpins the theme or category. Any parts of the data that relate to a code

topic are coded with the appropriate label. This process of coding (associating

labels with the text, images, etc.) involves close reading of the text (or close

inspection of the video or images). If a theme is identified from the data that does

not quite fit the codes already existing then a new code is created. (para. 1-2)

Patton (2002) states that "developing some manageable classification or coding

scheme is the first step of analysis" (p. 463). During this study, as the researcher

interacted with the data, numerous codes developed as the topics or themes became

apparent. The list of codes helped to identify the issues contained in the data set.

Throughout data analysis, the researcher's use of the constant comparative method of

revision, modification, and amendment refined the categories (Rudestam & Newton,

2007).

Data analysis in this study began with *open coding*. Corbin and Strauss (2008)

define open coding as "Breaking data apart and delineating concepts to stand for blocks

of raw data. At the same time, one is qualifying those concepts in terms of their

properties and dimensions" (p. 195). The researcher thoroughly examined the data to

identify, name, categorize, and describe the phenomena found from the interview data

(Strauss & Corbin, 2008).

The second step in coding for this study was *axial coding*, which involved

"Crosscutting or relating concepts to each other" (Strauss & Corbin, 2008, p. 195) or

"relating categories to their subcategories according to their properties and dimensions [as they] are assessed for how major categories relate to each other and to their subcategories" (Rudestam & Newton, 2007, p. 185). Axial coding made connections among concepts identified in open coding, allowing for identification of broader categories and themes. The final stage of the coding process, *selective coding*, connected categories and themes identified in axial coding to develop a model for the preparation of principals as effective supervisors and instructional leaders (Corbin & Strauss, 2008).

Analytic memos. Analytic memos are theoretical in intent, vary in length, and are generally written to oneself (Schwandt, 2001). The analytic procedure of memo writing offered an additional opportunity for me to interact with the data. I wrote analytic notes to explain and elaborate the coded categories as the data came together. "They can contain antidotal on the meaning of a coded category, an explanation of a sense of pattern developing among categories, or a *description* of some specific aspect of a setting or phenomenon" (Schwandt, 2001, p. 156).

Wolcott (1994) explains that memos are invaluable to the researcher for generating ideas and insights. Analytic memos were a valuable part of this study as I analyzed participant interviews. These memos served several purposes: to clarify my understanding of participants' perceptions, to identify gaps or relationships, and possibly to document my "ah ha" moments during data analysis. Patton (2002) cautions that suppressing "analytical insights may mean losing them forever, for there's no guarantee they'll return" (p. 406). Therefore, I made every attempt to make good use of the analytic memo writing process.

Matrices. Matrices helped me to display the data, "keep records of concepts and the relationships between them, and integrate ideas" (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 125). Patton (2002) warns the researcher to use matrices to generate concepts, not lead the analysis. "It is easy for a matrix to begin to manipulate the data as the analyst is tempted to force data into categories created by the cross-classification to fill out the matrix and make it work" (pp. 469–470).

Matrices were used in this study to portray the participants' interview responses as they related to the two research questions, as well as to compare the responses within and across the three groups of participants. As codes, concepts, patterns, and themes emerged from the research, matrices provided a graphic representation of the relationships among participants' perceptions and assert in developing models based on those perceptions.

Diagraming. The analytic process was enhanced with visual representations. Theorists such as Strauss and Corbin (1998) advocate the use of diagrams in theory building, as they are considered useful tools for

> generating, exploring, and recording ideas. Diagramming facilitates this process by providing a visual summary of the concepts and relationships under consideration. Comparing the evidence of each case to visual representations encourages an ongoing appraisal of the accuracy of the concepts and relationships depicted. (Crilly, Blackwell, & Clarkson, 2006, p. 351)

Diagrams became increasingly valuable to me as the analysis of data in this study evolved. As stated above, diagrams facilitated the process of evolving theory.

Member Check

Tentative themes cutting across the three groups of participants were listed in a form that was emailed to all participants for individual review. Participants were asked to identify each tentative theme with which they personally agreed and to return their completed forms to me. Only those perceptions verified by the majority of participants in all three groups were considered themes.

Conclusion Drawing and Theory Building

Data analysis throughout the study "simultaneously employ[ed] techniques of induction, deduction, and verification to develop theory" (Schwandt, 2001, p. 110). Patton notes (2002), "Interpretation means attaching significance to what was found, making sense of the findings, offering explanations, drawing conclusions, extrapolating lessons, making inferences, considering meanings, and otherwise imposing order" (p. 480). Conclusion drawing in this study involved revisiting the data, looking for clues, rereading, and determining how it all fits together (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). "Integration is the final step of analysis for the researcher whose research aim is theory building" (Corbin & Strauss, 2008, p. 274).

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Ethical Considerations

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Patton explains that a "good interview lays open thoughts, feelings, knowledge, and experiences, not only to the interviewer but also to the interviewee" (p. 405).

Patton's (2002) Ethical Issues Checklist provided a framework that guided me in establishing trustworthiness.

Explaining Benefits and Risks of Participation

I fully explained to participants the purpose of this research and how the results of the research might impact future research and practice. I fully disclosed the participants' role in the research. Participants were told that they could drop out of this study at any time. The names of professors, universities, practitioners, school districts, and schools were not revealed. Those who participated in the study were informed about any potential harm or risk associated with participation. Participants were offered the opportunity to receive a report about the results and conclusions of the research project.

Ownership of, Access to, and Destruction of Data

I explained to each interviewee the process of the interview, their role, and how the data would be stored and maintained. Each interview was recorded and transcribed. The recordings were destroyed upon completion of the study, but I retain ownership of other data until any follow-up papers or articles are completed.

Establishing Boundaries of Data Collection

I was cautious when establishing a rapport with the interviewee. I stayed focused on the purpose of the interview—to gather data—not give advice, influence the participant, or judge the participant (Patton, 2002). It was vital that I understood my own boundaries when gathering data. Patton explains that the boundaries of data collection depend on whether the researcher has command of "knowing how rigorous to push for data, what [the researcher] will or will not do in order to gain access to data, and knowing how hard to push during an interview" (p. 221).

CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH FINDINGS

Research Question 1 was "What do professors, principals, and teacher-leaders who are considered experts in supervision and instructional leadership believe aspiring principals should learn about supervision and instructional leadership in principal preparation programs? Research Question 2 was "What model or models for preparing principals as supervisors and instructional leaders emerge from data gathered in order to answer Research Question 1?" The results for Research Question 1 are presented in this chapter. Because answering Research Question 2 involved interpretation and theory building, the results for the second question are presented in Chapter V.

To answer Research Question 1, I used a qualitative approach and interviewed fifteen participants. As I discussed in Chapter III, an expert panel nominated potential participants for the study, and I then used separate screening processes for each subgroup—professors, principals, and teacher leaders—to choose five participants from each subgroup for the study. Since the professors were from various parts of the country, I used Skype for their interviews. I was able to conduct face-to-face interviews with the principals and teacher leaders, who were located in Texas.

I conducted each interview using the same set of core questions from an open-ended interview guide (see Appendix C), ensuring consistency across interviews. All interviews were recorded and transcribed. I also took field notes during and immediately

after each interview. The data from the fifteen interview transcripts were analyzed with open coding. Next, axial coding allowed me to identify several themes. I classified these themes under eight broad categories that correspond to the headings below. Under each heading, I identified themes that cut across the perceptions of all three groups.

Themes Identified Under Eight Broad Categories

The themes that emerged from the data analysis were identified under the following eight broad categories:

- The screening process for admittance to principal preparation programs

- The supervisory tasks aspiring principals should learn in principal preparation programs

- The knowledge and skills principal preparation programs should develop

- Dispositions aspiring principals should develop in principal preparation programs

- Teaching strategies professors should use to develop effective instructional leaders

- Types of field experiences aspiring principals should have

- Induction support for the beginning principal

- Program delivery: face-to-face vs. online

The Screening Process for Admittance to Principal Preparation Programs

There was a general consensus that the screening process should include more than university admission standards. One professor stated, "One of the things that years of experience teaching in a principal preparation programs have shown me is that admission standards are certainly not enough," while another said, "There should be

something more than just meeting the criteria to get into the graduate program." The principals and teacher leaders held the same concerns as the professors. One principal shared the following:

> It takes a unique 'animal' to lead a school or be a part of the leadership of education. I think that being a little more interested in who we are taking into the profession should be part of [the] process.

A teacher leader stated, "You have to be selective about who is leading the schools.... it is imperative...to determine who are the best candidates for the program." A professor concluded, "We really need to admit the very best and hopefully exit the very best in our programs." Participants recommended that the screening process include interviews, a review of the candidate's leadership experience, and some type of leadership exercise.

Interviews. The majority of the participants were in agreement that the screening process should include an interview. "I would argue that you need an interview process, some type of screening for dealing with situations....it's good for assessing someone for the potential school leadership position." stated one professor. Another professor suggested,

> You want to hear the person's passion about becoming a principal and what that might entail.... There are some surveys called case scenarios that I have applied in my interviews of future prospective candidates. We give them a scenario and one could assess their sense of ethics from their response.... how they negotiate their sense of ethical behavior in their role as a principal in these scenarios gives you a sense of how they view their ethical role as a school leader.

The interview was viewed by the participants as a way to determine leadership aptitude that goes beyond GRE scores or letters of recommendation. One principal supported the interview process as a way to identify characteristic of effective leadership such as

> charisma, maturity, articulations, and a general presence. I think for a leadership position, such as principal or assistant principal, the person needs more than knowledge or a good GRE score. They should be someone that others look to as a leader. They should have a presence about them and a maturity level that, I think, is currently not being screened for in this process.

Another principal expressed the belief that simply desiring to be a principal was not enough:

> Just because you think you are going to be a good leader doesn't necessarily mean that [you will]. I think it should be a little more of a selective process than just having the good scores. Having the "want to" does not [necessarily] mean you are a very good fit.

> The teacher leaders agreed that applicant interviews were necessary, offering

rationales like the following:

- All I had to do was show up and pay [the tuition]. That invites people in your cohort group that perhaps should not be there. So, there needs to be a way...[to] weed out people who really aren't interested or who aren't going to take it to the next step once they have the degree.

- I think that one of the things that have hindered our group is that certain people have been admitted to the program that have absolutely no intention of being administrators. [The university] didn't have the other program they

were interested in, so they just did this one instead. It is not productive. They

are present and doing the work, but they are not really into it—their interests

lie in other places. So that should be part of the admission standards.

- You have to be selective about who is leading the schools. If the faculty

  members coming together and deciding what the criteria for leaders of change,

  if that is important to the university, and I think it is, you can ask those

  questions to select candidates who are critical thinkers, who maybe think

  outside the box, or think of possibilities for schools. That is imperative.

An interview method that was recommended by participants was a "response to actions

or questions" method. A professor described this method:

We require an interview as part of our admissions process.... What we do in the

interview is an informal assessment of their responsiveness to actions and

questions that we provide. I would like to see that as part of the screening

process.... I talk to the students about their experiences and why they want to be a

school leader and what kinds of experiences they have had that make them think

that they might be prepared. How they respond to that determines their score.

They have to be able to talk about why they want to be a leader and what talents

they bring to that.

Leadership experience. The participants felt the screening process should

include a review of the candidate's formal or informal leadership experience. A professor

discussed the significance of such experience:

Let's face it. Another trend across the U.S. that is catching on is that a Master's

degree is really not enough to be a school leader. You need a specialist or

Doctorate to be competitive. I think the programs need to be more competitive of "who" we let *in* the door and even more competitive of "who" we let go *through* the door. That would mean having to make a fundamentally different shift in the way we do things. That is to not only do the paper screening of applicants, but also look at what they have done in the field, how they have worked as a teacher-leader...before being admitted to the program...we as administrators need to dig deeper if we really admit the very best and hopefully exit the very best in our programs.

One professor stated that when screening potential students it is important to discuss with them

their experiences and why they want to be school leaders, and what kinds of experiences they have had that make them think that they might be prepared.... They have to be able to talk about why they want to be a leader and what talents they bring to that [leadership role].

Leadership exercise. The idea of some type of leadership exercise emerged from the data. The participants suggested that a leadership exercise could include activities such as a written essay on the theme of instructional leadership, written responses to specific questions about instructional leadership, or a situation exercise. One professor adamantly stated that a writing exercise should "clearly...be part of the standard admission procedure; you want to make sure the person can write coherently and can express their desire to become a principal for the right reasons." Another professor's experience in the admission process included people who were admitted without a thorough screening as being

problematic in the program for several reasons, one of which was that they couldn't write.... A principal needs to know how to write since they send out emails, memos, newsletters. The tone of those documents is so important when communicating with various internal and external components.

Several participants believed the screening process should include a "situation exercise" to assess the prospective student's leadership abilities. One professor described such an exercise:

[The prospective students] sat in a group and participated in a conversation around the dimensions of leadership or aspects of leadership.... We observed them engage in these activities and had assessment documents to gather information...[and used] that information to select participants in the program.

An "in-basket" situation exercise to assess leadership abilities also was suggested. One principal said,

If there were some questions or problems that you had to solve within the "in-basket", even if you were doing it with some other folks, you'd get to see how we interact. If another person and I were doing this in-basket, you'd see my interactions, how I work with folks, how I get through. Even in a simulated activity like that, the real person comes out in some ways.

In-basket exercises were recommended by another principal who stated, "Within that in-basket, you learn a lot about people's values and dispositions [and] the preparation program could then make a decision on whether or not they feel this person is one they can work with."

The Supervisory Tasks Aspiring Principals Should Learn in Principal Preparation Programs

I questioned the participants on what supervisory tasks or responsibilities students in principal preparation programs should learn about. The participants were in agreement that the supervisory tasks and responsibilities taught in the curriculum must prepare the aspiring principal to meet the instructional needs of their campus. One professor cautioned that

It's not only the tasks and responsibilities supervisors do, but it's also the subset of skills, knowledge, [and] dispositions needed to enact those tasks and responsibilities with fidelity.... Supervisors and preparatory programs have to... have a curriculum that allows candidates to connect the dots.

Several teacher leaders who held principal certification and principals recalled that their preparation program either "did not address" or "go into depth" on the tasks of supervision and instructional leadership. Supervision and instructional leadership tasks that all three groups of participants said should be part of the curriculum include professional development, attending to campus procedures, teacher observation for non-evaluative assistance, summative teacher evaluation, curriculum development, and action research.

Professional development. The participants believed that principals must have the knowledge to understand the professional growth needs of teachers and be able to provide effective professional development to meet those needs. Principals must stay abreast of current research in order to provide professional development for improved pedagogy and student learning. In the words of one professor,

We should have [aspiring principals] actually looking at and planning professional development that is not just a series of random events but a long term considered emphasis on a particular focus that could make a difference in a school setting. That kind of practical application of instructional knowledge—not just "here is how you do it," but, "here is why we should do it this way."

Campus procedures. Campus procedures discussed by participants included building master schedules, managing the school budget, campus discipline, and facilitating special education. Regarding building school budgets, one principal stated the following:

cover budgeting, how taxes are raised, how the money is allocated, but as a campus principal, you don't receive specific training on those budget codes or how that is applicable to your campus, and that is very important. The budget codes, exactly what accounts can be used and in what way, how to move money into different accounts without going through a board approval process—all those things. You learn those on the job once you become a principal, but it would really be helpful to have more in depth training on school finance budgeting process before you become a school principal.

Expanding on the budget process, another principal said,

Budgeting is huge. Knowing how to work through that and knowing all the different parts of finances, camps and district level....It's beyond just budget codes. There should be a way to practice with others on how to build a budget and know what to do with this much money, or when we don't have that money. What are the options?

Campus discipline also was addressed within the topic of campus procedures aspiring principals should learn about in their preparation program. One principal said, "I don't remember covering in depth through my training what should be addressed....how you structure the campus discipline model." This was reiterated by a teacher leader with principal certification:

Another thing that is lacking, which we never discussed, is discipline. Everything that I came up with for my answers [for a principal job interview] and what I think I would do for discipline and for the office is based on research and what I have seen, but you don't really know what happens when students go to the office. If someone is sent to the office, when can you send someone home? When do you use ISS? What are the ideas about discipline? What should you do? We never talked about it in the program that I was in, and I feel that I learned all of that on my own.

Teacher observation for non-evaluative assistance. Although clinical supervision, a popular topic in supervision texts, was not named as a task of supervision and instructional leadership, observation for non-evaluative assistance was. Observation skills and techniques, supervisor-teacher dialogue, relationship building, and the need to place a priority on this type of assistance all were discussed under this topic. A professor described skills and techniques for non-evaluative observation:

There are skills and techniques for observation that are really important.... Your job is to help that teacher think through, and as Plato would have said, to discover what he already knows.... It is important that principals really understand the curriculum sequence so that they can locate what they're seeing in the classroom.

Another professor discussed the relationship between observation and supervisor-teacher dialogue:

> Supervision should be a process of engaging teachers in dialogue about their teaching in a non-critical, not-judgmental way.... Here is the key...I want to facilitate and encourage the teacher to develop that supervision of her own teaching, to see her teaching in different ways, and then come to this on her own.... the post conference should be where the teacher talks and the principal becomes a sounding board, posing questions to help the teacher teach in unique ways. At the end, the teacher is the one who comes up with suggestions.

The participants considered building relationships to be the key aspect of non-evaluative teacher observation that aspiring principals should learn about. According to one teacher leader,

> Supervision is ongoing. It begins with that relationship with the teacher, and it begins with the conversation with the campus leader getting to understand and know the values and beliefs of that teacher. As far as when they do an observation, it is critical that they engage in a pre-observation conference before they ever step into the classroom. If it is a new teacher and it's the first time that the administrator comes into a classroom, make sure they know the time you are coming in, because after the relationship has been built, it would be okay if the teacher says, "it's okay." They need to feel that the administrator is in it with them—collegial.

The participants believed that principal preparation programs should prepare

instructional leaders to overcome barriers to making classroom assistance a priority. One professor explained,

> Too often, principals and assistant principals come in with an idealistic view of making a change regarding improving instruction, but they find that the time allotted for that is minimal, compared to the time they deal with discipline, parent complaints, administration, etc. This takes away from their achievement role as being an instructional leader.... We need to emphasize, to a greater extent than we have, the role of a principal in instructional leadership. Equally important is how to help them manage or navigate the natural constraints they will face in finding time to engage in instructional leadership versus the other administrative tasks and managerial tasks that take up their time.

Summative teacher evaluation. Teacher evaluation also was discussed as a task principals should learn about in their preparation program. One professor argued that teacher evaluation should be viewed in a new light in principal preparation programs:

> Teacher evaluation is a continuous cycle of looking at how teacher progress throughout their careers.... That would require, if we really [considered] learning as a mutual endeavor between the supervisors and teachers, looking at different ways in which we work with teachers. That is one of the short comings of many programs. They are narrowly situated within—you take a certain number of hours, you will take a test at the end, you will have a portfolio—and you, too, can be a principal and supervisor. We do our students a disservice.

Curriculum development. The participants considered curriculum development to be a task of supervision, and they frequently spoke of curriculum development and

instructional improvement as two aspects of the same cyclical process. One principal said that principal preparation programs need "to be more well-rounded [with more content on] curriculum and instruction." Another principal spoke of the need for principals to develop skills in their preparation programs for assessing and improving both curriculum and instruction:

> There should be [a better] understanding of developing curriculum and instruction. How do you know you have a good curriculum in place, and how do you know when you have instruction in place? Lots of principals assume that the work has already been done for them, and they get to pick it up and carry on. There are big pieces to the puzzle.

The participants believed that principal preparation programs needed to place more emphasis on curriculum development as a part of instructional leadership, and also needed to address how, given the myriad management tasks of school administration, principals could manage their time and work in order to devote more time to curriculum development.

Action research. The participants included action research as a task principals should learn about in order to assist teachers to improve classroom teaching as well as to promote improvement of the school's instructional program. One professor stated the following:

> We need to nestle everything we do as, not an add-on, but something that is job-embedded within the very work that administrators and teachers do as they are learning about teaching and learning...action research.... should be in programs.

This perception was echoed by another professor,

I think supervisory tools to gather data, collect and be able to analyze and share what you collect for teachers is essential. I think teaching students about action research and classroom research as a tool for professional and individual development for improving their classroom and what they do over time is essential.

The Knowledge and Skills Principal Preparation Programs Should Develop

The participants identified nine areas of supervisory knowledge and skills principal preparation programs should develop in aspiring principals; these included knowledge of school law, cultural diversity, special education processes, effective instruction, and instructional technology, as well as communication, observation, teaching assessment, and group facilitation skills.

Knowledge about education law. The participants were in agreement that knowledge of education law was necessary for principals, specifically the law on contract renewal. The suggestion of one professor was,

I think they need some basic understanding of legal proceedings—an introductory law class would work, or some case studies that require students to know what the law is regarding student discipline, regarding teacher discipline, or regarding financial aspects of running a school.

One teacher leader who had completed a principal certification program one year earlier anxiously talked about educational legal issues,

So, what is it really like? What do you really do? We really don't know.... What are the laws? We just never talked about [legal issues] in the program and I feel that I learned all of that on my own.

The participants had various concerns regarding the legal aspects that an instructional leader must know about teacher termination, and expressed that students should learn about the "steps and procedures necessary and legalities involved in the task involved for making changes for non-renewal of [a teacher's] contract and what documentation is needed for that to happen." The participants also included knowledge of legal issues connected with special programs, such as Title I, Gifted and Talented, and Bi-lingual Education. One principal stated,

> I think that we should have a better understanding of the programs, explaining what gifted and talented looks like and what it looks like on the campus. What are the laws surrounding bi-lingual education and what does it look like on the campus? How about Title I and Title IX issues? What do you do with special education and what are your legal responsibilities on that? There are just a lot of things that [new administrators] don't really know.

> **Cultural diversity.** The participants were in agreement that cultural diversity needed to be addressed in principal preparation programs. One teacher leader stated,

> Universities [should] spend more time, not in one class but in every class that [students] take in training to be an administrator, thinking about cultural proficiencies. We have our biases and assumptions coming into the program, but we need to look at them and tease them out with each other. When we are in the role of leader, we [will need to] have more of an understanding about cultural differences.

The need for instructional supervisors to have a thorough understanding of cultural diversity for the betterment of the campus was conveyed by one professor as follows:

We have said it was important for years in the field, but we still don't do much with it... We don't understand [cultural diversity] and that is the distinction. In supervision, that's a particular area that we have just looked at, and [then] looked away from because we don't know what to do with it.

Another teacher leader adamantly stated,

I really believe that we need to train our future administrators to look at culture.... understanding who they are culturally, their beliefs and their values, and also looking at the beliefs and values of the population they serve. The culture of the school is one way, but we have students and families coming in from other cultures that don't quite match the culture of the school. As a future leader...they would need theoretical grounding for what that might look like and how to negotiate that and how to bring the community in.... Universities [should] spend more time, not in one class but in every class they take in training, to be administrators, thinking about cultural proficiencies.

Knowledge about special education. Special education can be a serious challenge for principals. Special education services for students with disabilities must be monitored for the sake of the student as well as federal mandates that must be followed to avoid legal complications. One principal recalled a complete void in this area in the principal's own preparation program:

There was not a drop of any kind of instruction or training on special education. I think a lot of administrators, if they are not already into special education, go into it very cold and blind and struggle to grasp the whole concept of special education, the IEPs and everything that goes along with the students.

This apprehension was shared by another principal:

> You learn an overview of special education, but principals really need to be
> trained on the ARD process, which is the admission process, review process, and
> the dismissal process. Principals need to be educated on the laws that apply—the
> behaviors intervention plans, and IEPs (Individual Education Plans) need to be
> taught in depth. Look at where you spend your days as a principal. I have ARD
> meetings every single week, so it is a significant portion of my instructional day.
> These meetings are very important, not only for the instructional needs of the
> children involved, but also, you can get into very serious trouble...if you don't
> follow protocol and the law.

Instructional knowledge. The principal is responsible for the instructional
decisions of the campus. These decisions require knowledge of state standards; research
based, student-centered instruction; and a school climate that promotes student learning.
The participants felt that the principals' instructional knowledge is vital for the
improvement of student learning, and principal preparation programs should focus on
such knowledge. One professor emphasized that

> Supervisors need to have great knowledge now about instruction...schools
> need...supervisors who can engage in and drill down deeply into conversations
> about instructional practices and the impact that those instructional practices are
> having on students.

Many of the participants discussed specific types of instructional knowledge that
principals should develop in their preparation programs. A professor described the
following areas of knowledge as critical:

A good supervisor should have a good understanding of teaching, knowledge of pedagogy, planning instruction, assessing instruction, and curriculum development. I don't think an administrator or supervisor of instruction could be an effective supervisor unless they had a good understanding of what the pedagogy looks like. Knowing about the research...planning instruction and assessing instruction, expertise in special education and understanding the diverse needs of all learners is critical. For supervisors to engage intelligently with teachers, [they] need to understand the pedagogical language. The more experience a supervisor has as a teacher, the better supervisor they will be.

Knowledge about instructional technology. With the emphasis that today's schools place on instructional technology, it is not surprising that participants believed that aspiring principals need to develop knowledge about technology, how to integrate it with the school curriculum, how to assist teachers in its use, and how to assess its effects. A principal expressed the significance of technology:

As a campus principal, we already use so much technology on campus. We are a one-to-one campus. We have Kindle Fires for every grade level, not every classroom yet, but for every grade level we have a classroom set. We are working toward a one-to-one campus where every student will have a Kindle Fire. We have computers in all of the classrooms. We have a computer lab with brand new computers that we just purchased. Leveraging technology for instruction is not just a wave of the future. Our children are technologically literate almost out of the womb.

Communication skills. The participants considered communication skills an essential ingredient in preparing principals to be instructional leaders. Campus principals communicate throughout the day, interacting faculty, staff, parents, students, and community members. The principal's effective communication skills ensure stakeholders' understanding of the mission and goals of the campus, support collegiality, and are necessary to meet myriad instructional needs. One professor summed up the need to develop communication skills:

> Teaching people how to communicate without threat and power, and to teach people how to just describe and discuss and ask questions and paraphrase—those skills are absolutely paramount to being able to [become an instructional leader] and supervise teachers.

Principals must use written communication in various forms of correspondence throughout the day. The participants believed that reports, e-mails, notes, press releases, or school newsletters should be models of good writing. A principal argued,

> Quite a few of the principals I interact with have horrendous writing skills. When I see e-mails or written correspondence, it is just horrible. Grammar, spelling, sentence structure, all need to be taken into account because we have to model [good writing].

Observation skills. The participants emphasized that principals must be equipped with specific observation skills in order to determine whether or not teaching practices are effective. Participants described classroom observation as it is discussed in the literature on clinical supervision outlined in Chapter II. To review, the clinical process consists of a pre-observation conference, classroom observation, and post-observation

conference with the purpose of examining and analyzing classroom practices in order to mutually develop a plan for improvement. Authentic clinical supervision requires a collegial relationship between the supervisor and teacher. This thread was consistently voiced by each group of participants. One principal discussed the need to connect observation with meaningful feedback and to address feedback skills in principal preparation:

> One of the hardest things to do as a school leader [is to] look at instruction in the classroom and provide feedback.... Really understanding how to give people feedback on their instruction in a way that can help them grow and learn is important.... There should be a way to do some hands-on learning in that process and make sure people understand what that means in action—some way of doing that should be included in the curriculum.

The participants expressly connected effective supervision with the ability to understand and assess teaching goals and practices. Several participants believed that observation skills should be taught within the framework of clinical supervision. One professor stated,

> We must look at a candidate with great adroitness to the "path"; the clinical supervisory model—the pre-observation, the extended observation, and the post observation conference. They need to adopt that cycle with fidelity. Do they have the requisite skills to communicate with teachers in the pre-observation and post-observation conference? For each one of these tasks, there are certain skills.

Teaching assessment skills. The participants considered teaching assessment skills to be closely related to observation skills. Interviewees also believed that principals need to understand what good teaching is before they can assess a teacher's performance.

Participants believed that the primary purpose of teaching assessment was to support teachers' efforts to improve their teaching. One professor stated,

> Instructional leaders and supervisors need to be able to provide the kinds of support that teachers need across their career continuum. To retain the very best [teachers], we need to support them. We have asked teachers to do extremely complex tasks, and ...we really don't have the support mechanisms in place to help them in their careers. We need assessment in that respect.

Group facilitation skills. The participants were in agreement that group facilitation skills should be developed in aspiring principals. The participants regarded a principal's capacity to bring groups together for a common purpose as essential. Specific group facilitation skills discussed by interviewees included goal setting, collaboration, planning, and communication skills. One professor stated, "I think supervisors need to have great skills at building great teams....really effective supervisors provide the support...and get out of the way so teachers can do their work."

The need for group facilitation skills was prevalent among all three groups of participants—whether the skills were for the purpose of team development, needs assessment, collaboration, professional learning communities, or parental involvement. One principal emphasized,

> Ways to do team building [are] very important. How do I create professional learning communities within my administrative team, but also across the whole school? How do we do that with parents? As a leader...you've got to build relationships. Building relationships with parents and community members is important. [With] teachers, I think we [build teams], but it is at a different level,

so you have to develop listening skills in a different way. You build ways of working with different folks.

Dispositions Aspiring Principals Should Develop in Principal Preparation Programs

When I asked the participants about the dispositions aspiring principals should develop in principal preparation programs, four themes emerged from the data: commitment to understanding one's self, commitment to developing positive interpersonal relationships, commitment to visibility in and collaboration with the school and community, and commitment to being culturally responsive. In the words of one professor, "We need supervisors who have the dispositions and the professional attitudes that can lead teachers in their incredibly complex work of teaching and learning, and support them." There was a clear consensus among the participants that supervisors are in the "people business", which requires specific dispositions which one participant described as being "critical to being a good instructional leader."

Commitment to understanding one's self. The participants were in agreement that aspiring principals should be committed to increasing their understanding of self. The participants discussed the concept of how a principal's beliefs and values, and how they identify themselves, can affect the climate and culture of the school. The participants regarded a positive self-identity as a key factor in promoting campus collegiality and collaboration for instructional improvement. In the words of one principal,

We have to recognize those [values and beliefs] within ourselves, to identify them so that we will know our strengths and areas where we need to grow. That kind of work in a program is important because that will help us understand ourselves better to be able to work with the people...whether children or adults. I tell

teachers all the time, "Who you are comes out when you are teaching kids. Who

you are comes out when you are working with people." I am aware of that,

because that is an area I focus on when I am building relationships, to really

understand people so that I can work with them wherever they are.

A principal's self-identity was also discussed in terms of defining one's

relationship with other members of the school community. Does the principal see their

position as the "boss" or a learner and teacher? Do they authoritatively distance

themselves from the faculty, or facilitate a risk-free environment? One professor strongly

emphasized the need for an instructional leader to recognize how they personally identify

themselves, stating,

> When I describe myself to myself...when I say, "I'm the boss of this building.", or
>
> "I am the supervisor of all the teachers in this building." That is a different
>
> mindset than when I say to myself, "I am a teacher, and I am here to help
>
> everybody." A teacher of teachers, a teacher of children, a teacher of parents and
>
> the community...I am a teacher. I have always described myself as a teacher....
>
> Once I describe myself to myself as a supervisor, that helping attitude doesn't
>
> come through.

The participants were in agreement that principal preparation programs needed to assist

graduate students to develop their self-identity as a prerequisite for assessing their

actions. A principal elaborated on this idea,

> You have to learn about who you are in that program, so that you can evaluate
>
> yourself on what kind of leader you will be. After understanding who you are,
>
> then you can figure out if you don't do something that well; you need to figure out

how to do that better. Then, understand how you develop your own action plan and how to fix you.... If you don't know yourself, you can't do the others.

Commitment to developing positive interpersonal relationships. The participants included the disposition of a commitment to developing positive interpersonal relationships. The interviewees stated that principals need to develop positive interpersonal relationships with faculty, staff, students, parents, and community for the improvement of instruction, student learning, community partnerships, and campus climate. The participants expressed the belief that purposeful relationship building created a sense of safety, security, and trust among all stakeholders. Explaining this commitment, one principal said,

> The most important things at my campus are to have a positive demeanor and to have a positive relationship with students and the parents. I don't think that can be overstated.... I know that if I have a positive relationship with all of my students and make this a place where all of my students want to come to learn, that they will be more successful on my campus than if I have a rigid presence or if I am very demanding, or if I am a rules-enforcer, and if I am constantly looking for negative in my students instead of focusing on positive features. So one of the things I think should be included in a principal preparation program is an emphasis on a positive demeanor, the positive climate, the power of praise.

A commitment to building positive relationships with teachers, according to the participants, was actualized through both acknowledging teachers contributions and building high expectations for teachers.

> Being positive and appreciating your staff or what they do, making sure that they

see that you see how beneficial they are to your campus. On the other side of it, knowing that you have those high expectations for them, which will influence the success of the students.

Commitment to visibility in and collaboration with the school and community. Developing the future instructional leader's willingness to be present for the campus and the community was considered an important factor to address in principal preparation programs. The participants shared that visibility has a positive impact on the campus and community in terms of stakeholders knowing there is a campus leader who is investing his or her time for others. Moreover, participants believed that campus visibility is specifically necessary for principals to establish themselves as instructional leaders. The need for visibility was described by one professor:

> You must have a certain visibility. You have to have presence. You must have, as Jacob Kounin referred to it in 1972, "with-it-ness," and instructional ways to describe teachers who were on top of things. [You need to be] a supervisor that has "with-it-ness" because you can't lead a school from your office anymore.... That is not where the pulse is, it's not where the DNA of the school can be found. The DNA of the school in found in the classrooms and in the way that the teachers interact with students. If you really want to have credibility, you have to be out there working the work of the teachers as they do their jobs. By virtue of your position, it's your job, and the only way you can to your job [is] to gain entry into the world of teachers. It is as plain as that. The longer you are in a leadership role, the further away you become from the instructional program. That paradigm needs to shift.

Participants believed that, to be a positive influence on instruction, principal visibility needed to be continuous. They viewed authentic commitment to being visible as including continuously looking for good instruction, developing relationships with teachers and students, and being a vital part of the campus community. A teacher leader commented on the importance of a principal's continuous visibility:

Being present with the students would be doing consistent walk-throughs weekly; being active in the classrooms, not on a negative note, but being involved with them and knowing what they are doing, and letting them know you are there...for them if they need you.... I have been on a campus where a principal was actively involved in all aspects. It was amazing. I've also been on a campus where the principal came to my classroom every once in a while. You can tell the difference because everything stops. It's like "Whoa! Why is the principal in the classroom?" The students are not used to seeing him. Some teachers take that as, "Oh, [the principal] thinks I am doing a great job, so [the principal] doesn't need to be in the classroom." But teachers also want the principal to come and see what they are doing and become part of our classroom family... When [principals] are frequently in the classrooms they get to know students by name. When they see students in the hallway, they know them by name. When students are sent to the office, there is a different rapport, versus [when] the only time [students] see [the principal] is when they are sent to the office.... If a principal is visible and active on the campus, then it shows the teachers, students, and parents that you care for them, and you are there for them. You want what is best for them, versus sitting in your office and only taking care of the busy work that comes to you.

A commitment to visibility in and collaboration with the community served by the school was also considered an essential disposition for aspiring principals. The school is a part of the community, and participants argued that a commitment to building a relationship between the school and community is essential. The principal's visibility in the community was discussed by the participants as a way to build rapport, model positive behaviors, and be the school's spokesperson. The participants shared that this presence represents a willingness to invest time and involvement with all stakeholders. A principal discussed the importance of developing a disposition toward community presence in principal preparation:

> How do you make your school the heart of the community? How do you engage community business owners to come in and do things with your school? .... We think we do that because we say, "We have one of those on our site committee." As a professional, I wrestle with this. I am working on making my campus advisory committee more functional than it currently is. It is not a super functional group because nobody really knows how to do that. I never got taught in my prep program how to engage those people, how to bring them in and make them a part of the campus. So teaching about how do you engage families and communities and that piece to do site-based decision making should definitely be a part of the curriculum.

Community presence was discussed as modeling. The participants shared that the community sees the principal as a role model, and that community visibility should be viewed as a way of modeling life-long learning, good citizenship, and community building. One principal elaborated,

[What] has to be emphasized is your presence at community functions and your

presence in the community. My family and I go to the library all the time. I see

my students there all the time. I am setting an example for them of life-long

literacy just by visiting the library, and making that a place for them to see me....I

go to events that have significant meaning for the students.... I am a role model

within this community for my students to follow. This is an important thing for

the preparation process.... People need to understand just how important the role

is that you fill in the community.

Commitment to being culturally responsive. A commitment to cultural

responsiveness was included by the participants as a disposition preparation programs

should cultivate in their students. Interviewees believed that principal's personal

development determines their sensitivity to the diverse cultural needs of students and

their families. The participants felt that principals needed to learn about, understand, and

develop their own conceptual framework for being culturally responsive. One teacher

leader explained:

Studying human behavior and culture and norms—all of those things need to be

understood and appreciated and valued. Sometimes we can do things or offend

people without even knowing about it. We are really not educated on social norms

or different cultures, and I think all of that comes into play. It is important.

Several participants shared their frustration about their principal preparation program's

failure to provide more learning on cultural competencies throughout the program. One

principal stated,

In my Master's program, we had one class, and that was it. Guess what? I am

faced with that every single day. As a leader, I think that it is huge to have a

handle on it. It would be awesome at the university level to produce leaders that

go onto campuses and do that with their faculty, to produce a cultural

understanding of each other and the families in the community where we work.

The participants expressed the belief that cultural responsiveness is a job requirement of

today's principals as they interact with people from various cultures on a daily basis. One

professor stated that being culturally responsive was one of the

real world necessities. If you are going to practice successfully, there are some

dispositions you need to have as a habit of mind and heart. When you learn about

dimensions of culture...you start to see and think through different lenses and you

can't really go back. The fact is that not all children have been taught well in this

state, and if you are a child of color or poverty, chances are that you are having a

less than stellar learning opportunity. Those are critical pieces.

Teaching and Learning Strategies Professors Should Use to Develop Effective

Instructional Leaders

When I asked the participants what teaching and learning strategies professors

should use to develop effective supervisors and instructional leaders, six themes emerged

from the data: modeling outstanding teaching and instructional leadership; collaborative

learning; use of case studies; student analysis of supervision research, theory, and

practice; data analysis; and action research.

Modeling outstanding teaching and instructional leadership. The participants

were adamant that professors of principal preparation programs must be capable of

modeling the skills of outstanding teaching as well as outstanding instructional

leadership. The participants' rationale was that when professors model what is expected

in PK-12 classrooms and schools, graduate students who observe the professors'

exemplary practice are more likely to model and encourage such practice when they

become principals. One professor stated,

> I think the first thing that is important when teaching a supervision class is to
>
> model the kind of colleagueship that has been a hallmark of contemporary
>
> supervision. The beginnings of clinical supervision certainly build on that
>
> foundation of a sense of colleagueship and collegiality.... We should be walking
>
> the walk as professors of supervision to help our students understand what that
>
> looks like. How do you know what it looks like if you have never experienced it?

This thought was echoed by other professors, one of who stated, "I think to be a good

teacher of instructional leadership and supervision, you have to model the skills and

dispositions." In the words of another professor, "Model, model, model being an

outstanding teacher. You don't just stand there and talk or use a boring PowerPoint. You

better model it." Exemplary teaching strategies were considered a necessity according to

yet another professor, who shared the following:

> We strive to be excellent, effective teachers that we know what objectives we
>
> want to teach and want to accomplish, that we design excellent instructional
>
> strategies and use a variety of materials to do that, and we devise ways to assess
>
> whether we have accomplished those objectives.

Despite the viewpoint of professors in the study, a teacher leader who is currently enrolled in a principal preparation program had not observed effective modeling by professors. This teacher leader explained,

One thing I have learned from teaching students, that is parallel with teaching adults, is having active, cooperative learning techniques. We are being instructed to teach our students in a certain way. We go to class and we are instructed in a completely different way. I think that it is possible to have more interactive learning, but it is a little more work, planning, and preparation. For instance, we had a class on effective teaching and differentiation and the instructor did not utilize effective teaching or differentiation once during the entire eight-week course. Things like that need to be brought up to the level of teaching that is expected today.

The perception that professors should model outstanding teaching was voiced by all the participants. One principal concluded,

[The professors] should be modeling good instruction every single day.... We assume that [professors] should know how to do that, and [the students] should be able to do the sit-and-get, but my belief is that professors should be using the practices that we will be looking for in the classrooms. That may be one place where students get the opportunity to evaluate instruction by watching and taking notes on the lessons that the professors are doing. They can model almost everything. [The students] would have a point of reference.

Collaborative learning. Collaborative learning was viewed by the interviewees as an effective strategy for building the instructional leadership skills of principals. Many

of the participants included personal experiences in their responses. One principal's experience as a graduate student did not match the participants' calls for collaborative learning:

> I can tell you that most of it [the principal preparation program] is "sit-and-get" and most of it is group work. They are not teaching them how to do collaborative work or cooperative learning. They tell you to do the assignment. It's not really sound instructional practice. In their minds [professors] may be thinking they are doing collaborative learning, but they are not doing it together. There is a difference between collaborative learning and group work. I don't know if people going into the profession would understand that.

The need to foster collaborative learning was echoed by another principal who noted that some principal preparation programs

> have moved toward collaborative efforts, the things we are trying to get our pincipals to do.... More collaboration, small group instruction, team building, team work, those kinds of things need to continue and maybe even be expanded a bit to ensure that aspiring principals understand that as leaders, it's not just a little flavor of the month, where we do a little team building activity, but collaborative efforts are continual. Principals need to understand that.

One teacher leader currently in a principal preparation program surmised that collaborative learning raised the level of graduate students' engagement:

> [In] more activity based, collaborative work...you are not just sitting there in a lecture. We know about the research and that we retain only so much of what we

hear. If we actually do it or participate in something, we are learning at a higher level.

Problem solving was one type of collaborative learning endured by a principal who reflected on his own principal preparation experience.

We [were given] a problem to solve in a small group—we did small group work a lot—and from there we had to figure [the] most important aspects of [the problem] we were looking at to solve.... and everybody had a chance to share what they needed. Then we could see that area we were lacking, some data that we were looking at. I think [the problems] have to be real; by that I mean things to take back with you to a campus that you can work on.... I think the group work is important because you get to hear the perspectives.... You have your perspective and the perspective of the district you work in, but you are going to meet up with folks from different districts that would bring in something different to help you learn. Being able to work in groups gives you the opportunity to do that.

Another type of collaborative learning discussed by participants was group role playing. One teacher leader with principal certification said,

We did a lot of role playing and I benefitted from that. You had to answer "on your toes" without having preparation in advance. You were given situations and you had to react, not let your emotion be involved, and logically think of processes on how to handle the situation. That definitely trickles down to the curriculum and to the instruction itself, especially when it comes to teachers and evaluation and everything else!

Use of case studies. The interviewees believed that case studies can be used to give students the opportunity to look though the "lens of a principal" and analyze an experience that might occur on their campus. Case studies allow students the opportunity to consider situations, problems, processes, and events that principals typically experience. A professor stated,

> Some exposure to case studies that deal with the political arena that we work in a public school, as a teacher or principal or assistant principal, needs to be in the curriculum. We currently do that by putting case studies into several of our courses.

A teacher leader concurred with this sentiment: "I think it would be good to go over [different situations], have a lot of discussion and dialogue about how to handle a particular situation."

Student analysis of supervision research, theory, and practice. Participants suggested that student analysis of supervision research, theory, and practice be included in principal preparation programs. One professor includes a research project in a supervision class focused on a "practice or concept from supervision theory". The students in this class select a theory of supervision, research literature, plan a practice-based study testing the theory, and then collect and analyze data on the theory's utility." The professor concluded that "There is no reason why that kind of project can't be a part of a classroom practice." A principal stated that including research was beneficial, but that "knowing how to use that research so that [principals] stay current [and] help the teachers is equally important." This thought was supported by a principal who stressed the need for a principal to know how to conduct and use research:

I don't think a lot of people take the time to determine what research has been

done. We spend a lot of time for federal programs, and talking that they should be

research-based practices. I don't think we spend a whole lot of time explaining it;

it doesn't mean that the company that developed it did a research study and found

it effective. What are we actually saying? Are we talking to other people, other

districts in similar demographics to see if we have the same gains and promise for

certain programs? Some of that ties back to networking with colleagues. Some of

it ties back to "what does it look like?" We teach our kids that just because you

read it on Wikipedia doesn't make it so. Are we, as educators, just as guilty as

anyone else who listens to what the people tell us who are marketing the product

as far as the research goes? Do we take time to do extra homework?

Data analysis. The participants recommended that data analysis be included in

the program as a teaching-learning strategy. The interviewees believed that principals

must be prepared to use data to assist with instructional improvement. One teacher leader

with principal certification discussed the importance of

being able to dissect data, knowing where the strengths, trends and weaknesses

are on your campus, being able to figure out the causes of those weaknesses so

that you can help with professional development in those areas of need, not only

for the teachers, but [also for] grade level or curriculum changes.

Action research. Another instructional strategy suggested by participants was

action research. A professor stated,

Action research is the kind of activity that you put your students in so you can

observe them using all of the skills that are essential for success.... Most of the

skills you use in supervision and instructional leadership are procedural skills. To

learn procedures, you have to practice them. You can't learn them just by reading

them. To teach people to be an active listener and how to conference effectively,

they have to practice it. They have to practice it enough so they can do it fluidly.

That is a process we should be using to teach in the preparation program.

Additional thoughts on action research were shared by another professor, who said,

I think supervisory tools to gather data, collect and be able to analyze and share

what you collect [with] teachers is essential. I think teaching students about action

research and classroom research as a tool for professional and individual

development and improving their classroom...is essential.

Types of Field Experiences Aspiring Principals Should Have

There was a unanimous agreement among the participants that aspiring principals

should have an internship either during or at the end of their coursework. The types of

field experiences – either as part of the students' regular coursework or their internship –

that participants recommended included classroom observations, activities that integrate

theory and practice, practice with typical supervisory responsibilities in a school setting,

and shadowing principals as they carry-out instructional supervision.

Classroom observations. Participants recommended that aspiring principals

conduct classroom observations as part of their field experience. There are myriad foci

for classroom observations—the focus might be on teaching strategies, classroom

management, student participation, etc.—but the general purposes for the aspiring

principal are to practice conferencing, classroom data gathering and analysis, and

collaborative planning for instructional improvement. Clinical supervision, as discussed

in Chapter 2, situates the classroom observation within the clinical cycle, which includes a pre-observation conference, data analysis and planning for the post-observation conference, the post-observation conference, and the post-process critique. A professor discussed students doing classroom observations as part of clinical supervision:

One of the things I have done as a regular course of business, and this is not unusual...is to do the clinical supervision cycle. You get a peer who agrees to say, "Yes, come in and gather some data from me around these issues." You set up a time to do that, you collect the data, you analyze the data, prepare the data, and you sit down in conference with the teacher. Of course, the fifth piece of the clinical supervision cycle is where you say, "How did this work? What could we have done better? What could we do differently next time?"

Participants' discussions of classroom observation also included doing non-evaluative "supervised walkthroughs" with principals, which would permit aspiring principals opportunities to not only observe teachers but also talk to the principal about the walkthrough. One professor stated,

Doing several walkthroughs with the principal is a requirement [of our preparation program]. We encourage the principals to not just do the walk, but to talk and share what was going through their minds [during observations] so that you can debrief, using your notes to jog your thinking on what you saw and made of it.

Activities that integrate theory and practice. All of the participants recommended that activities that integrate theory and practice should be included in the field experiences. The participants discussed a disconnection between coursework and

practice in preparation programs—that courses are taught in isolation with an absence of field experiences needed to prepare aspiring principals. Connecting theory and practice was absent in the principal preparation program of one teacher leader with principal certification:

> We really didn't do anything hands-on in the program, and I would have liked to have seen more of that, connecting our class to something that is practical in our field at school, under the guidance of our mentor or principal.

Another teacher leader reflected a personal experience in his Master's program, stating that it felt very isolated and disconnected—as opposed to being a student in a doctoral program that bridged the gap between theory and practice. Part of the bridge was conversations about applying theory to practice with other members of a doctoral cohort.

> My practice is so much better because I have people who are very diverse thinkers to help me solve problems.... I tend to believe that we should somehow bridge that relationship. It should be more fluid and seamless, instead of "Okay that was the university talking; let me tell you how it is here now." Our decisions in schools are very important. The university is a great forum for that kind of conversation.

The importance of integrating theory and practice was echoed by the professors, who discussed the need for aspiring principals to make theory-practice connections, or "tying it together." One professor stated, "There should be a real strong connection between the theory they learn in the classroom and the practice that the principals do every day." Another professor recalled that graduates of some programs complain that their coursework did not prepare them for the real world of practice.

It is probably because they haven't been able to make a connection between theory and practice. What we need to do in courses is to help the students make that connection by giving them actual projects that they can work on over the course of the semester, or even [through] shorter term assignments.

Practice of typical supervisory responsibilities. Participants recommended that the typical supervisory responsibilities of campus principals be included in preparation programs as field experiences. However, the participants also noted "glitches" that present themselves even in school-based internships, because many interns are full-time teachers and miss the opportunity to practice supervisory responsibilities. One principal commented,

Unfortunately, the people who are doing the internship are still in the classroom teaching. On their conference period, they go to the office and help with or sit in on a team leader meeting or site-based meeting. It is not great, but I know it's the real world, and this is all they have and all they can do. It would be really cool to have an opportunity...to step away and to be able to do some full time interning for even a week or two, just to get a taste of it. We have had teachers do their internship; they run in, they help, and they run back to class. There is not time to reflect; we can't debrief or anything. It's really a scramble.

Although the participants expressed doubt about the feasibility of students practicing all the responsibilities of an effective supervisor, certain activities were considered essential, including creating a teacher professional development plan, planning professional development activities, developing a behavior management plan, overseeing teacher duties, and parent conferencing. One professor stated,

The ISLLC (Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium) standards have been very clear about the importance of having field-based practice as an integral part of coursework throughout the program. Part of that is because the experience of internship has often been less than stellar.... One of the ways we have gotten around that is to have a long list of things that we expect our interns to have some experience with. It gives us, as university supervisors, a way to talk with supervising mentors about the kinds of experiences that they need to think about, and how to talk about how to give the intern experience in that particular area. For example, planning professional development is a requirement. Doing several walk-throughs with the principal is a requirement.

Shadowing principals as they carry-out instructional supervision. The participants recommended the field experience of shadowing principals as they carry-out instructional supervision to gain knowledge and understanding of the daily requirements of supervision. The participants suggested the experience of shadowing principals would be most beneficial if taken place during various times throughout the year instead of being an isolated, one-time event. One principal suggested some specific times for shadowing:

There are so many pieces that happen at different times. At the beginning of the school year, getting the school ready and getting through [the first few days] is one experience. Getting through all the standardized testing is another type of experience. Maybe having some times within those different benchmarks of school and how schools run might be helpful to an intern. It has to be hands on. The internship can't [just] be observing and reflecting...it has to be hands on.

Induction Support for the Beginning Principal

Overall, the participants unanimously agreed that beginning principals should receive induction support. Induction support was conceptualized by the participants as support for school administrators in their first year or first few years of practice. The participants discussed three issues concerning induction: responsibility for the induction program, the type of induction, and the length of the induction period.

Induction responsibility. Opinions of who should be responsible for providing induction support varied among the participants. Some participants suggested that induction support should be provided jointly by the university and the school district. One professor shared,

> Presumably, the school should provide induction, but the university should play a role as well.... If we are graduating people who get certified as principals or assistant principals, they need to have an induction process. Support from the university is critical.

A professor who was part of the group advocating an induction partnership described an induction program in the professor's state:

> In our state, we have a system in place where there is an induction program. Coaches are hired, external to the university or the school system but mutually agreed upon. That coach works alongside of the new leader and the new leader's principal, and touches base with the university person who is typically the adjunct who works with the intern as coach. The university needs to be much more aggressively involved and there needs to be more than just the university

professor; it has to be in partnership with the graduate, the graduate school, the university, and a full time coach.

Other participants thought the induction support should be the sole responsibility of the school district. In the words of one principal, "If a district has a very good support system, then I don't see need for the university to collaborate with them." At the other end of the continuum, another principal believed that it was the university's exclusive responsibility to provide induction support:

Connecting beginning administrators with one another and to a sounding board at the university level is important, so that when they really do have questions, they can call back and ask for more knowledge about a subject. It happens all the time. People get hired in schools where there is not an assistant principal and suddenly they go from teacher to principal without some of those steps. Normally, they are in small rural districts and they don't have anybody to call and ask about certain subjects, because that service does not exist. They probably won't call the superintendent and ask them those questions. That is why it's so lonely, because you don't want anyone to know that you don't know. There is nobody to go there with, and it is just difficult.

Type of induction. The participants shared their ideas on the types of induction support new principals should receive. The types of induction support that were recommended included university, online, and mentoring support.

The participants included various ideas for *university induction support*. This type of support allows the new principal to reach out to their principal preparation program for

support. Three specific types of university support discussed by participants were residency, cohort support, and reflective journaling.

A university coordinated residency-type of induction would be comparable to that of a medical residency. As one professor explained, "I like to think of it more as a residency program, like the medical model, with doing rounds, and giving feedback, and situationally analyzing things." This type of induction calls for the new principal to have a university mentor, much like a medical student would have a doctor, to provide input and feedback during the early phase of their career. A like-minded teacher-leader shared,

I really believe in a residency-type situation were the new administrator is still connected with the university so that they are getting that support. I think that it is critical when they are in the field to make their own decisions, but still having that feedback from somebody outside the school.

Some participants suggested university cohort induction support. A principal preparation cohort would continue to meet on a regular basis to continue the support system that was built during their preparation program. One professor suggested scheduled cohort meetings, "[They] could meet once a quarter, or once a month...to discuss experiences, reflect on their experiences, and extend their learning." This suggestion was echoed by a principal who said, "A cohort would bring [new principals] together at certain times to facilitate good conversations and sharing of ideas of how their first year may be going."

Several participants suggested reflective journaling as a form of university induction support. It was suggested that new principals keep a journal during the first year(s) to share with a professor from their preparation program. This journal would

include the principal's reflections on their experiences, and allow the professor the

opportunity to provide suggestions. One principal shared,

> It is really important to have a current professor mentoring the new principal.
> There should be journaling—a lot of reflection.... It should be submitted online,
> so that there is a dialog going on [that] fosters some good discussions between the
> mentor and the principal.

Online induction support from practitioners outside the district was suggested by

several participants as a way for new principals to network with retired, veteran, or other

new principals. One principal stated, "[It] would be relatively simple to develop online

support, where you have chat rooms, problem rooms, or blackboard opportunities for

people to go in and pose questions.... [New principals] need to network and find out what

[other principals] are doing."

The online induction support was also viewed as an opportunity for new

principals to ask questions in a safe setting—free of judgment or criticism. One principal,

reflecting on his first year as an administrator, suggested,

> There needs to be a blog or chat room for administrators to go to and have
> conversations. There needs to be an opportunity of acknowledging that we have
> learned something, now we are turned loose, and we need some help. That help
> needs to be easy to access and free of judgment. It also needs to be a safe place
> for people. It's scary out there. Year one is rough.... I remember thinking that
> these people are eventually going to catch on that I don't have a clue.... Every day
> was a learning curve. Every day I spent hours trying to swim faster than the little
> sharks behind me... I could have used some people in the profession to tell me that

there were no sharks and they weren't going to eat me, in spite of my fears. It

would have been nice to have that answer.

The sentiment of networking with other professionals in a safe environment was also

shared by a professor, who stated,

I think the more you can build a network of support and nurture critical friends,

then the more that people feel they have somebody they can to go who is not their

boss.... I think if you can provide some way for people to say "I need some help

with this," or "that went lousy," and debrief why, it would do so much to boost

people's confidence and help them to start to feel more suited to the work... It

would involve digital support...so that you have someone you can call and say,

"Help me."

Mentoring by other practitioners was discussed by professors, principals, and

teacher leaders. There were several suggestions on ways to establish effective mentoring,

including the mentor observing the new principal and providing feedback, the mentor

asking the new principal critical questions to promote reflection, and the mentor being

available to answer the new principal's questions and advise the novice regarding

difficult situations.

Induction period. The suggested time frame for induction support ranged from

one to three years. Although there was no agreement among the participants on the

precise time period for induction support, all participants agreed the support should be

substantial and continuous throughout the induction period.

Program Delivery: Face-to-Face vs. Online

The participants were asked whether they felt there was a difference in the

quality of principal preparation programs that were "Face-to-Face" versus "Online".
There were mixed responses from the participants, partly because many participants had
no experience on a program that was 100% online. However, the majority of the
responses were in favor of a hybrid program vs. a totally online program. One professor
commented,

> I don't know what the research says on that. Right now, our university is moving
> online, and I am teaching my first course online this semester. The jury is still out,
> in my mind, as to how I feel about it. I guess the kind of teaching online is
> qualitatively different than teaching in person. It loses that personal face-to-face
> contact, but then sometimes you really get to know the students more deeply
> online because you really are forced to reach out and connect to that student. That
> may not happen in classrooms all the time, unless [the professor] takes the
> initiative. I don't know yet, quite honestly.

There was a strong negative response concerning totally online preparation of
aspiring principals. The participants voiced concern about the ability of an online
program to develop the people skills needed by principals. The interviewees also
questioned the possible motives an aspiring principal would have for applying to a totally
online principal preparation program. As one principal argued,

> This is a people profession. Human interaction is essential. I'm a spokesman for
> the campus....I am a public presence in this community. If you are learning how to
> become a computer programmer, online instruction is great.... but if you are
> preparing for a community relations position, I don't think that can be
> accomplished online. In other words, I disagree with principal preparation

programs that are online. I think that you should be able to take some of your

coursework online, but I don't think that you can do an entire principal

preparation program online to [learn how to] interact with people. My job,

number one, is to interact with adults and children on a daily basis. That [face-to-

face] component needs to be there.

Another professor, who had been a school administrator, commented, "I would not

recommend an online program, and I wouldn't hire someone from an online program." A

general perception was that human relation skills could not effectively taught through a

totally online principal preparation programs. In the words of one principal,

I realize online could be a good fit for some people, but the disadvantage is that if

you are going to stay tucked into yourself and not want to learn and interact with

people...then online is for you, but you'll never get a principal job because [for

that job] you have to talk to people. If they are not "people-persons," it doesn't

matter. It takes a lot of extra effort....they are shut-in—don't have to deal with

anybody. I'm sorry, but you won't get any kind of leadership position without

dealing with people.

Many felt that a blended or hybrid program could be effective. An advantage

mentioned by some interviewees was the value of some face-to-face interaction

combined with the convenience of completing coursework online. However, even most

of the participants favoring a hybrid program were strongly opposed to a totally online

program. One professor in this camp stated,

I don't believe that you can learn to be a principal, or teacher for that matter,

online. We did a big study on this...about seven years ago. I led the committee

that investigated the research on that. We developed a policy, as a result of the committee's work, that says at least 51% of the instruction must be face-to-face in any class. You can use online support all the time for supporting face-to-face instruction. There are a lot of things you can do online, but there does need to be, in my opinion, a considerable amount of face-to-face interaction.

The participants also discussed the need for the careful development of blended courses, as well as the courses that would be exclusively online or face-to-face.

Even hybrid programs were not favored by all participants. The pitfalls of a hybrid program were shared by one professor's experience that included teaching online and blended classes.

I think there is a difference in quality, because in the field of supervision, when someone is responsible for building relationships and team development, and learning how to build relationships and how to apply skills and get feedback, and [doing] simulations in class—it is awfully hard to do a simulation online. For key elements in programs, I don't think online is the answer.

Summary

The participants' perceptions of the screening process used by principal preparation programs suggested going beyond the typical university admission standards. The interviewees recommended a more thorough screening, including interviews, leadership experience, and leadership exercises. The participants believed that by adding these components to the admissions process the preparatory program would be more likely to admit students well suited to the principal's role.

The supervisory tasks the participants felt should be included in the curriculum were professional development, attending to campus procedures, teacher observation for non-evaluative assistance, summative teacher evaluation, curriculum development, and action research. Participants believed that principals must have a comprehensive understanding of these tasks in order to be an effective supervisor, but that these tasks were not fully addressed in many principal preparation programs.

The participants were very vocal about the knowledge and skills that aspiring principals should learn about in principal preparation programs, which included: knowledge of school law, cultural diversity, special education processes, and effective instruction, as well as instructional technology, communication, observation, teaching assessment, and group facilitation skills. Participants recommended that preparation programs develop student dispositions toward commitment to understanding one's self, developing positive interpersonal relationships, visibility in and collaboration with the school and community, and being culturally responsive.

The participants suggested that teaching strategies used by professors in principal preparation programs include modeling outstanding teaching, facilitating collaborative learning, case studies, and student research. The interviewees also suggested that classroom observations, activities that integrate theory and practice, practicing typical supervisory responsibilities in school settings, and shadowing principals as they carry-out instructional supervision be included in field experiences.

The participants promoted induction support for new principals. They recommended that this support should last from one to three years. There was a difference of opinion among participants concerning whether induction support be

provided by the university, the school district, or a university-district partnership. The types of induction support the participants suggested were university, online, and mentoring.

The responses on the question of whether principal preparation programs should be delivered face-to-face, entirely online, or in hybrid format drew mixed responses. Some participants stated they had no experience with online programs. The majority of the participants favored a hybrid over an online program. Their impression was that entirely online programs do not develop the people skills required of principals.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to examine the perceptions of expert professors, principals, and teacher leaders on how principal preparation programs can develop principals who are effective supervisors and instructional leaders. Research documents the positive outcomes effective supervision and instructional leadership has on instruction. (Bamburg & Andrews, 1990; Marzano, Waters, & Nulty, 2005; O'Donnell & White, 2005), as well as a correlation between effective supervision and student achievement (Bamburg & Andrews, 1990; Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Glickman, et al., 2010; Marzano, et al., 2005; Marzano, Frontier, & Livingston 2011; O'Donnell & White, 2005). There is, however, a gap in the literature as to what should be taught in principal preparation programs to develop effective supervisors and instructional leaders. Current literature accentuates trepidations about the quality of principal preparation programs that range from the admissions process to the program's ability to prepare aspiring principals with the specific knowledge and skills required of an instructional leader (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Myerson, 2005; Harris, 2008; Hess & Kelly, 2005; Mohn & Machell, 2005; Levine, 2005; Young, Petersen, & Short, 2002).

This study attempted to answer the following research questions:

1. What do professors, principals, and teacher leaders who are considered experts in supervision and instructional leadership believe aspiring principals should learn about supervision and instructional leadership in principal preparation programs?

2. What model or models for preparing principals as supervisors and instructional leaders emerge from data gathered in order to answer Research Question 1?

This study addresses the gaps in research on what aspiring principals should learn about supervision and instructional leadership and how they should learn it.

The methodology for this study was grounded theory, which allowed concepts and themes to emerge from the data. The interview method was used, with each interview following an interview guide that ensured consistency while also allowing me to ask for clarification or probe deeper if needed. An expert panel nominated potential interviewees, and a total of fifteen participants participated in the study—five professors, five principals, and five teacher leaders. I conducted face-to-face interviews, or Skype interviews if face-to-face were not possible, followed by a written member check for verification.

Qualitative data analysis was based on the interviewees' responses to the open-ended interview questions. Open coding, axial coding, and data displays on a series of matrices identified several themes within each of the several categories, including themes on the screening process for admission to the program, the supervisory tasks aspiring principals should learn about in their program, the knowledge and skills that should be developed in the program, the dispositions that programs should develop in aspiring

principals, the teaching strategies professors should use to develop effective instructional leaders, the types of field experiences that should be included in the program, induction support for beginning principals, and program delivery.

The interviewees believed the screening process for admittance to principal preparation programs should go beyond standard graduate admittance standards and suggested adding various components, including review of applicants leadership experiences, interviews, leadership exercises, and written exercises. The interviewees also proposed that students in principal preparation programs should learn about specific supervisory tasks, including professional development, attending to campus procedures, teacher evaluation, non-evaluative observation, curriculum development, and action research. They believed that the complexity of these supervisory tasks was not addressed in most principal preparation programs. According to the interviewees, particular knowledge, skills, and dispositions for instructional leadership should be taught in principal preparation programs. The recommended developing knowledge of school law, cultural diversity, special education processes, effective instruction, and instructional technology. Suggested skills included communication, observation, teaching assessment, and group facilitation skills. Desired dispositions were commitments to knowledge of self, positive interpersonal relationships, visibility and collaboration, and cultural responsiveness.

The interviewees favored from one to three years of induction support for program graduates who were new principals, but there was no consensus on whether the support should be provided by the university or the district. The interviewees had mixed viewpoints about the program delivery of principal preparation programs—face-to-face

vs. online. Overall, the majority favored a hybrid delivery model, with nearly all of the respondents opposed to a totally online format, arguing that "people skills" are a requirement of principals, and an online program could not effectively develop these skills.

Model I for Preparing Supervisors and Instructional Leaders,

Based on Participants' Responses

To answer Research Question 2, I have developed a model for the preparation of principals as effective supervisors and instructional leaders based on the participants' responses to interview questions. The model is presented in Figure 5. The participant's model depicts the instructional leadership dimension of principal preparation in three phases: Screening, Preparation, and Induction. The model reads from left to right beginning with the Screening Process for Admission.

The activities within the screening process are interview, review of leadership experience, written exercises, and leadership exercises. The next phase of the model is Preparation. This phase offers six interrelated components presented in a cyclical design. The six components include: tasks of supervision, knowledge, skills, dispositions, teaching and learning strategies, and field experiences. The participants' responses to Question 1 are represented across the three phases of the model.

The component "tasks of supervision" includes: professional development, campus procedures, teacher observation for non-evaluative assistance, summative teacher evaluation, curriculum development, and action research. The component of
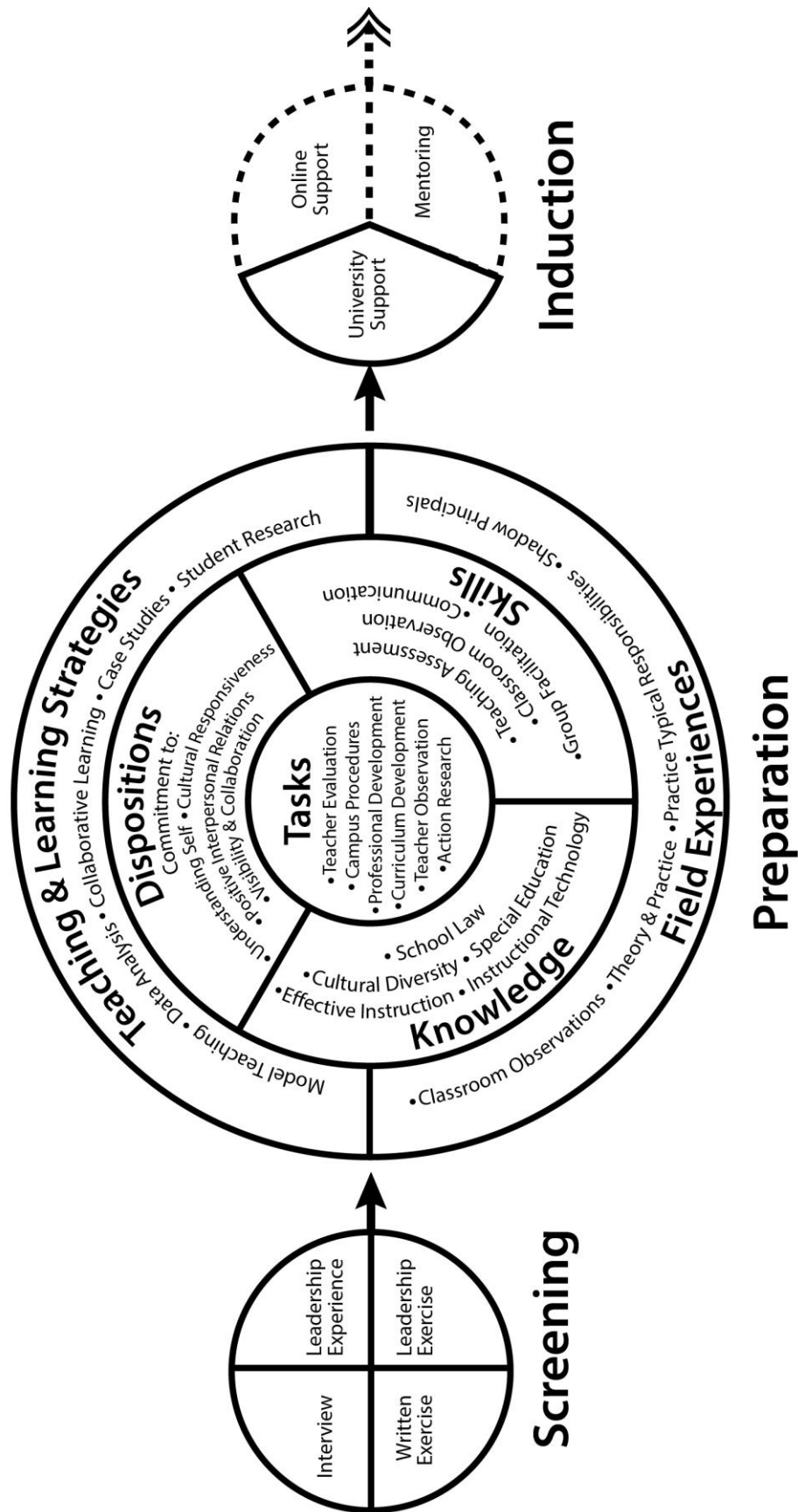
Figure 5   Model I: Participants' Model

"knowledge" consists of school law, cultural diversity, special education processes, effective instruction, and instructional technology. The component "skills" includes communication, classroom observation, and group facilitation skills. The "dispositions" component is comprised of commitment to understanding one's self, to developing positive interpersonal relationships, to visibility in and collaboration with the community served by the school, and to being culturally responsive. The make-up of the "teaching and learning strategies" component includes modeling outstanding teaching, data analysis, collaborative learning, use of case studies, and student research. The "field experiences" component contains classroom observations, activities that integrate theory and practice, practicing typical supervisory responsibilities in a school setting, and shadowing principals as they carry out instructional supervision. The last phase is "Induction." In the segment of the circle representing university support has solid borders and the other two types of support suggested by some participants, online support and mentoring, have dotted borders because, if these types of support were part of an induction program, according to the participants who recommended them, they should not be provided by the principal preparation program.

Analysis of Model I

The participants' believed that the screening process for admission to a principal preparation program should go beyond standard university admission requirements, in contrast to most preparation programs, in which entrance is determined by self-selection, with half-hearted screening and little outreach to talented individuals (Lashway, 2003). The participants' inclusion of interview, leadership experience, written exercises, and leadership exercises in the screening process is consistent with recommendations found

in the current literature (Creighton, & Jones, 2001; Norton, 2002; Skria, Erlandson, Reed & Wilson, 2001). While interviewing the participants and listening to their insights on the need to incorporate these screening tools, I reflected on my own principal preparation admission process. That admission screening process required a valid teaching certificate, three years of teaching experience, a minimum GPA of 2.75, a minimum GRE score of 1100 that was waived with at GPA of 3.0 or better, application, transcripts, three letters of reference, and a $25 application fee. It makes sense that the participants believed the screening process needs to be more selective.

There are specific tasks related to effective supervision and instructional leadership. The participants' stressed the importance of a campus leader's knowledge of the needs of a campus and providing professional development based on those needs. The literature supports the potential of well-conceived professional development for improving schools, teaching, and learning (Glickman, et al., 2010; Gordon & Nicely, 1998). With the demands of high stakes testing, changing demographics, and shrinking school budgets, selecting the most appropriate professional development to meet the needs of the campus falls on the shoulders of the instructional leader.

The participants suggested attending to campus procedures as a task of instructional leaders. Traditional campus procedures are not emphasized in the supervision literature. There were times during the interviews that the conversations drifted from supervision and instructional leadership to the management side of administration, which is understandable considering that many of the participants had taught in principal preparation programs, were principals, or held principal certification.

This "crossing over" into management responsibilities may be why general campus procedures were discussed by the participants.

The participants believed teacher observation for evaluation should be included as a task of supervision. Summative evaluations are used to measure or judge the quality of teaching. Ingersoll (2003) teacher observation for summative evaluation as

the periodic observation of individual teachers at work in the classroom.... an evaluator, almost always the school principal, typically spends several class periods each school year observing the teacher at work and grades him or her by using a standardized checklist of appropriate teacher practices.... Critics have long questioned the usefulness of formal classroom evaluation.... Numerous analysts of classroom evaluation have argued that many of the characteristics measured on classroom assessment checklists are trivial and superficial.... Like most such bureaucratic procedures, teacher evaluations become official documents, and hence, leave a 'paper trail' with a life of its own. (pp. 110-112)

Glickman, et al. (2010) state that teacher observation for summative evaluation is "an externally imposed, uniformly applied measure, intended to judge all teachers on similar criteria to determine their worthiness, merit, and competence as employees" (p. 238). Glickman, et al. argue that both formative and summative evaluation are necessary, but that there should be a clear distinction between their uses, with the former a supervisory process and the latter an administrative process.

Holland (2005) states there is a need for supervisors to carry out both formative and summative teacher evaluation, but suggests that the primary emphasis should be on formative evaluation. Holland goes on to say that "formative evaluation activities can

then serve as the basis for summative evaluations that provide evidence of teachers'

growth and development" (p. 147).

Stronge (1995) supports the total integration of formative and summative

evaluation, stating,

> Performance improvement and accountability purposes are not competing, but
>
> supportive interests – dual interests that are essential for improvement of
>
> educational service delivery. These two roles are inextricably intertwined in the
>
> total evaluation process. Moreover, a conceptual framework for evaluation should
>
> emphasize the dynamic relationship between individual and institution where the
>
> needs and interests of one fuse with and support the other. (p. 13)

The views on observation for formative and summative teacher evaluation, then,

can be viewed as a continuum, with authors like Glickman, et al. (2010) maintaining that

formative observation is supervision but summative evaluation is not; Holland arguing

for both types of observation to be considered supervision, with the primary emphasis on

formative evaluation; and Stronge arguing for the fusion of formative and summative

evaluation, including dual-purpose observations made as part of that unified evaluation

process.

The participants' inclusion of teacher observation for non-evaluative assistance,

on the other hand, is in complete agreement with the supervision literature (Costa &

Garmston, 1994; Glickman, et al., 2010; Pajak, 1993). Clinical supervision was indirectly

referenced in discussions of formative observation, but it would perhaps be better to

envelop non-evaluative observation within clinical supervision since the framework of

clinical supervision includes formative observation as part of a comprehensive clinical

cycle (Glickman, et al, 2009; Pajak, 1993; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Stotko, Pajak, Godsberry, 2005). The clinical cycle traditionally has served as the structure for supervisors to use formative observation data to assist teachers in non-evaluative, collegial supervision.

The participants believed curriculum development should be included as a task of supervision and instructional leadership. Instructional leaders must have a clear understanding of curriculum and curriculum development (Portelli, 1987) to determine whether curricular adjustments are needed (Glickman, et al., 2010; Kliebard, 1989; Portelli, 1987). A supervisor must understand how to assess, improve, and monitor curriculum in order to insure that the needs of students are being met (Stronge, Richard, & Catano, 2008, p. 3).

The participants' inclusion of action research as a task of supervision reflects a growing trend in the supervision literature (Glanz, 2005; Glickman, et al., 2010; Noland & Hoover, 2008; Zepeda, 2007). Action research can be a powerful tool for instructional leaders. The participants believed that principals who implement, foster, and participate in action research are sending a message to the campus that "everyone" is working together to improve student learning.

The participants expressed several beliefs about the types of knowledge required of supervision and instructional leadership. Knowledge of school law was included. The participants' references to school law were focused on the principal making decisions teacher evaluation, contract non-renewal, student discipline, and the legalities concerning special education. Most supervision scholars do not make the same connections between school law and instructional leadership as did the participants; typically, attention to

school law is considered a managerial responsibility (Sykes, 2000). The only author who

has written extensively on the intersection of school law and instructional supervision is

Hazi.

> Supervision is a practice that deals with classroom visitations, curriculum work,
>
> and staff development.... Classroom visitation is the most regulated aspect of
>
> supervisory practice nationwide. It is dominated by law from legislators, the
>
> courts, state boards of education, and local school boards. Curriculum work is less
>
> regulated nationwide by law than classroom visitation, but is dominated more by
>
> key actors in the policy arena. Staff development is the least regulated of the
>
> three, but is becoming an important tool in policy-making to improve teacher
>
> quality. (Hazi, 1998, p. 968)

When I consider the participants' responses, the conclusion I draw is that they were either

referring to school law as it affects supervision or, as in their discussion of campus

procedures, they understandably strayed into school management.

The participant's also believed knowledge of cultural diversity should be

addressed in the preparation of instructional supervisors. They believed that the

supervisor must have an understanding of cultural diversity and support teachers' growth

in this area. Effective instructional leadership, as discussed in the modern supervision

literature, includes knowledge of cultural diversity and culturally responsiveness

(Garmston, Lipton, & Kaiser, 1998; Glickman, et al., 2010). Hargreaves and Fullan

(1998) point out that the diverse populations in today's schools require greater flexibility

in teaching: "Properly accommodating diversities in culture, language and learning styles

means fundamentally rethinking the very core of what we teach and how we teach it" (p.

8). Glickman, et al. (2010) state, "Culturally responsive teachers are the heart and soul of a culturally responsive schools, but the school as a community also has a vital role to play in addressing diversity" (p. 447).

The participants' inclusion of knowledge of special education processes in the preparation of instructional leaders has some support in the literature. For example, according to Frost and Kersten (2011),

> Research indicates that although principals are not necessarily prepared to be the instructional leader to special education teachers, in the wake of legislation and school reform, it is critical that they assume this responsibility to ensure program effectiveness and student achievement. (para. 23)

Although few supervision textbooks devote extensive discussion to special education, the participants' argument that instructional leaders need special education knowledge is relevant, especially since research indicates that principals receive little training in assuming the role of instructional leader for special education (Billingsley, 2005; DiPaola & Walther-Thomas, 2003).

The participants believed knowledge of effective instruction should be included as an element of instructional leadership. In a U. S. Policy Brief (1999) reporting on the results of a summit held by the United States Department of Education, participants reported that principals who are instructional leaders dedicate

> the bulk of their time, energy, and talents to improving the quality of teaching and learning. [Instructional leaders] have a deep understanding of teaching and learning, including new teaching methods that emphasize problem solving and student construction of knowledge. Good instructional leaders have a strong

commitment to success for all students, and are especially committed to

improving instruction for groups of students who are not learning now. (para. 2)

Included in the responses was knowledge of instructional technology, a topic

that is becoming increasingly critical because of the continuous advances in technology

in general and educational technology in particular. The effective instructional leader

must be able to preview, provide, facilitate the use of, and assess the effectiveness of

technology for teaching and learning (Creighton, 2003). Bottoms and O'Neill (2001)

argue,

> Future school leaders must use the computer and the Internet to enhance their
>
> own learning. Beyond that, they need to understand how technology can engage
>
> students in learning, what a classroom looks like when technology has been
>
> successfully integrated into instruction, and how to support teachers in learning
>
> how to use technology to advance student achievement. (p. 10)

Current literature promotes the supervisor possessing basic knowledge of instructional

technology knowledge, however, there is no indication that the principal must have an

extremely high level of expertise (be a full-fledged "techie").

The participants' included skills needed for effective supervision—

communication, classroom observation, teaching assessment, and group facilitation

skills—which are reoccurring topics in the supervision literature. Several authors have

examined supervisory communication skills and found that supervisors were eager to

improve their communication skills (Bamburg & Andrews, 1990; Blasé & Blasé, 2004;

Glickman, et al., 2010; Pajak, 1993). Classroom observation skills for effective

supervision are almost universally discussed in literature (Beach & Reinhartz, 1989;

Cogan, 1973; Glickman, et al., 2010; Noland & Francis, 1992; Pajak, 1993; Pajak, 2003).

Teaching assessment skills also are considered necessary for effective supervision and

instructional leadership in the literature (Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Glickman, et al., 2011;

Sergiovanni, 2009). Facilitating and building harmony in groups is a hallmark of

successful leadership (Zepeda, 2007). Bottoms and O'Neill (2001) state, "Part of the

process of being an effective school leader is understanding how to organize, lead and

facilitate experiences that result in consensus among the faculty, parents and community

leaders" (pp. 13-14).

There were only minor participant references to needs assessment skills, and no

mention in the interviews of program evaluation skills. It seems that if supervision is to

go beyond classroom based instructional assistance to school wide instructional

improvement, needs assessment and program evaluation skills are essential. A great deal

of the supervision literature is dedicated to assessing campus needs (Blasé & Blasé, 2004;

Glickman, et al., 2010). Program evaluation skills are also included in the supervision

literature (Glickman, et al., 2010; Noland, 2005). Why did the participants not identify

needs assessment and program evaluation skills as needed skills for instructional

leadership? The participants did call for curriculum development as a task of supervision,

and it may be that they considered needs assessment and program evaluation to be

components of curriculum development. However, needs assessment and program

evaluation are not generally treated as components of curriculum development in the

supervision literature, but rather as skills that can be used for a variety of purposes,

including, but also beyond, curriculum development (Glickman, et al., 2010; Gordon,

1992; Kliebard, 2004).

Numerous dispositions are required for effective supervision, and the participants included many found in current literature—commitment to understanding one's self (Daresh, 2002, Glickman, et al., 2010; Waite, 1998), commitment to developing positive interpersonal relationships (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1998; Ramsey, 2005; Zepeda, 2005), commitment to visibility in and collaboration with the community served by the school (Zepeda, 2005), and commitment to being culturally responsive (Ladany & Inman, 2011).

> Daresh (2002) supports a commitment to understanding one's self, stating, "Knowing oneself" is viewed as an even more critical responsibility than knowing how to do the job or fitting in. Self-awareness is built in large measure on your ability to analyze your own personal beliefs and values as components of a clear philosophy of education. (p. 19)

When I asked the participants about the dispositions needed of effective supervisors, there was a strong recommendation that the campus leader must understand how they identify themselves, or as Glickman, et al. (2010) say, "Know thyself" (p. 111) before they can effectively be the school leader. Effective principals must understand and articulate their leadership style (Gill, Linn, & Sherman, 2012), so it is reasonable that the participants' believed university preparation programs should develop students' self-identity. Garmston, Lipton, & Kaiser (1998) state,

> To support a person in expanding his or her sense of personal identity may be one of the most potent interventions of supervision. The metaphors educators use to describe their work may disclose much about their implicit beliefs about learning and teaching, their conceptions of the content disciplines, and their perceptions of their professional role. (p. 274)

There are several reliable inventories university preparation programs could use to help predict a supervisor's personality which influences their leadership style, such as Myers-Briggs (Myers, McCaulley, & Most, 1985), Life-Styles Inventory (Cooke & Rousseau, 1983), and Kolb's Learning Style Inventory (Kolb, 1976). The significance of a personality inventory is to help the aspiring principal in assessing their strengths and weaknesses in order to be a more effective instructional leader.

A commitment to developing positive interpersonal relationships was included by the participants as a necessary disposition of supervision. The participants' argued that principals must be able to build relationships with and among all stakeholders to promote collegiality and collaboration for campus improvement. Building relationships and appreciating others are central to a positive school culture (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1998; Ramsey, 2005; Zepeda, 2005). Tanner-Smith and Kosanovich (2008) state, "A supportive environment stimulates good interpersonal relationships, fostering a continuous desire to implement change for improved student outcomes. Instructional leadership teams also build collegiality and positive relationships among coworkers based on a shared vision, common goals, and open communication" (p. 79). The time and energy needed of an instructional leader for building interpersonal relationships requires a strong commitment to developing this disposition.

The participants' belief that effective instructional leaders should have a commitment to visibility in and collaboration with the community served by the school is in agreement with the supervision literature. Zepeda (2005) states that healthy school cultures have principals who "are visible to all stakeholders" (p. 19). As a new school administrator, some of the first suggestions I received from my principal was to join the

Kiwanis, attend all school board meetings, and attend sporting events. According to

Bottoms and O'Neill (2001) effective supervisors' are cognizant about their visibility,

and

> the process of being an effective school leader is understanding how to organize,
>
> lead and facilitate experiences that result in consensus among the faculty, parents
>
> and community leaders.... [They] understand how to develop key "champions" for
>
> their improvement agenda. They can do this by continuously sharing with parents
>
> and community leaders' meaningful information about: the current state of
>
> student achievement and of school and classroom practices; what the school is
>
> doing to improve; how parents and the community can help; and the progress
>
> being made. [Effective supervisors learn] how to use key central office staff and
>
> community and parent leaders as friendly critics and advisers in developing and
>
> carrying out an improvement agenda can provide leaders with key spokespersons
>
> in the larger community. (pp. 13-17)

According to both the participants and current literature, principals must have a

commitment to being culturally responsive. Ladany and Inman (2011) found that

"Supervisors who were culturally responsive tended to create a safe space" (p. 190).

When I think of all the children I have had in my classroom as a teacher or on my campus

an assistant principal, it makes sense that the participants would include cultural

responsiveness. My own grandfather, a Cherokee Indian, dropped out of school at an

early age because he was belittled and ridiculed by teachers and classmates. I know the

stories, but thankfully, I have never had that experience. I know I have been shaped by

the stories, and I have little tolerance for social injustice. As an assistant principal, I addressed the importance of creating a safe environment for teaching and learning.

The participants' responses on the types of teaching and learning strategies that professors of principal preparation should use reflect the literature on this topic. They included modeling outstanding teaching, data analysis, collaborative learning, use of case studies, student research, and action research. Regarding the modeling of outstanding teaching Badiali (1998) states, "Good teaching is second only to good parenting in complexity. It cannot be reduced to a formula. Teacher supervision carries with it a special responsibility since the potential impact of preparing educational leaders is profound" (p. 964). Since instructional leaders must know what good teaching looks like, it stands to reason that professors of preparatory programs should model the pedagogy that supervisors should look for in teachers.

The participants' believed that principals' must know how to use data to monitor student progress and guide professional decisions for school improvement—to see what is working or needs improvement. According to Darling-Hammond, et al. (2007), exemplary professors of principal preparation programs include data analysis as a teaching strategy. According to Bottoms and O'Neill (2001),

> Future leaders need to understand how to use data as a discussion tool for reshaping the attitudes of teachers, parents and students about changing course offerings and instructional strategies. Principals in schools that have made significant improvement in student achievement did not hide bad news but used data as a tool to get people to take ownership of the problems and to do something about them. (p. 11)

The participants' believed professors should include collaborative learning as a teaching strategy. The interviewees felt that collaboration among graduate students could serve as a precursor to developing collaborative learning communities when aspiring principals become instructional leaders. The experience of participating in collaborative learning for a common purpose fosters stimulating conversations (Smith, 2010). Zepeda's (2005) six standards of collegiality and collaboration describe the effectiveness of collaborative learning:

> Successful supervision creates and sustains a learning community that supports teachers as both learners and leaders.... reduces isolation by encouraging teachers and other school personnel to collaborate by engaging in critical discussions about instructional practices that transcend individual classrooms.... promotes a culture of cooperative work and risk taking among teachers.... promotes a "can do" attitude and a safety net as teachers face uncertainties associated with high-stakes learning and work environments.... pays attention to affective domains, including developing professional relationships, promoting openness to individual and collective improvement, and caring for teachers by nurturing relational trust, respect, personal regard, and integrity.... [and] provides momentum for the development of differentiated forms of supervision. (pp. 66-70)

Using collaborative learning within the coursework of principal preparation serves as a guide for aspiring principals to promote teacher collaboration on their campus.

The use of case studies was also believed to be an important teaching strategy that professors of principal preparation should use. The participants' believed that case studies

allowed students to explore situations that might occur on the future principal's campus. The case study, sometimes referred to as case inquiry,

> facilitates dialogue and assists educators in identifying and understanding the reasons for their ethical choices. Case inquiry invites educational leaders to identify dimensions associated with their ethical thinking and action within a community of colleagues. Collective professional dialogue and critique support the development of shared understandings regarding effective leadership. (Smith, 2010, p. 2)

The participants' proposed that student research should be used in principal preparation. Morgan (2001) agrees with the interviewees' rationale that learning how to use research enables the student to ask and answer questions, to become more knowledgeable, make decisions, or understand the unknown. The importance of student research is well grounded in the literature on supervisor preparation (Blasé & Blasé, 2000; Hess & Kelly, 2007; Moran, 2001). According to Hess and Kelly (2007), "Effective principal preparation ought to include considerable attention to ... utilizing research" (p. 3).

The participants included action research as a learning strategy used by professors of preparatory programs. According to Bottoms & O'Neill (2001),

> The literature is clear on this matter. Collecting, understanding and using a wide variety of data are crucial leadership skills in these times of accountability. Successful school leaders must be adept at leading their faculty in action research and using technology to analyze data. (p. 11)

Glanz (2005) argues, "Action research has gradually emerged as an important form of instructional supervision to engage teachers in reflective practice about their teaching and as a means to examine factors that aim to promote student achievement" (p. 195).

Fostering student reflection was not included in the participants' recommendation for teaching-learning strategies. However, a study by Darling-Hammond, et al. (2007) found that student reflection was a common component of exemplary preparation programs. Badiali argues that professors of supervision should make every effort to foster student reflection (Badiali, 1998; Lauder, 2000). Since data analysis, collaborative learning, use of case studies, student research, and action research all require analysis and reflection, the participants may have not discussed reflection specifically because they presumed it was embedded within each of the aforementioned activities.

The participants' believed that field experiences in supervision and instructional leadership should be assigned throughout the principal preparation program, a belief echoed by Bottoms , O'Neill, and Fry (2003):

> If aspiring principals are to develop the skills to do the real work of instructional leadership, they need many opportunities to engage in that work under the supervision of expert mentors. Field-based practice needs to be incorporated throughout a leadership preparation program. (p. 16)

The types of field experiences the participants' believed should be included in principal preparation were classroom observations, activities that integrate theory and practice, and practicing typical supervisory responsibilities in a school setting, and shadowing principals as they carry out instructional supervision.

The benefits of classroom observation for non-evaluative assistance are well documented in literature (Glickman, et al, 2009; Pajak, 1993; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2002; Stotko, Pajak, Godsberry, 2005). However, as previously stated, it would perhaps be best if principal preparation programs developed classroom observation skills within the clinical supervision process. Students should have ample opportunities to practice classroom observation throughout their coursework and during their field experiences, optimally as part of the clinical supervision cycle.

The participants' believed field experiences should include activities that integrate theory and practice. A study of principal preparation programs by Darling-Hammond, et al. (2007) found that exemplary programs "provided cohesive content that integrated theory and practice and having had, on average, better quality internship experiences" (p. 73). As a former student in a principal preparation program, I understand the values of integrating theory and practice—all too often classes are taught in isolation without making connections or having opportunities for practice. My own principal preparation experience did not provide field experiences during my regular coursework, and my preparation program ended with one semester of internship with a list of activities to check off in order to receive credit.

The practice of typical supervisory responsibilities in a school setting was included by the participants' as an important field experience. Fry, Bottoms, and O'Neill (2005) stated that the quality of university preparation programs can be determined if the program's field experiences provide:

- An explicit set of school-based assignments designed to provide opportunities for the application of knowledge, skills and ways of thinking that are required to

effectively perform the core responsibilities of a school leader, as identified in

state standards and research, and incorporated in the preparation program's

design.

- A developmental continuum of practice that progresses from observing to

participating in and then to leading school-based activities related to the core

responsibilities of school leaders, with analysis, synthesis and evaluation of real-

life problems at each level. (p. 7)

It is only logical that aspiring principals have field experiences that offer opportunities to

practice the typical responsibilities required of supervision and instructional leadership.

However, in these field experiences the focus must be on instructional leadership

responsibilities and rather than managerial duties.

The participants argued that students in principal preparation programs should

shadow principals as they carry out instructional supervision. They believed that the

opportunity to observe instructional leadership in practice would be an excellent learning

experience. Fry, et al. (2005) concur with the participants, stating, "Field experiences

may include opportunities to 'shadow' principals as they go about their daily work" (p.

16). However, they go point out that "high-quality field-based learning also includes a

great deal of hands-on involvement" (p. 16), which corresponds with the types of field

experiences the participants recommended.

Missing from the field experiences recommended by the participants but

suggested in the literature were leading professional development activities (Gordon,

2005), participating in curriculum development (Badiali, 2005), leading a study group or

professional learning community (Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Gordon, 2008), and participating

in a program evaluation (Glickman, et al., 2010; Noland, 2005). I can only surmise that the participants believed these elements were encompassed in activities that integrate theory and practice or in practicing typical supervisory responsibilities in a school setting.

The participants' were in agreement with current literature that first year principals should have induction support (Daresh, 2004). Yirci and Kocabas (2010) state, "For many new school principals, the first years are the most stressful period of their careers. They may feel themselves isolated, lonely, desperate, and sometimes, unsuccessful about school management" (p.6). Induction support provides first year principals with mentoring support that provides collaboration with experienced administrators and decreases isolation (Daresh, 2001). My own belief is that a partnership between the university and the school district would provide the best type of induction support. The participants, however, were split on whether induction support should be provided by the university, the school district, or a school-university partnership.

Model II: The Researcher's Model, Based on the Integration of Participants' Perceptions and Extant Literature

Analysis of the participants' model as well as the literature on supervision and instructional leadership led me to the development of Model II, which is presented in Figure 6. Model II, like Model I, includes screening, preparation, and induction phases. However, there are changes in the preparation and induction components in the second model that are discussed in this section.

The literature on educational leadership describes carrying out campus procedures as a managerial responsibility (Dunham, 1995; Glatthorn, 1998; Killian & Post, 1998; Sergiovanni, 2009), or a task of educational administration (Smyth, 1989), rather than a
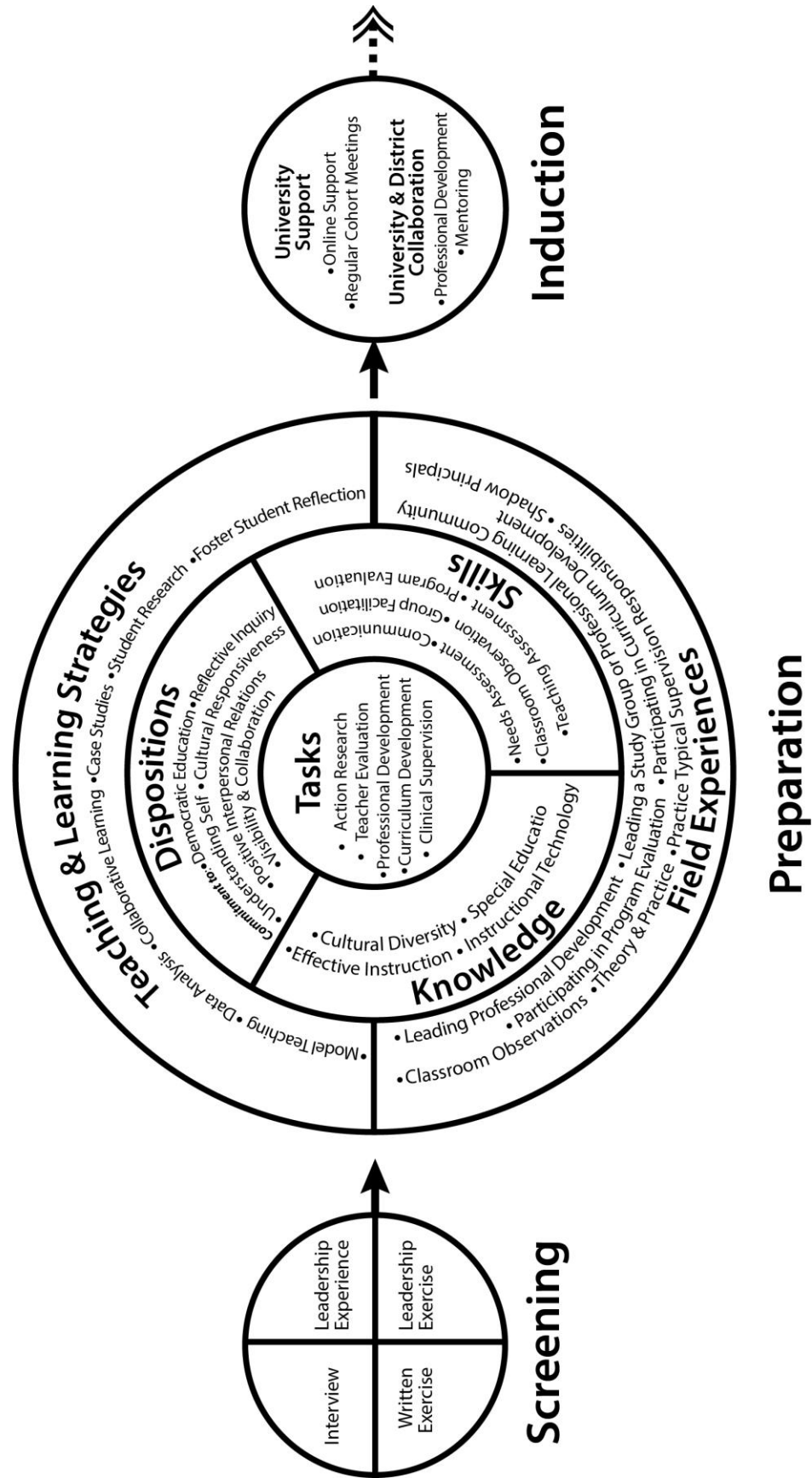
Figure 6 Model II: Researcher's Model Based on the Integration of Participants' Perceptions and Extant Literature

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task of supervision and instructional leadership. Therefore, I exclude it from the "tasks" in Model II. I replace teacher observation with clinical supervision as a task in Model II. Clinical supervision includes observation as part of a comprehensive model for direct, classroom-based instructional assistance (Blasé & Blasé, 2004; Cogan, 1973; Glickman, et al, 2014; Goldhammer, Anderson, & Krajewski, 1993; Pajak, 1993; Pollock & Ford, 2009) which is a hallmark of supervision and instructional leadership.

I also exclude knowledge of school law from Model II because I believe, and the literature suggests, it also is considered a task of school management rather than instructional leadership (Neville & Garman, 1998). I believe that knowledge of special education should remain in Model II. However, the focus for instructional leaders should be knowledge that facilitates effective instruction for students with special needs.

I believe that aspiring principals should learn about needs assessment in their principal preparation program. The literature supports the utilization of needs assessment skills by instructional leaders to identify key instructional needs (Glickman, et al., 2014; Kaufman & English, 1979). I also include program evaluation skills in Model II as a necessary skill set for instructional leaders. There is an "art" to evaluating the curricular and instructional effectiveness of "all programs related to teaching and learning" (Glickman, et al., 2014, p. 223).

The participants did not include a commitment to democratic education as a necessary disposition of effective supervisors and instructional leaders. The supervision literature, however, considers a commitment to democratic education as essential (Arredondo-Rucinski, 2005; Darling-Hammond, 1996; Davis, 2002; Glickman, et al., 2010; Glickman & Kanawati, 1998). According to Davis (2002),

> Democratic education, ...or our quest to foster it, seems essential to the goal of changing the conditions that create inequities and providing individuals with the means to develop their senses of selves that can ultimately allow them to experience true freedom. (p. 8)

It seems appropriate that fostering the "overall well-being, growth, and development of all students ... [and] all members of the school community" (Glickman, et al., 2002, p. 343) within the framework of a democratic education would be included as a disposition of effective supervision and instructional leadership.

Commitment to reflective inquiry was not included as a disposition to be developed by supervisors and instructional leaders. However, Blasé & Blasé (2004) state,

> The task of helping teachers learn to describe and understand their thinking, to think more critically and abstractly, rests in part with principals. An integration of knowledge and deep thought provokes better choices, better decision making, and an expanded knowledge base. (p. 101-102)

Effective supervision and instructional leadership promotes and facilitates reflective practice. Arredondo-Rucinski (2005) states, "Reflective practitioners habitually have mental conversations with themselves. When groups agree to reflect together in learning communities, they participate in reflective conversations with their colleagues" (p. 85). These personal or group conversations encourage making better decisions for the improvement of teaching (Arredondo-Rucinski, 2005; Sergiovanni, 2001). It seems reasonable that reflective inquiry be included as a disposition of effective supervisors and instructional leaders. The participants may not have specifically identified reflective inquiry because they considered it to be part of one or more of the tasks or skills of

supervision, but did not consider commitment to reflective inquiry as a disposition separate from those tasks and skills.

I include leadership of professional development as a field experience in Model II. Moran (2001) states, "Professional development is largely a matter of learning and/or creating" (p. 2). However, understanding just what process will be used for such learning and creating requires knowledge of specific campus needs. Professional development is an essential component for school improvement, and the principal preparation program should prepare the instructional leader through field-based practice in providing effective professional development (Zepeda, 2011). According to the National Association of Elementary School Principals (2008),

> Effective principals create conditions and structures for learning that enable
> continuous improvement of performance not only for children, but for adults in
> the school community as well. They provide opportunities for staff to participate
> in learning communities inside and outside of schools. Effective principals know
> that such learning groups are necessary to further instructional practices and to
> develop innovative and effective approaches to education. (p. 2)

I also include leading a study group or professional learning community within the field experiences of Model II. Learning communities

> are collections of people who come together because they share common
> commitments, ideas, and values.... where students and other members of the
> school community are committed to thinking, growing, and inquiring, and where
> learning is an attitude as well as an activity, a way of live as well as a process.
> (Sergiovanni, 2009, p. 107)

I believe leading study groups or professional learning communities would be a rich experience for aspiring principals.

Program evaluation is another field experience I include in Model II. Sergiovanni and Starratt (1993) argue that the "supervisory process, whether exercised by a superintendent, a district supervisor, a principal, or a department chairperson inescapably involves program evaluation" (p. 164). Once again I am reminded that my first field-based experience with program evaluation was during my doctoral coursework rather than my principal preparation. Principal preparation programs should include the hands-on experience of program evaluation to address specific concerns associated with student learning. Aspiring principals need experience in identifying

> specific goals, objectives, questions and evaluations standards that will guide program evaluation efforts by involving key stakeholders in the evaluation effort.... [Collecting] a wide variety of data types that are matched to the goals and purpose of program evaluation efforts.... [Ensuring] data-gathering procedures result in valid and reliable types of information that are useful in addressing the goals and objectives of the program evaluation process.... Carefully [describing] the perspectives, procedures, and rationale used to interpret findings of program evaluation efforts to make the basis for value judgments clear.... [Ensuring] the program evaluation report is fair and complete in addressing both strengths and weaknesses of the program, to build upon strengths and improve weaknesses.... [and ensuring] that program evaluations are both formative and summative, enabling ongoing adjustments to programs, leading to a summative determination of program effectiveness. (Nolan, 2005, p. 205)

Participating in curriculum development is another field-based activity that preparation programs should provide. Instructional leaders must have a clear understanding of the curriculum development process. This experience should help aspiring principals align the curriculum with campus needs, as well as to

> exercise good judgment.... be well informed about the mechanics...complexities of curriculum development.... the political nature of curriculum...the culture and values of their communities and how those values intersect with the demands and expectation of educational policy writ large.... [As well as] understand their own values and biases with regard to the knowledge they believe to be most worth. (Badiali, 2005, p. 174)

I have changed the field experience of "practicing typical responsibilities" in Model I to practicing practice typical *supervision* responsibilities, which is more specific to supervision and instructional leadership. Of course, faculty would monitor and provide feedback to students. The changes I believe should be included in the induction component of Model II increase the responsibility of the university preparation program. So many times during my first year as an assistant principal, I felt lost. New principals need a strong support system (Daresh, 2001; Davis, et al., 2005). I believe that the university should provide induction support in the form of both online support and regular cohort meetings. New principals need to know there is a safe environment or support system they can go to for guidance or questions that they may not feel comfortable asking their district supervisors through online support. I also believe that the university should provide regular cohort meetings for new principals. Cohort meetings would allow new principals to have discussions with others who may be

experiencing similar experiences. The literature supports new principals receiving

continued professional development and mentoring (Daresh, 2001; Davis, et al., 2005). I

include in Model II collaboration between the university and school district in providing

both professional development and mentors for new principals.

As a supplement to Model II, I propose the following coursework to support the

aspiring principal's development as an effective supervisor and instructional leader.

Proposed coursework includes: Introduction to Supervision and Instructional Leadership

(Castles-Bentley, Fillion, Allen, Ross, & Gordon, 2005), Clinical Supervision

(Goldhammer, Anderson, & Krajewski, 1993; Pollock & Ford, 2009), Professional

Development (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2014; Gordon, 2005), Curriculum

Development (Badiali, 2005), Action Research (Glanz, 2005), as well as some

supervision and instructional leadership content that is embedded in other courses.

I believe an Introduction to Supervision and Instructional Leadership Course

should be included in principal preparation. There is much discussion in literature about

supervision and instructional leadership, but in my own principal preparation experience,

I never knew what instructional leadership was until I began my doctoral studies on

School Improvement. The purpose of this course is to provide students with the basic

knowledge and understanding required of supervision and instructional leadership. The

proposed topics for this course are:

- Knowledge for Supervision and Instructional Leadership

    o Effective Teaching

    o Effective Student Assessment

    o Adult Learning and Development

- o Effective Schools and School Improvement Research

- Supervision and Instructional Leadership Skills

  - o Needs Assessment Skills

  - o Planning Skills

  - o Research Skills

  - o Group Leadership Skills

  - o Change Facilitation Skills

  - o Supervision Beliefs/Platform

- Models of Supervision

  - o Developmental Supervision

  - o Differentiated Supervision

  - o Democratic Supervision

  - o Clinical Supervision

  - o Human Resources Supervision

Clinical Supervision (Cogan, 1973; Garmston, Lipton, & Kaiser, 1998; Glatthorn, 1984; Glickman, 1990; Goldhammer, Anderson, & Krajewski, 1993; Pajak, 2003) is another course that I suggest for principal preparation. This course would provide the much needed framework of the clinical supervision cycle for aspiring principals to develop the skills required for using teacher observation to improve instruction. The topics in this course are:

- Principles of Clinical Supervision

- Phases of the Clinical Supervision Cycle

- Conference Skills

- Observation Skills

- Goal Setting

- Peer Coaching

- Practicing Clinical Supervision

I also believe a course on Professional Development should be taught in principal preparation programs. This course would emphasize the knowledge and ability for instructional leaders to implement professional development on the campus level. The topics in this course are:

- Identifying the Professional Development Needs of the Campus

- Planning for Professional Development

- Facilitating Job-Embedded Professional Development

- Developing Collaborative Learning Communities

- Providing Support for Implementation of Professional Development

- Evaluating the Effectiveness of Professional Development

- Practice in Leading Professional Development Activities

The topics in the curriculum development course are:

- Curriculum Philosophy

- Curriculum Needs Assessment

- Interdisciplinary Curriculum

- Multicultural Curriculum

- Curriculum Scope and Sequence

- Writing Course Descriptions

- Designing Units of Instruction

- Implementing the Curriculum

- Evaluating the Curriculum

Action research should be included in the coursework of principal preparation programs. Effective supervisors and instructional leaders promote the use of action research with a specific group for the purpose of setting intentional goals for instructional improvement (McKay, 1992). Students taking this course will understand that effective supervision and instructional leadership employs action research to identify areas of instruction that are in need of improvement, as well as the power of using action research to facilitate reflective practice to improve instruction. The following topics are addressed in this course:

- Levels of Action Research

    o Individual

    o Team

    o Schoolwide

- The Steps of Action Research

    o Identify the Focus Area

    o Gather Data

    o Develop an Action Plan

    o Implement the Action Plan

    o Gather Assessment Data

    o Revise the Action Plan

Additionally, there are some primarily administrative courses that should include limited content in supervision and instructional leadership. These include special

education, the principalship, school law, and school-community relations. Finally, the

principal internship should include not only practice in traditional administrative

responsibilities but also opportunities to practice the knowledge and skills, continue to

develop the dispositions, and carry out the tasks of effective supervision and instructional

leadership.

Recommendations

In this section I make recommendations for the preparation of principals as

supervisors and instructional leaders. I also provide recommendations for future research.

Recommendations for University Principal Preparation Programs

Having a clear understanding of preparing principals to be effective supervisors

and instructional leaders is much like understanding a school's mission statement—all

stakeholders need to have a clear idea of the program's purpose and goals. I recommend

that faculty in principal preparation programs examine Model I and Model II as described

in this chapter and compare the components of those models to those in their program.

Using Model I and Model II as resources, the faculty should develop their own model of

the screening, knowledge, skills, dispositions, tasks, teaching and learning strategies,

field experiences, and internship activities that they feel should be incorporated in their

program. After coming to a consensus on what screening process, supervision and

instructional leadership content, teaching and learning strategies, and induction support

should be included in the program, the faculty can revise the program accordingly.

I remember taking my first classes in my doctoral program and learning for the

first time about instructional leadership. I identified with this subfield of educational

leadership and its philosophy, however, I had not heard of it before. If we want principals

to be effective supervisors and instructional leaders, the professors teaching the relevant courses must have specific knowledge in this area. I recommend that principal preparation programs determine the qualifications necessary for professors who are hired to prepare students to be supervisors and instructional leaders by examining both their graduate coursework and experience as practitioners.

The teacher education programs in Texas are required by the state to have an advisory committee that is made up of practitioners such as principals, superintendents, and teachers. I propose that principal preparation programs develop a similar advisory committee. The advisory committee would include both central office and school administrators who understand the importance of supervision and instructional leadership, as well as faculty members who are known for their expertise in supervision and instructional leadership. The charge of the advisory committee would be to have regular meetings with the faculty throughout the year to evaluate the screening process, structure, and curriculum of the program, and to make recommendations for improvement. I further suggest that professors of educational leadership have regular conversations about the curriculum and how it relates to current literature, for the purpose of including up-to-date content on supervision and instructional leadership throughout the coursework.

I have never taught a class or coordinated a program without some sort of assessment to determine its effectiveness. I propose that professors of principal preparation programs survey their soon-to-be-graduates and periodically survey graduates of the program to find out if they perceive they were adequately prepared in the important area of supervision and instructional leadership. These assessments will help professors

understand the strengths of their program as well as determine areas of concern. The data from the surveys will help faculty determine modifications that might be needed in their program.

Recommendations for Future Research

Throughout this study, I realized that there is a dearth of research and a need for future research on university preparation of principals to be effective supervisors and instructional leaders. Research in the following areas may help fill the research gap, as well as improve principal preparation:

- A study on the perceptions of new principals (including assistant principals) on the effectiveness of their principal preparation program in preparing them as effective supervisors and instructional leaders.

- A study on university principal preparation programs around the country to determine whether those programs include content that reflects the models for preparing instructional leaders in this chapter.

- A study that includes entrance and exit interviews of aspiring principals about what they know about supervision and instructional leadership.

- A study using surveys and/or interviews of principals considered to be outstanding supervisors and instructional leaders to determine the extent to which their principal preparation program, as well as other factors, contribute to their performance as a practitioner.

- A study utilizing a survey and/or interviews to determine the value principals place on supervision and instructional leadership, their perceptions of their capacity to provide quality supervision and instructional leadership, and the extent

to which they perceive their principal preparation program contributed to their capacity to provide quality supervision and instructional leadership.

Closing Thoughts

As I conclude this study, I am constantly reminded of three things. The first is *what I know as an educator*—every child deserves the best education possible, and the best education does not begin with the teacher. It begins with instructional leadership that focuses on "instruction; building a community of learners; sharing decision making; sustaining the basics; leveraging time; supporting on-going professional development for all staff members; redirecting resources to support a multifaceted school plan; and creating a climate of integrity, inquiry, and continuous improvement" (Brewer, 2001, p.30). Instructional leadership is not the "word of the day". Instructional leadership is grounded in research that substantiates its effectiveness, but effective instructional leadership is also a conviction. When I was a child, my father told me to never ask someone to do something that you would not do yourself, and that is what I believe is the essence of effective supervision and instructional leadership—the "authentic" willingness of the principal to do whatever it takes to create a positive climate for learning. Instructional leaders "walk the walk".

I am also reminded of *what I know as a former assistant principal*—that principals wear many hats and negotiating a balance between instructional leadership and managerial responsibilities is daunting. Although I now identify myself as being an instructional leader—I never had a clear definition of what instructional leadership was until I began my doctoral coursework. I had previously considered my passion to be the teaching of reading; however, as I began this journey, I realized my passion is

instructional leadership. When I modelled effective reading techniques or intervention strategies for teachers, it was instructional leadership. When I provided professional development for writing, it was instructional leadership. When I set an example of carrying myself as a professional, it was instructional leadership—it was my conviction to be the best assistant principal I could be, and to follow the counsel of my father—to lead by example. With that said, I also know that knowledge and understanding of effective supervision and instructional leadership must begin with university principal preparation programs. An isolated course on supervision is not adequate. Principal preparation program faculty must look at their coursework, and determine whether they are preparing aspiring principals to be effective supervisors and instructional leaders. If the answer is no, the faculty should redesign their program.

Finally, I am reminded of *what is known about instructional leadership and university principal preparation programs*. Instructional leadership works. Research supports the value of effective instructional leadership. However, my principal preparation program experience and the participants in this study indicate that, in order to produce the effective instructional leaders, university principal preparation programs must:

- go beyond typical university admission standards for the students admitted to the program,
- include specific tasks, knowledge, skills, dispositions, teaching and learning strategies, and field experiences in the preparation of aspiring principals,
- provide induction support of new principals, preferably in collaboration with school districts that have hired programs graduates.

I am convinced that university preparation programs can prepare aspiring principals to be instructional leaders if the faculty of such programs makes use of and expands the research base on preparing effective supervisors and instructional leaders. I submit this study as a contribution to the emerging research in this area.

APPENDIX A

SUPERVISOR ASSESSMENT

Directions for Completing: Place in the space before each item (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

_____1. The supervisor displays communication skills.

_____2. The supervisor displays needs assessment skills.

_____3. The supervisor displays planning skills.

_____4. The supervisor displays group facilitation skills.

_____5. The supervisor displays problem-solving skills.

_____6. The supervisor displays change agency skills.

_____7.   The supervisor displays observation skills.

_____8.   The supervisor displays conflict resolution skills.

Section C: Individual Assistance

_____1.   The supervisor effectively observes teaching and provides helpful feedback.

_____2.   The supervisor provides useful instructional resources.

_____3.   The supervisor fosters teacher reflection.

_____4.   The supervisor demonstrates effective teaching.

_____5.   The supervisor shares innovative instructional strategies.

_____6.   The supervisor effectively assists beginning teachers.

_____7.   The supervisor effectively assists teachers with instructional problems they are experiencing.

_____8.   The supervisor effectively assists teachers to plan for instruction.

_____9.   The supervisor effectively assists teachers to assess student learning.

_____10.   The supervisor effectively assists teachers to individualize instruction.

Section D: Schoolwide Assistance

_____ 1.   The supervisor effectively facilitates instructional dialog among teachers.

_____ 2.   The supervisor fosters a positive school culture.

_____ 3.   The supervisor facilitates collective vision building.

_____ 4.   The supervisor fosters teacher collaboration for schoolwide instructional improvement.

_____ 5.   The supervisor fosters teacher empowerment.

_____ 6.   The supervisor effectively facilitates teachers' professional development.

_____ 7.   The supervisor effectively facilitates curriculum development.

_____ 8.   The supervisor effectively facilitates instructional program development.

 "From Glickman, C.D., Gordon, S.P., & Ross-Gordon, J.M. (2010). *Supervision and Instructional Leadership:* A Developmental Approach, Allyn and Bacon, p. 119.

APPENDIX B

TERMS FOR INTERVIEWEES

1. Supervision and Instructional leadership—Leadership for the improvement of
   teaching and learning (Gordon, 2008).

2. Scope of supervision and instructional leadership—the processes, functions, duties,
   tasks, activities, or responsibilities of an instructional supervisor/instructional leader.

3. Dispositions—"professional attitudes, values, and beliefs demonstrated through both
   verbal and non-verbal behaviors as educators interact with students, families,
   colleagues, and communities" (NCATE, 2009, p. 6).

APPENDIX C

INTERVIEW GUIDE

The interviewee will be asked for her or his perception of:

1. Should the screening process of principal preparation programs committed to preparing effective supervisors and instructional leaders include areas beyond the university admission standards? If so, what areas should be addressed in the screening process?

2. What supervision tasks should students in principal preparation programs learn about, and why they should be included in the curriculum?

3. What knowledge and skills in supervision and instructional leadership should principal preparation programs develop in aspiring principals?

4. What dispositions concerning supervision and instructional leadership should students in principal preparation programs learn about, and why should they be included in the curriculum?

5. What topics in supervision and instructional leadership should be addressed in principal preparation programs, and why should they be included in the curriculum?

6. What classroom teaching strategies and learning activities should professors teaching in principal preparation programs use to develop effective supervisors and instructional leaders?

7. What types of field experiences should be used to prepare aspiring principals to be effective supervisors and instructional leaders?

    a. Related to regular classes as the student proceeds through the program?

    b. Should there be an internship at the end of the student's program? If so, how long should the internship be? If so, in what activities should the intern engage in order for the program to prepare effective supervisors and instructional leaders?

8. Should the university principal preparation program provide induction support for the graduate who is a beginning principal? If so, how long should the induction support last? If so, what types of induction support should be provided?

9. Is there a difference in the quality of principal preparation programs that are face-to-face or online?

10. Do you have any other thoughts or comments about what students should learn in principal preparation programs seeking to prepare effective supervisors and instructional leaders?

11. If you were to design the supervision and instructional leadership component of a principal preparation program, what non-negotiables would you add that have not already been discussed?

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