EXAMINING INSTRUCTIONAL SUPERVISION IN A LEADERSHIP PREPARATION

PROGRAM: A COMPARISON OF SUPERVISION EXPERIENCES IN DIFFERENT

INTERNSHIP STRUCTURES

by

Robin David Winslow

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Robin David Winslow

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The following individuals read and discussed the dissertation submitted by student Robin David Winslow, and they evaluated his presentation and response to questions during the final oral examination. They found that the student passed the final oral examination.

Keith Thiede, Ph.D.	Chair, Supervisory Committee
Michele Carney, Ph.D.	Member, Supervisory Committee
Kelly Cross, Ed.D.	Member, Supervisory Committee
Richard Osguthorpe, Ph.D.	Member, Supervisory Committee

The final reading approval of the thesis was granted by Keith Thiede, Ph.D., Chair of the Supervisory Committee. The thesis was approved for the Graduate College by John R. Pelton, Ph.D., Dean of the Graduate College.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my wife Kathy who supported and encouraged me through another one of my foolish endeavors.

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I was very fortunate that Dr. Keith Thiede was my chair for my Dissertation Committee. He encouraged me to begin my doctoral program and he provided ongoing support through every phase of my research and dissertation. Dr. Keith Thiede is a great friend and mentor.

ABSTRACT

Instructional leadership is an essential role for school leaders. School leaders must be equipped with the skills to directly improve instruction. This study focused on how a leadership preparation program can prepare aspiring school leaders in instructional supervision skills during an internship. The study compared different instructional supervision structures with interns in the same program. One group of interns practiced instructional supervision skills with pre-service teachers and the other group practiced instructional supervision skills with teachers in their respective schools. Interns were assessed on the quality of supervision, beliefs about supervision, and the knowledge of the supervision process. The results showed that the internship structure affected the experience of interns, but not their beliefs about supervision. The structure also affected knowledge of the supervision process. These results suggest that internship structure may be an important factor influencing the effectiveness of a preparation program, and point to the benefits of exploring new approaches of teaching in leadership programs.

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CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Background

School leadership preparation programs must continue to adapt and change as they prepare aspiring school leaders to meet new educational standards and higher expectations. As the pressure for schools to show increases in student achievement builds, there has been increased emphasis on instructional leadership, which encompasses all the activities and initiatives a leader can do that improves student learning (Hallinger & Heck, 2011). Current research has established that a full spectrum of instructional leadership skills must be taught and practiced in leadership preparation programs (Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004; Robinson, Lloyd, & Rowe, 2008). In response to the research, The National Policy Board for Educational Administration [NPBEA] (2002) started requiring that instructional leadership standards be included in educational leadership preparation programs.

Unfortunately, Levine (2005) found that many leadership preparation programs have resisted efforts to adapt to current research and new educational standards. These programs continue to graduate new school leaders well trained in managerial aspects of educational leadership, but who lack adequate training in instructional leadership. Although management skills are still essential, expectations have shifted from management to instructional leadership (Hallinger, 2011). To be clear, principals still need to know how to manage budgets, design class schedules, maintain safe learning

environments, implement effective discipline plans, and recruit and retain effective

teachers (Brazer & Bauer, 2013), and these essential management skills are all still

included in the NPBEA (2002) standards for leadership preparation programs. However,

as noted by Cheney and Davis (2011), leadership preparation programs are increasingly

asked to prepare aspiring leaders in instructional leadership. They summed it up

succinctly in their research project for the Center for American Progress by stating:

> We now know from the field evidence that the old job of principal as
>
> administrative manager is no longer sufficient to dramatically improve student
>
> achievement. The job evolved into a highly complex and demanding position that
>
> requires strong instructional and leadership skills. Principals are integral to strong
>
> teaching and learning in a school. (Cheney & Davis, 2011, p.5)

It is through instructional leadership that principals influence the instructional practice of

teachers. And by improving instruction and the learning environment in schools,

principals improve student learning (Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008;

Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2003).

Statement of the Problem

The No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) of 2001 established increased

accountability for K-12 principals to raise student achievement or suffer sanctions or

even removal. School leaders must adapt to the current requirements in NCLB by

becoming instructional leaders that actively influence the instructional practice of

teachers, and subsequently raise student achievement. Instructional leaders need to

understand various strategies in working with teachers that will affect instruction and

improve student achievement. Therefore, leadership preparation programs must prepare

and equip aspiring school leaders with instructional leadership skills. Of particular importance in shaping classroom practice is instructional supervision, which is a set of activities involving a cycle of systemic planning, observation, diagnosis, and renewed planning (DiPaola & Hoy, 2008).

Those involved in leadership preparation programs must be willing to explore different models that provide the instructional supervision skill set that broadens and deepens the experience in becoming a strong instructional supervisor. Levine (2005) reported that many leadership preparation programs only include one specific class on supervising instruction. He found that most leadership preparation programs do not require any additional experiences in supervision skills to help prepare aspiring school leaders for their role as an instructional leader. As school leaders, they will need to know how to direct the supervision of instruction for continuous academic advancement among their teachers (Stein & Spillane, 2003); thus, aspiring school leaders need opportunities during the internship to refine their supervising skills. The purpose of the present study is to examine two different models of internship and competitively evaluate their effectiveness in influencing interns' experience, beliefs, and knowledge of supervision.

Significance of the Study

To be fully prepared for their future roles as instructional leaders, leadership students must learn and have sufficient practice with supervision skills. Providing sufficient practice in instructional supervision skills during an internship is a challenge for leadership preparation programs. Programs undoubtedly use a variety of internship models to provide practice with instructional supervision, but there are no studies that empirically evaluate the effectiveness of internship models. The present study evaluated

two models and compared their effectiveness; thus, this represents an important first step in research on preparation programs.

Rationale for the Study

Although leadership preparation programs expect interns to participate in supervision experiences, the actual research on the effects of these supervision activities in interns is minimal (Pounder, 2012). Anast-May, Buckner, and Geer (2011) found that many interns can apply strategies to encourage a culture of learning in a school, but they did not know how to directly supervise the effective instruction of teachers.

A successful instructional leader must be able to implement essential features in the supervision of instruction with classroom teachers. Interns must have relevant experiences evaluating teaching and quality instruction, and the practice of supervision (Anast-May et al., 2011). This study examines how different supervision experiences for interns affect their supervision experience, beliefs about the importance of supervision, and knowledge of supervision.

Definitions of Terms and Conceptual Framework

Terms used in the subsequent literature review are all commonly used and understood terms in the field of education. However, for the purpose of this proposed study, there are a few definitions relevant to the conceptual framework that need to be clarified.

<u>Instructional Leaders</u> - utilize indirect and direct initiatives to improve teaching and student learning (Hallinger & Heck, 2011).

Instructional Supervision – a set of activities by a school leader working directly with a teacher that improves the teaching and the learning process involving a cycle of systemic planning, observation, diagnosis, and renewed planning (DiPaola & Hoy, 2008).

Research Questions and Hypothesis

The research questions for this study were developed from the literature to supervision of instruction and internships in educational leadership preparation programs. This study compared the internship experiences, beliefs, and knowledge of two groups of educational leadership students with different supervision assignments. One group supervised pre-service teachers (Pre-service Teachers Group) and the other group supervised teachers (In-service Teachers Group) in their respective schools.

The following research questions were addressed during this study:

1. Does the internship structure affect the quality of supervision practiced in the internship?
2. Does the internship structure affect beliefs about supervision?
3. Does the internship structure affect knowledge of the supervision process?

Answering these questions is an important first step in investigating how the internship structure can affect interns' experience, beliefs about supervision, and knowledge of supervision.

The next chapter examines themes in literature related to school leadership national standards, leadership preparation programs, indirect and direct strategies instructional leaders can employ to improve classroom instruction, and how internship

programs may prepare aspiring school leaders for their role in instructional supervision

experiences.

CHAPTER TWO: REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

Research on educational leadership has shown that instructional supervisor can improve instruction and thereby improve student achievement. Therefore, some leadership preparation programs are focused on equipping aspiring school leaders for their roles as instructional leader. This review of literature will examine the changing roles of school leaders, and how leadership preparation programs have responded to these changing roles. Figure 2.1. provides a visual description of the progression of the literature review.
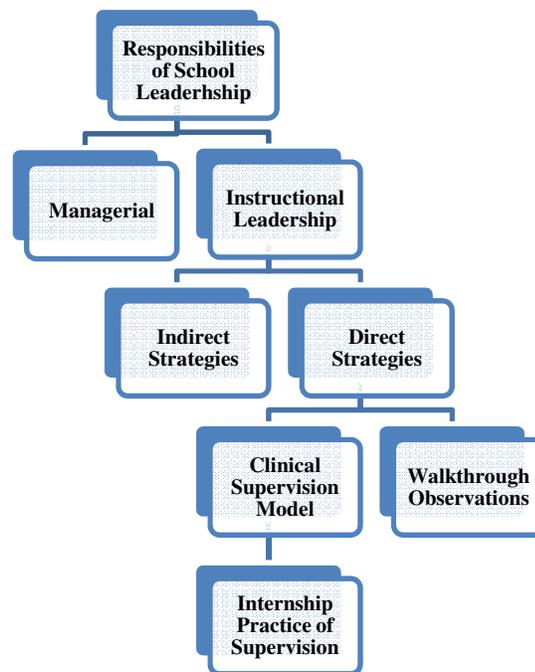
Figure 2.1.   Literature Review Outline

Responsibilities of School Leadership

Movement Towards Instructional Leader Perspective

In the field of educational research, the subset of research on school administration and leadership preparation programs is not very large. In the last 50 years, researchers have claimed that research on educational administration is lacking (Ogawa, Goldring, & Conley, 2000). In 2004, a comprehensive study on the existing literature in leading journals in administrative preparation revealed that only eight percent of the educational research focused on leadership preparation (Murphy & Vriesenga, 2004). They also found only four empirical articles from 1975-2002 on leadership preparation in Educational Administration Quarterly, one of the top journals in educational leadership.

Much of the leadership preparation research during the past 20 years has focused on criticisms on the core features related to candidate selection, focus, content, and rigor (e.g., Bridges & Hallinger,1997; Griffiths, Stout, & Forsyth, 1988; Orr, 2011). The U.S. Department of Education (2005) also weighed in with a critical report on leadership preparation programs, and claimed that most programs did not have a clear vision, purpose and coherence, and that graduate students in these programs simply progressed through a series of courses that did not connect to actual practice in local schools (Levine, 2005). In a study involving 31 leadership preparation programs, Hess and Kelly (2007) identified serious deficiencies, concluding that school leaders were receiving limited training in use of data, research, and evaluation. They found that most of the instructional time focused on school law, school finance, management, and technology. Overall, this research suggests that many leadership programs cover a broad scope of topics and responsibilities, but they may lack a clear vision or purpose for their students.

Most of the leadership research is currently focused on how school leaders can affect student achievement. In particular, it examines how school leaders influence student achievement by improving instruction and the learning environment in schools (Hallinger & Heck, 1996; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2008; Waters et al., 2003). The current roles and responsibilities of school leaders include managerial duties with an additional emphasis on being an instructional leader. The research is examining how leadership preparation programs may need to adapt to the emphasis on improving student achievement by improving instruction.

In the most recent decade in educational reform, leadership preparation has emerged as one of the primary approaches to improving instruction (Orr, 2011). The current national attention on leadership preparation is requiring programs be designed around research based educational leadership practices associated with school improvement (Southern Regional Education Board, 2006; Wallace Foundation, 2006). Public and private organizations are developing new policies and providing resources to improve leadership preparation and development in many states (Sanders & Simpson, 2005).

Entities Assisting with the Shift

Many organizations have been involved with setting the standards and the responsibilities of school leaders and school leader preparation. The Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC), the Wallace Foundation, and the U.S. Department of Education have worked with many educational associations on establishing rigorous standards for school leadership.

Professional standards for administrators began to emerge as states adopted licensure and accreditation policies based on the standards for school administrators developed by ISLLC in 1996 and revised in 2008 (Davis & Darling-Hammond, 2012). The National Policy Board for Educational Administration consulted with professional organizations including the National Associations of Elementary and Secondary Principals, the National Council of Professors of Educational Administration, and the American Association of School Administrators, researchers, universities, and leaders in the field to include current research on educational administration into the 2008 ISLLC Standards (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2008). This report documented that 43 states had implemented the standards to build preparation and induction systems and develop performance evaluations for administrators.

The ISLLC Standards demonstrate a wide variety of responsibilities for school leaders. The school leader must set and promote a shared vision, develop a school culture for student and teacher improvement, manage effectively the entire school operations, establish safe learning environments, collaborate and communicate with communities, be ethical, and understand and navigate political and legal issues. All standards are necessary and important in being a successful school leader. Leadership preparation programs must include every standard as they prepare aspiring school leaders.

The Wallace Foundation has been a significant influential nongovernment entity in the educational leadership field and directing state policies and preparation programs (Roach, Smith, & Boutin, 2011). The foundation has funded state and local initiatives to foster policy alignment related to a "cohesive leadership system" that addresses

standards, preparation, assessment, licensure, and ongoing professional development (Wallace Foundation, 2010). The foundation funds university initiatives, state and local educators, and also a consortium of state-based education groups that support the development of leadership systems that include National Association of State Boards of Education, Council of Chief of State School Officers, National Conference of State Legislatures, and the National Governors Association (Roach et al., 2011).

The federal government has also played an important role in educational leadership by implementing national policies that directly affect school leaders. Federal policies emphasize the importance of instructional leadership for school leaders. School leaders who fail to effectively raise student achievement in their schools risk dismissals. In some states, sanctions the U.S. Department of Education imposed through No Child Left Behind (NCLB) may cause school leaders to lose their jobs (Davis, Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, & Meyerson, 2005). Even the latest federal initiative, Race to the Top, identifies school leaders as an integral part of improving instruction and states are required to assess principal effectiveness and principal preparation in terms of student achievement (Davis & Darling-Hammond, 2012).

Effectiveness of Redesigned Preparation Programs

Recently, many innovative educational leadership preparation programs have redesigned their curricula and delivery features to align with national standards (Orr, 2011). These programs included a well-defined theory of leadership for school improvement, learning strategies, organizational development and change management. Perhaps most important, these program focus on instructional leadership. The research on these newly designed programs supports national standards in developing quality

programs, and designing programs that primarily focus on instructional leadership (Darling-Hammond, La Pointe, Meyerson, Orr, & Cohen, 2007; Orr & Orphanos, 2007; Young, Crow, Ogawa, & Murphy, 2009). The research also supports leadership students participating in quality internships that provide intensive development opportunities to apply leadership knowledge and skills under the guidance of an expert practitioner-mentor (Orr, 2011). The present study seeks to determine which structure provides a better internship experience and outcomes.

Leithwood, Jantzi, Coffin, and Wilson (1996) studied 11 redesigned preparation programs. They used surveys from a sample of teachers that worked for the graduates (those who had become school leaders) of these innovative preparation programs. The teachers' positive responses toward their principals supported many of the features that are recommended for leadership preparation programs. The teachers appreciated how their school leaders implemented instructional strategies, set and developed a positive school culture, and coordinated the curriculum coherence in the school.

Darling-Hammond et al. (2007) compared school leaders who graduated from innovative leadership preparation programs to a national sample of school leaders who graduated from more conventional programs. The school leaders from the innovative programs had a clear focus, and clarified values about leadership and learning, student-centered instructional practices and supportive student relationships. The final outcomes that the school leaders reported from the innovative programs in Darling-Hammond et al. (2007) were increased instructional leadership experiences, facilitating professional learning communities, assisting teachers in instructional feedback, providing professional

development opportunities for teachers, and using student performance data for instructional improvement.

In sum, research suggests that preparation programs designed to focus on instructional leadership produce high quality school leaders. An important part of these programs is the internship, which can help hone the supervision skills crucial to effective instructional leadership.

Effective Strategies of Instructional Leaders

Even though national standards and reforms include effective managerial duties as essential in school leadership, the responsibility to influence student achievement by becoming an instructional leader is emerging as the most critical feature in school leadership. Instructional leaders need to understand various strategies in working with teachers to affect instruction and improve student achievement. These strategies can be categorized into indirect instructional strategies and direct instructional strategies. Both indirect and direct instructional strategies are necessary skills that school leaders need to improve instruction and student achievement.

Indirect Instructional Strategies

Indirect instructional strategies are more general strategies that leaders use that affect the entire staff and student body of their schools. Indirect instructional strategies may include establishing a positive learning culture for students and staff, providing current textbooks and classroom resources, working with the staff to align curriculum to state standards, and scheduling time for the teachers to meet together in professional learning communities.

Hallinger and Heck (2011) and Louis and Leithwood (2010) explored several indirect influences school leaders use in becoming effective instructional leaders. In their studies instructional leaders appeared to affect positive influences on student achievement through their collaboration with teachers, improving systemic learning processes, and establishing rigorous programs for students (Hallinger & Heck, 2011). Fullan (2006) also found that school leaders influence student achievement by improving the professional learning opportunities for their staff members. Principals also affect student achievement by facilitating curriculum changes and structural processes that improved the academic support for teachers (Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Harris & Hopkins, 2006).

Setting the vision for a school is another essential indirect component in instructional leadership. Effective leaders must know how to direct a staff toward a clear purpose and vision so all participants can understand what role they play in improving instruction (McIver, Kearns, Lyons, & Sussman, 2009). Setting a clear purpose and vision for staff members and the student body is a challenge. Johnson, Rochkind, and Doble (2008) found that leaders vary widely in their ability to transmit a clear vision to teachers and students, but those who can transmit a clear vision are able to improve student outcomes.

Supovitz, Sirinides, and May (2010) used teacher survey data to examine the effect of indirect strategies on instructional practice. Their results demonstrated that indirect strategies by changed instructional practice and improve student learning.

Direct Instructional Strategies

The direct instructional strategies are the more specific strategies that leaders use to improve the instructional practice of a teacher. Acheson and Gall (2010) argued that a

school leader's main responsibility is to work closely with teachers to help them see and examine specific classroom practices. School leaders must keep in mind that instructional improvement is the critical goal because effective teaching leads to better student learning (Wright, Horn, & Sanders, 1997). Direct instructional strategies are ongoing processes to build capacity in teachers with the primary goal of improving instruction and student achievement (Pajak, 2000). School leaders must know and implement the most effective instructional supervision models to assist teachers in the process of improving instruction.

Direct instructional strategies for school leaders may include short walkthrough observations in a classroom and or an instructional supervision experience that includes a pre-observation conference, observation, and a post-observation conference. School leaders may implement both the walkthrough observation and instructional supervision experience to improve the instructional practice of teachers. To be effective, these strategies require school leaders be very knowledgeable in the characteristics of effective instruction and able to provide constructive feedback to teachers. These are challenging strategies for school leaders, but must be successfully implemented in their role as instructional leaders.

One of the biggest challenges for school leaders is that they must have expert knowledge in the characteristics of effective instruction and curriculum and how both should be delivered in the classroom, and they must provide specific constructive feedback to teachers to improve instruction to students (Wahlstrom & Louis, 2008). It is easy to understand why many school leaders may be better at implementing indirect instructional strategies and struggle at implementing direct instructional strategies,

because school leaders probably cannot be the expert in every component of curriculum, content and pedagogy for every teacher. Moreover, with all of the other duties faced by a school leader, many struggle to find the time to implement successful direct instructional strategies (Holland, 2004).

With time being an issue, the walkthrough observation by the school leader is emerging as an effective direct instructional strategy. The walkthrough observation is a 5-10 minute informal observation by the school leader on the instructional practice of a teacher (DiPaola & Hoy, 2008). The teacher usually does not know when the school leader will be doing the walkthrough observation. School leaders attempt to complete several walkthrough observations with each teacher several times a year and they give formative feedback on the instructional practice observed from the walkthrough directly to the teacher. Downey, Steffy, English, Frase, & Poston (2004) found that frequent walkthrough observations by school leaders may accomplish the following: improve teacher self-efficacy, improve classroom instruction, improve teacher attitude to professional development, improve teacher perception of principal effectiveness, and improve student discipline.

Downey et al. (2004) also developed a formative supervisory observation process called the Downey Walk-Through. This process involves frequent, brief, informal interactions between school leaders and teachers, and is focused on identifying and resolving problems. When school leaders used the Downey Walk-Through throughout the year, the school leaders shift their focus and efforts from managerial duties to curriculum, instruction, and data collection. Wahlstrom and Louis (2008) also found that

walk through required principals reprioritize their responsibilities and make the time to visit classrooms and assist teachers in improving their instructional skills.

An alternative direct instructional strategy that involves more detailed observations is called the instructional supervision or the clinical supervision process/model. It requires school leaders not only observe an entire lesson, but it also involves a pre-observation conference and a post-observation conference with teachers. Instructional supervision allows the school leader to thoroughly observe and analyze an entire lesson. The teacher and school leader meet and discuss a specific lesson the teacher will be teaching and the school leader will be observing. The school leader will also meet with the teacher after the observation to discuss the features of the lesson. This process may be used as a formative experience to improve the instructional practice of the teacher or for a formal summative evaluation that may affect the employment status of the teacher. The formative and summative processes can work toward the goals of professional growth in teachers in classroom instruction and improved student learning (McGreal, 1983). However, Sullivan and Glanz (2000) found that a formal summative evaluation may actually hinder the desired goal of improving instruction if not enough effort by the school leader is given in the formative process. A key to successful use of instructional supervision may well be a trusting relationship between teachers and supervisors, which is built through the formative process (Glickman, 1990).

Instructional leaders need to understand various strategies in working with teachers to affect instruction and improve student achievement. It is evident from the current research that school leaders can use indirect and direct instructional strategies to influence the instructional practices of teachers, and proficiency in using these strategies

can be honed in the internship. The focus of this study is on developing instructional

supervision skills; therefore, in the next section, instructional supervision is defined and

several models of instructional supervision will be described.

Models of Instructional Supervision

Models of supervision have been designed and implemented for instructional

leaders to work with teachers on improving instructional practice. Although the

following models were developed for improving instruction, several of these models have

been incorporated in other fields such as health care, mental health, and counseling

(Bernard & Goodyear, 2004).

The *clinical supervision model* was developed in the 1970's and promoted a

nonjudgmental collaborative effort between supervisors and teachers that featured a cycle

of pre-observation conference, observation, analysis and strategy, post-observation

conference and analysis (Reavis, 1978). Cogan (1973) identified eight steps in the

process, grouped into three phases in Figure 2.2. The purpose of the clinical supervision

process is the development of a self-directed and reflective teacher who is open for input

from a supervisor. In the first phase, the school leader meets with a teacher to discuss all

aspects of a lesson in a pre-observation conference. The school leader in the second

phase goes in and takes notes on the actual lesson and in the third phase the school leader

will analyze the lesson and then meet with the teacher to discuss what they observed and

offer suggestions that improve instruction. A new cycle will begin with each new

observation and once a positive relationship exists between the supervisor and teacher,

the first step of establishing a teacher-supervisor rapport may be omitted (Cogan, 1973).
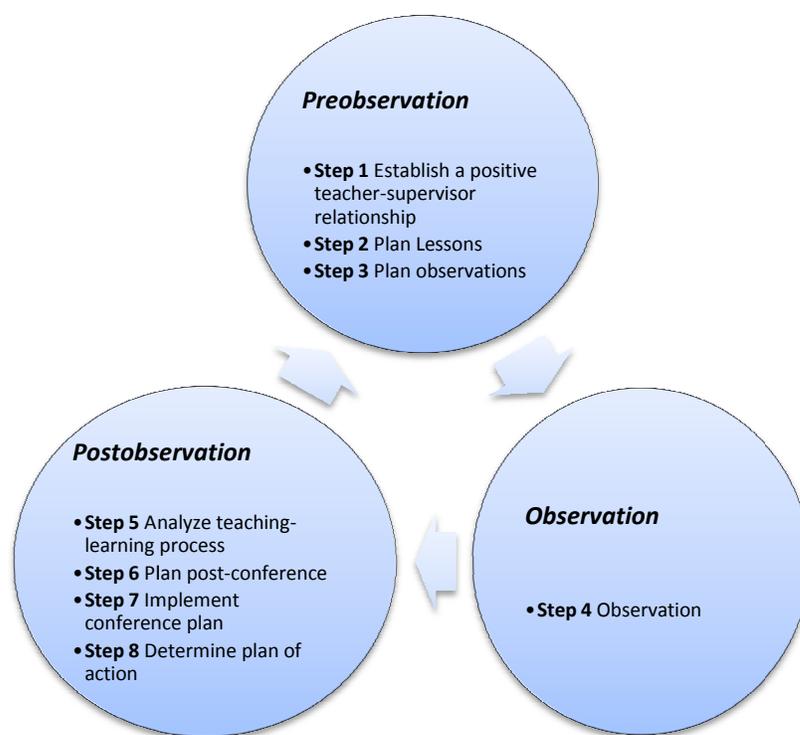
Figure 2.2.   Cycle of Clinical Supervision

Collegial supervision emerged in the 1990's and it proposed that teachers would work on improving their instructional practice with input from their peers and school leaders (Gordon, 1997). The clinical supervision model was built for a hierarchical supervision relationship between the school leader and the teacher; however, collegial supervision attempts to provide a horizontal supervision relationship between teacher and teachers. Teachers as well as principals can participate in the supervision process. Supervising teachers work with the school leader by providing additional input on instructional practice for the purpose of instructional improvement. The MET project supported the idea that teachers can participate in the instructional supervision process as supervisors when they have received adequate training (Bill & Melinda Gates Foundation, 2013).

Differentiated Supervision was designed to give teachers significant options in the kind of supervision they may receive (Glatthorn, 1997). This model has a hierarchical supervision relationship similar to the collegial supervision model by placing the teacher in equal status concerning their supervision to the school leader. Differentiated supervision gives teachers control over their professional development and their choice of support they receive from their school leaders (Zepeda, 2007).

All school leaders must be able to help teachers improve their instruction and all of these models can be used to assist the instructional leader in improving instruction. Even though each model has aspects that are research-based, there are no actual data comparing effectiveness of these models of supervision.

Implementing direct instructional strategies requires that school leaders have a depth of content knowledge on effective instructional practice and a thorough understanding of models and strategies of supervision. Both the walkthrough observations and instructional supervision experiences can be used to effectively improve the instructional practice of teachers. Even though both strategies are similar, the instructional supervision process is more involved and requires additional training to master. The next section examines how school leadership preparation programs provide the content and the practice that will prepare future school leaders with the training to successfully implement instructional supervision.

Instructional Supervision in Internships

Leadership preparation programs need to provide aspiring leaders the content knowledge of instructional supervision and opportunities to practice instructional supervision with teachers. Programs that address the skills needed in supervision during

internships seem to better prepare their students for actual leadership positions (Browne-Ferrigno & Muth, 2006). Effective principal preparation programs stimulate the transfer of classroom learning into engaging internship experiences (Barnett, Copeland, & Garcia, 2006). Aspiring school leaders must be thoroughly prepared for their new roles as instructional supervisors. The shift from teaching to supervising is substantial. The transformation in becoming instructional supervisors requires a change in perspective and educational orientation. A critical feature in changing this orientation is the opportunity to participate in authentic supervision experiences (Browne-Ferrigno & Muth, 2006).

Situated Learning and Authentic Participation

Glassman and Glassman (1997) and Wenger (1998) defined this authentic participation as situated learning and believed this participation was essential in learning and adapting to the new perspective of school leadership. In authentic situated learning aspiring leaders can apply theories, processes, and skills learned in their program (Glasman & Glasman, 1997). The situated learning experience equips new school leaders with proficient skills and with an increased confidence as they assume their first administrative positions (Browne-Ferrigno & Muth, 2006).

Situated learning has a theoretical foundation based in situated cognition theory. Situated cognition claims that the acquisition of knowledge is developed by what people perceive, how they conceive of their activity, and what they physically do (Clancey, 1997). Lave and Wenger (1991) found that what people perceive, think, and do develops in a social context. Situation cognition "shifts the focus from the individual to the sociocultural setting and the activities of the people within the setting" (Driscoll, 2005 p.158).

In situated cognition, learning involves an increased participation in authentic situations. The most authentic learning process of situated cognition is "legitimate peripheral participation" (Lave & Wegner, 1991, p.29). According to Lave and Wegner (1991) this process provides the new learner opportunities to practice in sociocultural settings to increase competence in the practice. Lave and Wegner (1991) studied many cases of apprenticeships as a form of legitimate peripheral participation and they found participants in these apprenticeships were highly motivated and developed a thorough understanding of practice. A typical example of apprenticeship is seen in the form of internships for education students in their final semester where they get to practice their skills in authentic environments (Driscoll, 2005). Most leadership preparation programs offer a year-long internship in the authentic environment of a school (Cunningham, 2007). Unfortunately, the research on instructional leadership activities in internships that lead to improving teacher performance is minimal (Cunningham & Sherman, 2008).

Effective Internships

Universities that have effective intern programs greatly improve the knowledge and skills in their students and produce "a stronger pipeline of effective school administrators" (Pounder & Crow, 2005, p. 57). Zellner, Jinkins, Gideon, Doughty, and McNamara (2002) found that interns needed the internship experience to fully develop essential leadership skills. The interns needed to engage in planning, developing, and implementing school programs to benefit from the internship experience (Zellner et al., 2002). Effective internship programs increase the knowledge and skills in interns to improve schools and student achievement (Cunningham, 2007).

The National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) puts a high priority on administrative internships and it has included the internship in one of seven standards for preparing administrators. Standard 7.0 for Advanced Programs in Educational Leadership states, "The internship provides significant opportunities for candidates to synthesize and apply the knowledge and practice and develop the skills identified in Standards 1-6" (NCATE, 2002).

The Southern Regional Education Board (SREB) Leadership Initiative (2005) stressed that colleges and universities need to provide internships so students can connect their knowledge in leadership skills with practicing school leaders that address the learning issues in improving student achievement. This study found that principal preparation programs are placing a greater emphasis on the importance of a field experience for their interns as a significant preparation for school leadership (SREB, 2005). This study identified that the most significant characteristics of high-quality pre-service principal internships include; collaboration between the university and the local school districts, explicit set of internship assignments designed to provide and application of knowledge, and opportunities to work with diverse students and communities.

Collaborative Internships

Effective internship experiences need the collaboration between universities and school districts (Young, Petersen, & Short, 2002). Universities need to place a greater emphasis on providing experiences that connect classroom content to authentic experiences under the supervision of professors and practitioners (Bottoms & O'Neill, 2004). To build these connections, Pounder and Crow (2005) suggested greater

collaboration and long-term partnerships between universities and K-12 school administrators.

<u>Benefits of Positive Internships</u>

Successful internships can provide additional benefits to interns. An important benefit that develops is that interns form a new confidence and belief in their abilities and skills as school leaders (Browne-Ferrigno & Muth, 2006). Browne-Ferrigno and Muth (2006) found:

> The students who assumed positions as quasi-administrators or interns appeared to be more confident and goal oriented toward assuming the principalship than cohort peers who continued to work as teachers. Those engaged in administrative work linked content topics being studied in their coursework to real-world applications, and they often discussed how their mentors addressed problems of practice. They were able to contextualize what was being discussed and to link textbook learning to authentic practice. (p. 475)

The interns in this study also reported that their internship gave them a greater confidence in their leadership skills and that they believed they could actually assume leadership roles upon graduation form their educational leadership program.

Overview of Study

It is important to state up front that the participants in the present study were leadership students enrolled in a new educational leadership program that was designed in response to the criticisms leveled again leadership preparation programs (e.g., Levine, 2005). This program focuses on instructional leadership, and situates learning in an

integrated, problem-based curriculum. Thus, all participants in the study understood the importance of instructional leadership in improving instruction and influencing student learning. However, it is important to realize that the typical internship experience in leadership preparation programs provides only one model in instructional supervision. The interns usually serve their internship in their respective school and their responsibilities in instructional supervision experiences are limited to what their mentor principal will allow. Many teachers are reticent to have an intern observe their teaching and practice instructional supervision skills on them. Thus, even with the best intentions, interns may struggle to practice instruction supervision to the degree necessary to fully develop these skills.

The proposed study was designed to give leadership interns a choice of different internship structures and different instructional supervision experiences. The data in the study (collected from two cohorts in two consecutive years) were used to evaluate the effectiveness of two different internship structures in influencing the interns' experience, beliefs, and knowledge of supervision.

This leadership preparation program requires a two-semester internship experience for all interns. Interns participate in the internship after successfully completing eighteen credit hours of classes on the many roles of being a school leader. One third of the credit hours are focused on the role of instructional leadership with a specific emphasis and training in instructional supervision skills. The clinical supervision model is taught as the foundation of instructional supervision and the leadership students are expected to practice this model with teachers in their respective schools during the class before their internship.

The internship requirements in this program were developed and aligned from the six standards in ISSLC. Interns were expected to participate in activities in each of the six standards. The instructional supervision expectation was taken from Standard 2. It states, "School administrators as educational leaders would need to develop a school culture and instructional program conducive to student learning and staff professional growth" (Council of Chief State School Officers, 2008). To fulfill this requirement of "developing an instructional program conducive to student learning" all the interns were expected to be in classrooms to practice the clinical supervision model with their peer teachers at their respective schools.

The teacher education program and the leadership preparation program at this university worked together to create additional supervision opportunities for leadership interns in a pilot project. The teacher education program hired leadership interns to supervise pre-service teachers in the elementary and secondary schools where the leadership interns worked. Interns were assigned at least one pre-service teacher during the year-long internship. The teacher education program provided training to the leadership interns on their expectations as supervisors. The leadership interns were required to implement several instructional supervision experiences with their assigned pre-service teachers. Interns were expected to use the three phases in the clinical supervision model: pre-observation conference; observation; and the post-observation conference in their instructional supervision of pre-service teachers. All the interns were given the opportunity to participate in the pilot and supervise pre-service teachers.

Instructional leaders must be able to supervise the instruction of new and veteran teachers. Walker and Slear (2011) surveyed 366 middle school teachers and found that

the principal's supervision role of setting instructional expectations was the most critical for the new teachers and this supervision role diminished in effectiveness for experienced teachers. The experienced teachers in the study preferred collaborative input from their supervisors and needed less direct supervision to improve instruction. According to Woolfolk Hoy (2000) pre-service teachers often are confident about their abilities until they actually start teaching in the classroom and then find that they need frequent supervision to improve their instruction. Thus, a crucial difference in the instructional supervision experience for the interns who chose to participate in the pilot study was that interns in the pilot study supervised pre-service teachers rather than veteran teachers.

The purpose of the study was to evaluate the effect of two different internship structures. One structure involved supervising pre-service teachers, while the other involved supervising only experienced in-service teachers. The interns supervising pre-service teachers will be referred to as the pre-service teachers group and those supervising the experienced in-service teachers will be referred to as the in-service teachers group. Again, it is important to note that interns in both groups were required to participate in instructional supervision. The questions for this study are:

1. Does the internship structure affect the quality of supervision practiced in the internship?

2. Does the internship structure affect beliefs about supervision?

3. Does the internship structure affect knowledge of the supervision process?

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

This quasi-experimental study compared the internship experiences, beliefs, and knowledge of two groups of educational leadership students with different supervision assignments: The pre-service teachers group was assigned a pre-service teacher to supervise during the educational leadership internship. The in-service teachers group had an internship that did not include supervising a pre-service teacher; rather it involved supervising the teachers at their school. This chapter describes the methods and procedures used in this study.

The questions for this proposed study are:

1. Does the internship structure affect the quality of supervision practiced in the internship?

2. Does the internship structure affect beliefs about supervision?

3. Does the internship structure affect knowledge of the supervision process?

Participants and Design

Participants were 30 graduate students from two cohorts enrolled in the educational leadership program at a Mountain West Regional university. All the participants were in the final year of the principal preparation program, and were in a leadership internship. Participants were assigned to either the pre-service teachers group ($N = 13$) or the in-service teachers group ($N = 17$). It is important to note that all the

interns were interested in participating in the pre-service teachers group; however, only 13 interns were teaching at schools in which the university had placed pre-service teachers. Thus, it is not the case that those interns with greater interest in supervision (i.e., higher motivation to supervise) were in the pre-service teachers group. The pre-service teachers group included 9 males and 4 females, with 6 elementary teachers and 7secondary teachers. The in-service teachers group included 10 males and 7 females, with 6 elementary teachers and 11 secondary teachers.

The teacher education office worked with the education leadership program to provide supervision opportunities for educational leadership interns. Interested interns were hired to supervise pre-service teachers in the elementary and secondary schools at their respective schools. Each intern was assigned 1-7 pre-service teachers. Seventeen interns were not assigned pre-service teachers (because no pre-service teachers were being placed by the university at their school); therefore, remained part of the in-service teachers group. All interns hired to supervise pre-service teachers received training from the teacher education office regarding expectations of supervisors.

It is important to note that interns in the in-service teachers group were responsible for scheduling supervision experiences with their mentor principal. These supervision experiences included informal observations of fellow teachers and going with the mentor principal when they were performing a formal observation for a summative performance evaluation.

Group was an independent variable in this study. Time was also an independent variable—participants completed the instruments before the internship and then again after the internship. Thus, this was a 2 (Group: pre-service teachers group versus in-

service teachers group) x 2 (Time: before versus after) design. The dependent variables included self-reported experience with supervision, beliefs about the importance of supervision, and knowledge of supervision.

Instruments

This study evaluated the effect of the different internship structures on self-reported use of different aspects of supervision during the internship, beliefs about the importance of supervision, and knowledge of the clinical supervision model.

Measuring Aspect of the Clinical Supervision Model. An existing instrument was not available that reflected the content and model of supervision taught in the leadership preparation program (i.e., Canizaro, 1985; Page, 1994; Sirois & Gable, 1977); therefore, an instrument was created that included three scales—one for each component of the supervision process: pre-observation, observation, and post-observation of the clinical supervision model (Cogan, 1973).

Pre-Observation Scale. This scale was created to measure pre-observation components. The components were organized into the following six categories: general; learning objectives; resources; classroom environment; assessments; and focus of observation. Seventeen items in the pre-observation scale are presented in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1.   Items of the Pre-Observation Scale

General:
1. I know the components of the pre-observation conference.
2. I have established a positive rapport with the teacher(s) I am supervising.
3. I have the pre-observation conference within 24 hours of the observation.

Learning Objectives:
4. I give the teacher time to share about their classroom practice during the pre-observation conference.

5. I have a clear understanding of the learning objective from the pre-observation conference.
6. I know what the students will be doing during the lesson.
7. I am familiar with the instructional strategies the teacher plans to use during the lesson.
8. I know the student outcomes the teacher is expecting from the lesson.

Resources:
9. I know the materials, technology, and resources the teacher is planning on using for the lesson.

Classroom Environment:
10. I know how the room will be arranged (physically set up) to support the objective of the lesson.
11. I discuss how the teacher plans to address the various learning abilities amongst the students.
12. I know how the teacher will adapt or modify the lesson for special learning needs.
13. I know the classroom management system the teacher will use.

Assessments:
14. I know what type of assessment and artifacts (test, quiz, portfolio, project, essay) the teacher will use to determine whether the objectives have been met for the lesson.
15. I know why the teacher chose the specific assessment to demonstrate mastery.

Focus of Observation:
16. I inquire about an area of focus that the teacher wants observed in this specific lesson.
17. I have identified with the teacher what data will be collected to measure the specific focus.

Observation Scale. This scale was created to measure observation components.

The components were organized into the following five categories: general; general data

collection; instructional data collection; student engagement data collection; and

resources used in lesson. Seventeen items in the observation scale are presented in Table

3.2.

Table 3.2.   Items of the Observation Scale

General:
1. I know the components of the observation phase of supervision.

General Data Collection:
2. I collect data that is objective and quantifiable during the observation.

3. I write selective verbatim notes to capture teachers' and/or students' actual words.
4. I track the physical movement of the teacher and students.
5. I include anecdotal notes on what occurs in the classroom.
6. I collect data on the specific area of focus that the teacher identified in the pre-observation.

Instructional Data Collection:
7. I collect data that addresses the objective of the lesson.
8. I record the details of statements made by the teacher and students.
9. I identify the level of questioning the teacher uses. I use Bloom's Taxonomy or another taxonomy as a reference.
10. I collect data on the wait time a teacher uses before calling on a student to answer a question.
11. I record the variations of instructional strategies the teacher uses.
12 I collect data on the effectiveness and efficiency of the transitions that occur during the lesson.
13. I record the strategies used to start and conclude the lesson.
14. I record the variety of grouping methodologies and/or cooperative learning strategies incorporated in the lesson.

Student Engagement Data Collection:
15. I observe and take notes on student engagement throughout the lesson.
16. I record teacher student interactions to look for patterns of involvement and noninvolvement from students during the lesson.

Resources Used in Lesson:
17. I identify the resources, materials, and technologies used in the lesson.

Post-Observation Scale. This scale was created to measure post-observation components. The components were organized into the following four categories: general; analyze the observation; plan for conference; and feedback in the conference. Eighteen items in the post-observation scale are presented in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3.   Items of the Post-Observation Scale

General:
1. I know the components of the post-conference phase of supervision.
2. I have the post-observation within 48 hours of the observation.

Analyze the Observation:
3. I review my notes and data collection before the post-observation conference.
4. I analyze the teaching process prior to meeting with the teacher.

5. I analyze the data on the specific area of focus that the teacher identified in the pre-observation.

6. I ask the teacher to self-reflect about the lesson prior to coming to the post-observation conference.

Plan for Conference:

7. I prepare notes for the conference and select discussion strategies specific to the lesson observed.

8. I have identified possible strategies for ongoing growth and professional development opportunities for the teacher.

Feedback in the Conference:

9. I engage in a collaborative dialogue with the teacher about the lesson.

10. I actively listen to the teacher during the conference.

11. I accurately present the data that I gathered to the teacher.

12. I frequently check for clarification and explanation of the data with the teacher.

13. I facilitate the teacher's self-analysis and reflection based on data.

14. I am willing to adjust my analysis based on the teacher input during the conference.

15. I share the strengths and weaknesses observed in the lesson.

16. I engage in constructive analysis of the teaching and learning process during the conference.

17. I collaborate with the teacher to identify specific actions to be taken for future lessons.

18. I keep the conference positive to build a rapport for future supervision experiences.

To establish face validity, after items were created, they were sent to four practicing principals with reputations as instructional leaders for input based on their current experiences in instructional supervision. The principals were instructed to review and compare each item in the survey instrument with their actual instructional supervision experiences. Suggested modifications from the principals were incorporated in the final instrument. In the end, there were seventeen items related to pre-observation, seventeen items related to observation, and eighteen items related to post-observation. These items were used for assessing quality of implementation of supervision and beliefs about importance on supervision. These are described below.

Quality of implementation of supervision. This instrument asked interns to rate how frequently they had implemented each supervision item in the three scales, related to the components of the clinical supervision model. The ratings were on a 5-point scale, from 1 (I did not do this) to 5 (I always do this).

In the quality of supervision implementation instrument (see Appendix A), the pre-observation scale contained 17 items (Cronbach's alpha = .88), the observation scale contained 17 items (Cronbach's alpha = .86), and the post-observation scale contained 18 items (Cronbach's alpha = .88), for a total of 52 items (Cronbach's alpha = .92). Thus, all scales had good reliability.

Beliefs about importance of supervision. This instrument asked interns to rate how important they believed each item to be in the three scales, related to the components of the clinical supervision model. The ratings were on a 5-point scale, from 1 (Slightly important) to 5 (Highly important).

In the beliefs about importance of supervision instrument (see Appendix B), the pre-observation scale contained 17 items (Cronbach's alpha = .75), the observation scale contained 17 items (Cronbach's alpha = .85), and the post-observation scale contained 18 items (Cronbach's alpha = .72), for a total of 52 items (Cronbach's alpha = .85). Thus, all scales had acceptable to good reliability.

Knowledge of the clinical supervision model. In addition to completing the aforementioned instruments, interns were asked to list every component they could remember in the 3 components of the clinical supervision model. This information was gathered only at the conclusion of their internship experience. These data were only available for the first cohort.

Reflections on the supervision experiences. All interns were required to submit monthly reflection papers to the university supervisors on their learning experiences during the course of their internship (See Appendix C). The reflection papers were read and scanned primarily for the frequency of references to supervision experiences. The references to the supervision experiences were also analyzed to determine the similarities and differences between the two groups in their instructional supervision experiences. These data were only available for the first cohort.

Procedures

Prior to gathering data, permission was granted through the Institutional Review Board. Interns were recruited to participate and all agreed to participate in the study.

The instruments were distributed to all interns in the beginning of their internship experience and at the conclusion of their year-long experience. They were administered and collected in a classroom setting by a leadership preparation instructor. Each 52-item instrument took approximately 10-15 minutes to complete. Interns were instructed that the instruments would not be part of a grade or reflect on their internship evaluation and that the data would be used for research purposes and to improve the internship experience in the leadership program.

For the quality of implementation of supervision instrument, participants were asked to rate the frequency of implementation of each component in the supervision process. The ratings ranged from 1 (I did not do this) to 5 (I always do this) for each of the 52 supervision items, which made up the three scales. Participants reflected and rated the frequency of implementation of each component in the instructional supervision model in their internship experiences. Participants also listed the number of supervision

experiences that they had participated in at this point in their internship. The specific

directions in the instrument given to the participants were:

> The supervision of teacher instruction is challenging for administrators and
>
> administrative interns. Supervision has three phases: pre-observation, observation,
>
> and post-observation. I have included components from each phase in this survey.
>
> In your internship thus far, how many supervision experiences have you had?____
>
> Think about your most recent supervision experiences. Select the rating that most
>
> reflects how frequently you implemented each component.

Participants, completing the survey at the beginning of their internship

experience, were instructed to think on their supervision experiences that had occurred

prior to their internship. All participants had been required to practice the supervision

model during their required course on instructional supervision.

When completing the beliefs about importance of supervision instrument,

participants were asked to rate how important they believed each component was in the

supervision process. The importance ratings ranged from 1 (Slightly important) to 5

(Highly important) for each of the 52 supervision items, which made up the three scales.

Participants reflected and rated how important each component in the supervision model

was to them. The specific directions in the first survey given to the participants were:

> The supervision of teacher instruction is challenging for administrators and
>
> administrative interns. Supervision has three phases: pre-observation, observation,
>
> and post-observation. I have included components from each phase in this survey.
>
> I need you to rate how important you believe each component is to your

supervision of teacher instruction. Select the rating that reflects how important you see each component.

The knowledge of the clinical supervision model measure was only administered at the conclusion of the internship year. Interns were asked to list the components that they knew in each of the three phases of clinical supervision. The final grades for each intern from the spring supervision class were used to control for initial differences in knowledge.

The university supervisor collected monthly reflection papers from interns on their internship experience. Interns were encouraged to share on all aspects of their internship. The specific directions for the reflection paper given to the participants were:

Regarding the reflection papers, please write a one-page reflection on your experiences as an administrator for that particular month, or time period. You may choose to highlight one event that stood out the most, or you may write a summary of all or most of the events. This is entirely up to you. The purpose of the reflection paper is two-fold: (1) so that you have time to reflect on your learning experience; and (2) to provide me with a more rich and personal narrative of your internship. I get far more out of these reflection papers than I do out of the Internship Log.

Data Analysis

A two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to examine the effect of Group and Time on frequency of implementation of supervision, and beliefs about the importance of supervision. As the knowledge test was only administered at the end of the internship, groups were compared using a one-way ANCOVA (using final grade in the

supervision course as a covariate). The reflection papers were first read primarily for the

frequency of references to supervision experiences. An inductive analysis was also

conducted to derive concepts and themes from the reflections (Thomas, 2006). The

references to the supervision experiences were also analyzed to determine the similarities

and differences between the two groups in their instructional supervision experiences.

Limitations

As in any research, a common concern is the limitations of the study, which

identifies areas of weaknesses of the study (Castetter & Heisler, 1977). This study is no

exception. Limitations to this study include the lack of generalizability due to the small

sample size, the lack of random sampling, and the sample of participants having attained

their leadership internship from one university, within one geographical area of the

United States. Due to the sampling of only leadership interns from this Mountain West

Regional university's educational leadership program, this study cannot claim that the

potential findings can be generalized to other educational leadership preparation

programs. Therefore, the findings of this study are limited to this university setting, in

this specific area, at this specific time, for the interns involved.

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

To what extent do different supervision experiences during an internship affect the instructional supervision skills of leadership interns? To answer the question, the study compared the internship experiences, beliefs, and knowledge of two groups of educational leadership students with different supervision assignments: The pre-service teachers group was assigned a pre-service teacher to supervise during the internship. The in-service teachers group had an internship that included supervising in-service teachers. This chapter examines the results in the study.

The questions for this proposed study were:

1. Does the internship structure affect the quality of supervision practiced in the internship?

2. Does the internship structure affect beliefs about supervision?

3. Does the internship structure affect knowledge of the supervision process?

Analysis of Quality of Implementation of Supervision Practices

The Quality of Implementation of Supervision Instrument included three scales, one for each component of the clinical supervision model: pre-observation; observation; and post-observation. For each scale, an average scale score was computed across the items for each participant. Therefore, the mean has the same 5-point scale as the

individual items: 1 (I did not do this) to 5 (I always do this). Each scale was analyzed

separately.

Pre-observation scale. To evaluate the effect of different internship experiences

on the quality of implementation of supervision practice in pre-observation, I conducted a

2 (pre-service teachers versus in-service teachers) x 2 (before versus after) analysis of

variance (ANOVA). Mean frequency of pre-observation practice across the conditions is

presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1.   **Mean Quality of Pre-Observation Practice by Time and Group**

	Time	
Group	*Before*	*After*
Pre-service Teachers	2.98 (.33)	3.60 (.17)
In-service Teachers	2.96 (.22)	3.43 (.19)

Note. The standard error of the mean is in parentheses.

The 2 x 2 ANOVA revealed a main effect for Time, $F(1,28) = 8.19$, $MSe = .53$, p

$= .008$, *partial eta squared* $= .23$. There was not a main effect for Group, $F(1,28) = .21$,

$MSe = .60$ $p = .65$. The interaction was not significant, $F(1,28) = .17$, $MSe = .53$, $p = .68$.

The main effect for Time, as seen in Table 4.1, is the result of both groups reporting more

use of pre-observation practices from before to after.

Observation scale. To evaluate the effect of different internship experiences on

the quality of implementation of supervision practice in observation, I conducted a 2 (pre-

service teachers versus in-service teachers) x 2 (before versus after) ANOVA. Mean

quality of observation practice across the conditions is presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2. **Mean Quality of Observation Practice by Time and Group**

	Time	
Group	*Before*	*After*
Pre-service Teachers	3.00 (.16)	3.82 (.20)
In-service Teachers	3.57 (.18)	3.70 (.23)

Note. The standard error of the mean is in parentheses.

The 2 x 2 ANOVA revealed a main effect for Time, $F(1,28) = 9.13$, $MSe = .36$, $p = .005$, *partial eta squared* = .25. There was not a main effect for Group, $F(1,28) = 1.03$, $MSe = .73$ $p = .32$. The interaction was also significant, $F(1,28) = 4.77$, $MSe = .36$, $p = .04$, *partial eta squared* = .15. To better understand the significant interaction, I conducted follow-up tests of simple effects.

The tests of simple effects showed that the groups differed before the internship, $F(1,28) = 5.64$, $MSe = .42$, $p = .03$. As seen in Table 4.2, the frequency of reported observation was less for the pre-service teachers group than for the in-service teachers group. In contrast, by the end of the internship (after), there were no differences in reported quality of observation practices, $F(1,28) = 0.15$, $MSe = .67$, $p = .71$. Comparing the quality of reported observation from before to after showed a significant increase for the pre-service teachers group, $t(12) = 4.21$, $p = .001$; whereas there was no difference from before to after for the in-service teachers group, $t(16) = 0.52$, $p = .61$.

Post-Observation scale. To evaluate the effect of different internship experiences on the quality of implementation of supervision practice in post-observation, I conducted

a 2 (pre-service teachers versus in-service teachers) x 2 (before versus after) ANOVA.

Mean quality of post-observation practice across the conditions is presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3.   Mean Quality of Post-Observation Practice by Time and Group

	Time	
Group	*Before*	*After*
Pre-service Teachers	3.50 (.16)	4.28 (.17)
In-service Teachers	4.00 (.18)	3.95 (.20)

Note. The standard error of the mean is in parentheses.

The 2 x 2 ANOVA revealed a marginally significant main effect for Time, $F(1,28) = 3.45$, $MSe = .57$, $p = .07$, *partial eta squared* $= .11$. There was not a main effect for Group, $F(1,28) = 0.32$, $MSe = .35$ $p = .57$. The interaction was also significant, $F(1,28) = 4.49$, $MSe = .57$, $p = .04$, *partial eta squared* $= .14$. To better understand the significant interaction, I conducted follow-up tests of simple effects.

The tests of simple effects showed that the groups differed before the internship, $F(1,28) = 4.45$, $MSe = .42$, $p = .04$. As seen in Table 4.3, the quality of reported observation was less for the pre-service teachers group than for the in-service teachers group. In contrast, by the end of the internship (after), there were no differences in reported quality of post-observation practices, $F(1,28) = 1.61$, $MSe = .50$, $p = .22$. Comparing the quality of reported post-observation from before to after showed a significant increase for the pre-service teachers group, $t(12) = 3.76$, $p = .002$; whereas there was no difference from before to after for the in-service teachers group, $t(16) = 0.14$, $p = .89$.

These findings are in part consistent with the hypothesis that internship structure would affect the quality of implementation of supervision practice. That is, performance on the observation and post-observation scales appears to have benefitted from the pre-service teachers internship compared to the in-service teachers internship. However, performance on the pre-observation scale was not affected by the internship structure.

Analysis of Beliefs about the Importance of Supervision Practices

The Beliefs about the Importance of Supervision Instrument included three scales, one for each component of the clinical supervision model: pre-observation; observation; and post-observation. For each scale, an average scale score was computed across the items for each participant. Therefore, the mean has the same 5-point scale as the individual items: 1 (Slightly important) to 5 (Highly important). As with the frequency data, each scale was analyzed separately.

Pre-observation scale. To evaluate the effect of different internship experiences on beliefs about the importance of supervision practice in pre-observation, I conducted a 2 (pre-service teachers versus in-service teachers) x 2 (before versus after) ANOVA. Mean beliefs of the importance of pre-observation practice across the conditions is presented in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4.   Mean Beliefs about Importance of Pre-Observation Practice by Time and Group

	Time	
Group	*Before*	*After*
Pre-service Teachers	3.24 (.12)	3.55 (.16)

In-service Teachers	3.51 (.11)	3.54 (.14)

Note. The standard error of the mean is in parentheses.

The 2 x 2 ANOVA revealed there was not a main effect for Time, $F(1,28) = 2.73$, $MSe = .17$, $p = .11$. There was not a main effect for Group, $F(1,28) = .72$, $MSe = .36$ $p = .40$. The interaction was also not significant, $F(1,28) = 1.67$, $MSe = .17$, $p = .21$. As seen in Table 4.4, the internship structure had little effect on beliefs about pre-observation practice.

Observation scale. To evaluate the effect of different internship experiences on beliefs about the importance of supervision practice in observation, I conducted a 2 (pre-service teachers versus in-service teachers) x 2 (before versus after) ANOVA. Mean beliefs of the importance of observation practice across the conditions is presented in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5.   **Mean Beliefs about Importance of Observation Practice by Time and Group**

	Time	
Group	*Before*	*After*
Pre-service Teachers	3.65 (.14)	3.90 (.17)
In-service Teachers	3.56 (.13)	3.53 (.15)

Note. The standard error of the mean is in parentheses.

The 2 x 2 ANOVA revealed there was not a main effect for Time, $F(1,28) = 1.84$, $MSe = .10$, $p = .19$. There was not a main effect for Group, $F(1,28) = 1.34$, $MSe = .56$ $p = .26$. The interaction was also not significant, $F(1,28) = 2.87$, $MSe = .10$, $p = .10$. As

seen in Table 4.5, the internship structure had little effect on beliefs about observation practice.

Post-Observation scale. To evaluate the effect of different internship experiences on beliefs about the importance of supervision practice in post-observation, I conducted a 2 (pre-service teachers versus in-service teachers) x 2 (before versus after) ANOVA. Mean beliefs of the importance of post-observation practice across the conditions is presented in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6.   Mean Beliefs about Importance of Post-Observation Practice by Time and Group

	Time	
Group	*Before*	*After*
Pre-service Teachers	4.15 (.09)	4.19 (.11)
In-service Teachers	4.05 (.08)	4.13 (.10)

Note. The standard error of the mean is in parentheses.

The 2 x 2 ANOVA revealed there was not a main effect for Time, $F(1,28) = 0.72$, $MSe = .07$, $p = .41$. There was not a main effect for Group, $F(1,28) = 0.47$, $MSe = .21$ $p = .50$. The interaction was not significant, $F(1,28) = 0.08$, $MSe = .08$, $p = .77$. As seen in Table 4.6, the internship structure had little effect on beliefs about post-observation practice.

These findings are not consistent with the hypothesis that internship structure would affect beliefs about the importance of supervision practice. That is, internship structure did not affect performance on any of the belief scales.

Analysis of Knowledge of Supervision Practices

Knowledge of the clinical supervision model was assessed by asking interns to list different aspects of the components of pre-observation, observation, and post-observation. To examine the effects of the internship structure on knowledge, I compared performance on this test across the two groups, separately for each of the different components of the clinical supervision model (pre-observation, observation, and post-observation). To control for possible differences in prior knowledge of the clinical supervision model, I used class performance for the module in which supervision was taught as a covariate. That is, I conducted a one-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA). It is important to note that knowledge scores were only available for the first group of interns (N = 8 for the pre-service teachers group and N = 10 for the in-service teachers group). Mean test performance (adjusted for initial differences in prior knowledge), by group, for each component, is presented in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7.   **Adjusted Mean Knowledge of Supervision by Group**

Group	Mean Knowledge
Pre-Observation	
Pre-service Teachers	6.60 (.63)
In-service Teachers	4.42 (.56)
Observation	
Pre-service teachers	6.07 (.64)
In-service teachers	4.75 (.57)

Post-Observation	
Pre-service teachers	6.59 (.66)
In-service teachers	4.83 (.59)

Note. The means are adjusted means—controlling for differences in prior knowledge. The number in parentheses is the standard error of the mean.

The ANCOVA showed that knowledge of the pre-observation component of the clinical supervision model was significantly greater for the pre-service teachers group than for the in-service teachers group, $F(1,15) = 6.71$, $MSe = 3.16$, $p = .02$, partial eta squared = .31. The ANCOVA showed that knowledge of the observation component did not differ across groups, $F(1,15) = 2.37$, $MSe = 3.26$, $p = .14$. The ANCOVA showed that knowledge of the post-observation component was marginally significantly greater for the pre-service teachers group than for the in-service teachers group, $F(1,15) = 3.95$, $MSe = 3.48$, $p = .07$, partial eta squared = .21.

These results are partially consistent with the hypothesis that internship structure would affect knowledge of the clinical supervision model. That is, the internship structure appears to have affected knowledge of the pre-observation component of the model, and to a lesser degree knowledge of the post-observation model. However, internship structure did not affect knowledge of the observation component.

Analysis of Supervision Reflections

All interns were required to submit monthly reflection papers to the university supervisors on their learning experiences during the course of their internship (See Appendix C). For this analysis, it is important to note that I was only able to acquire the

reflection papers for the first cohort of interns (N = 8 for the pre-service teachers group

and N = 10 for the in-service teachers group). First, for this study, all reflection papers

were read for any references to supervision experiences. The actual number of interns by

group that made any references in their reflection papers to supervision experiences is

presented in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8.   Supervision References in Reflection Papers by Group

Group	# of Interns	# of Interns Referencing Supervision
Pre-service teachers	8	6
In-service teachers	10	2

Note. All reflection papers from each intern were used for the table.

The table shows that most of the interns in the pre-service teachers group

referenced their supervision experiences while most of the interns in the in-service

teachers group did not reference their supervision experiences—this difference was

significant, $\chi^2(1) = 5.45$, $p = .02$.

Second, an inductive analysis was also conducted to derive concepts and themes

from the reflections (Thomas, 2006). The references to the supervision experiences were

also analyzed to determine the similarities and differences between the two groups in

their instructional supervision experiences. The inductive coding process revealed the

following four key themes on the instructional supervision experience in the pre-service

teachers group:

Time Consuming. Several interns in the pre-service teachers group shared that

they were spending an inordinate amount of time supervising several pre-service

teachers. A high school intern shared this reflection:

It's a headache balancing the seven student teachers and walking that fine line between being their evaluator, mentor, and most of all being co-workers with their mentor teachers. The biggest lessons I've learned are to document, and be very professional in any interaction with the student teacher.

Valuable Experience. Even though several interns in the pre-service teachers group found the experience challenging they also found the supervision experience very positive and valuable. A high school intern shared this reflection:

Currently, I have 3 that are in conflict with their mentor teachers and/or me, and I'm gaining a ton of valuable insight and experience. My personality lends itself to informality and joking, so I learned that needs to be tempered in these situations. I think this component of the internship is more work and frustrating than the entire class and remainder of internship. So, thanks (seriously, not sarcastically) because this is authentic and valuable.

Instructional Development. The reflections indicated that the pre-service teachers required specific attention by the intern in developing their instructional skills. One of the elementary interns shared:

I focused quite a bit on my supervisor role this month to complete the requirements for the internship semester for my student teacher. It's been interesting to feel the responsibility for the development and evaluation of a potential new teacher. I have tried to make the program structure meet her needs and be useful to her. It's difficult to know if I am structuring the experience to the expectations of the university but I feel confident that it is providing a good learning experience for the student teacher.

Confidence in Supervision. A final theme that emerged in the pre-service

teachers group was their confidence in the ability to provide effective instructional

supervision to the pre-service teachers. One middle school intern shared:

> *I am supervising three student teachers, and I am getting plenty of hours.*
> *My confidence in the observation process has increased dramatically. I*
> *feel that I am really helping these kids (student teachers) develop their*
> *skills. I know what I am talking about and they are getting what I'm*
> *saying. The process (pre through post observation) is time consuming. I*
> *can see why administrators have a difficult time getting into classrooms,*
> *but it seems so necessary, helpful, and rewarding for both parties.*

The in-service teachers group only had two interns reference their supervision

experiences. The following references indicate the frequency of practice and a increased

knowledge in instructional supervision:

> **Elementary Intern**: *After I got the schedules figured out, things have*
> *settled down. I have been doing some informal observations and will be*
> *doing a couple formal observations shortly.*

> **Elementary Intern***: I have had the opportunity to do a few classroom*
> *observations. I am feeling a little more competent in my ability to evaluate*
> *a classroom and observe good teaching strategies.*

These reflections provide more evidence that the internship structure led to

different kinds of experiences. The interns in the pre-service teachers group supervised

up to seven pre-service teachers during their internship and each pre-service teacher

required a significant amount of time for instructional supervision. These interns also

mentioned that they felt the full responsibility for the instructional development of their

pre-service teachers since the interns were hired as university supervisors. Several interns shared that their self-efficacy in the instructional supervision model increased with their additional practice. Their confidence and knowledge in the instructional supervision process was notable.

The two interns in the In-service teachers group shared that they were only able to do some informal observations in other classrooms. One of the interns reported "feeling a little more competent" in his ability to provide instructional supervision with teachers at his respective school.

It is evident that the pre-service teachers group had a different supervision experience with their pre-service teachers than the in-service teachers group had with the supervision of teachers at their respective schools. The frequency and depth of reporting for the pre-service teachers group revealed a rich experience in instructional supervision. The lack of frequency and depth for the in-service teachers group suggests that their experience in instructional supervision was minimal. These reflections suggest that the different structures provided very different experiences.

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

The purpose of this study was to empirically evaluate the effect of internship structure on interns' experience. This chapter provides a discussion of the results and also connects them with the existing research on instructional supervision. The discussion is organized around how the internship structure affected the quality of supervision practiced, beliefs about the importance of supervision, and knowledge of the supervision process. The final sections will consider the implications for leadership preparation programs, further research and conclusions.

Quality of Instructional Supervision

Leadership interns need to learn and have practice with the instructional supervision process, which involves a cycle of planning, observing, assessing, modifying and renewed planning (DiPaola & Hoy, 2008). Previous studies such as Browne-Ferrigno and Muth (2006) and Pounder and Crow (2005) conducted research that examined how leadership preparation programs could prepare aspiring leaders for greater roles in instructional leadership. Even though this research studied innovative changes in leadership programs they did not feature any specific changes in the structure of the internship that might enhance instructional leadership skills. Davis and Darling-Hammond (2012) investigated five innovative leadership preparation programs that featured collaborative internships between schools and the universities. These collaborative endeavors provided a school district's model for supervision for the interns

but they did not specifically change the instructional supervision experiences. The internship structure in this study was designed to offer a different instructional supervision experience for interns—and the results suggest it did. This is the first study to provide empirical evidence that the internship structure can affect aspiring leaders' supervision practice.

Regarding their self-reported differences in experience, on the observation and the post-observation scale, the pre-service teachers group made greater gains in comparison to the in-service teachers group. There was no difference in gains in the pre-observation scale between the groups. These results suggest that in two of the three parts of the clinical supervision model the interns benefitted from working with the pre-service teachers. Thus, this study identified an important tool available to programs to influence supervision experience.

The lack of difference between the groups in the pre-observation scale may be explained by the differences in the three phases of the clinical supervision model. The pre-observation phase is a conference the supervisor has with a teacher before the actual classroom observation. Even though this is an important phase, it is also the one part of the clinical supervision model that may be compromised due to the additional time needed to meet and discuss a lesson. Some researchers, understanding that school leaders have limited time, have advocated that supervisors focus on the observation phase of this instructional supervision process and encourage a short formative observation or walk-through without a pre-observation conference before the observation (Downey et al., 2004).

Beliefs about the Importance of Instructional Supervision

Previous research supports the importance of instructional supervision and it suggests that a school leader's main responsibility is to work with teachers on improving classroom instruction (Acheson & Gall, 2010 and Stein & Spillane, 2003). Instructional leadership and specifically instructional supervision was an emphasis in the university leadership preparation program in this study. The clinical supervision model was taught and practiced prior to the internship experience as a important skill for improving instruction, which may help explain why the groups felt supervision was important before and after in internship, and had similar beliefs about the importance of supervision.

The beliefs on the importance of supervision were examined using the same three scales for frequency, one for each component of the clinical supervision model: pre-observation, observation, and post-observation. In all three phases of the clinical supervision model, the internship structure did not affect the beliefs about the importance of supervision. Whether interns supervised pre-service teachers or teachers at their respective schools, both groups of interns held similar beliefs about the importance of supervision.

Since both groups had the same information and understanding on the importance of instructional supervision, it may not be a surprise to see that the pre-service teachers group and the in-service teachers group believed instructional supervision important. At the onset, each group appeared to have had supervision experiences during their internship that reinforced their beliefs on the importance of instructional supervision. Thus, although on-the-job experience can change a person's perceptions of what is important, the internship did not change interns' beliefs about the importance of

supervision. Interns in both groups entered the internship believing supervision is important and completed the internship holding similar beliefs.

Knowledge of Instructional Supervision Process

The interns in both groups were required to know and practice instructional supervision during their internship experiences. Even though the interns might use a school district's supervision instrument during their internship they were expected to be knowledgeable in the phases of the clinical supervision model from the university's required course that featured the clinical supervision model. Internship structure affected knowledge of the pre-observation component of the model, and to a lesser degree knowledge of the post-observation model.

Brown-Ferrigno and Muth (2006) conducted a qualitative study on a leadership preparation program that examined the effects on the learning progress of their students and the impact of their internship toward their learning. Reflective writings were collected from their students and analyzed for learning progress. Even though their results demonstrated that internships affect learning progress, it did not specifically address if the knowledge and use of instructional supervision were affected. The quantitative data in this study suggests that the internship structure affected knowledge of instructional supervision.

Knowledge of the pre-observation and post-observation components of the clinical supervision model were significantly greater for the pre-service teachers group than for in-service teachers group (although only marginally so for the post-observation scale). The pre-observation results may suggest that the supervision of pre-service teachers requires an additional emphasis in having a thorough pre-observation conference

before the observation. The lack of difference on the observation scale reflects that this specific instructional supervision experience for the interns may have been similar, or at least the difference in supervision experience did not affect knowledge of the observation process.

These results support the previous research by Browne-Ferrigno and Muth (2006) and Lave and Wegner (1991) that demonstrated how internships affect the understanding of a practice. Browne-Ferrigno and Muth (2006) showed that the knowledge of classroom instruction increased when leadership interns participated in authentic learning experiences. Interns in both groups had authentic experiences, but the pre-service teachers group may have had more supervision experience, which may have increase their knowledge of the supervision process.

Implications for Leadership Preparation Programs

Instructional supervision is an essential skill for school leaders in their role as instructional leaders in their schools. School leaders must have the skills to meet with teachers to discuss all aspects of a lesson in a pre-observation conference, then be knowledgeable in observing and looking for the many components in a lesson observation, and finally to analyze and meet with the teacher to discuss what was observed and be able to offer suggestions that improve instruction in a post-observation conference. Leadership preparation programs across the nation attempt to provide the knowledge and practice for their students in instructional supervision. Most programs provide classroom instruction and practice to address the content or knowledge of instructional supervision and some have collaborative efforts with local school districts to coordinate supervision experiences during the internship. The current study demonstrated

how a leadership preparation program collaborating with a teacher education program were able to provide a different experience in instructional supervision during the internship. The results suggest that the different internship structures successfully reinforced the classroom knowledge of instructional supervision, and suggest that other leadership preparation programs could use different internship structures to prepare aspiring school leaders in instructional supervision.

A key element in many current innovative leadership preparation programs is that they collaborate with local school districts on different internship structures. One common structural change is that the university will design an internship that is specifically designed for the leadership needs of a large local school district. The results in this study provide evidence that successful collaborations can also occur within the different units in a university to form different internship structures. The leadership preparation program and the teacher education program collaborated to benefit the objectives of both departments. That is, the teacher education program needed highly qualified university supervisors for their pre-service teachers—collaborating with the educational leadership program to create an internship for aspiring leaders helped satisfy the need to university supervisors. The pilot project provided 13 aspiring school leaders to serve as university supervisors. These aspiring school leaders provided supervision for the year they were in their internship. They also became part of the pool of university supervisors for subsequent pre-service teacher placements at their schools.

The teacher education program at most university places many pre-service teachers in many local schools and it usually has to hire supervisors outside of the university to support all of their pre-service teachers. An ongoing benefit of this

collaborative effort is that the teacher education program could continue to hire the former leadership intern as a university supervisor in successive years for pre-service teacher placements in their respective schools. Not only would this benefit the teacher education program, but it could also give the former leadership interns opportunities to practice in their instructional supervision skills as they seek administrative positions.

The results of this research provide evidence that the internship structures also benefitted the educational leadership program. Those interns who supervised pre-service teachers appear to have had a qualitatively different internship experience. They completed the internship with greater knowledge of the supervision process. Moreover, the reflection papers suggest they had greater confidence in their ability to supervise teachers after their internship. Given the goal of the program is to produce highly qualified instructional leaders, this internship model seems well aligned with the goals of the program.

Several challenges need to be addressed if this internship structure was to continue at this university. The reflection papers indicated that some of the leadership interns struggled with supervising as many as seven pre-service teachers at one time. It is questionable that any leadership intern is capable of providing enough instructional supervision for this many pre-service teachers during their internship experience. Thus, measures must be taken to regulate the number of pre-service teachers assigned to an intern. Teacher education and leadership preparation programs need to consider a manageable number of pre-service teachers that leadership interns supervise. Several interns also expressed a concern with the minimal instructional abilities in some of the pre-service teachers. It was evident in the reflections that some of the interns expected

pre-service teachers to have better instructional skills. The teacher education program needs to define a reasonable expectation on the instructional abilities of pre-service teachers to supervising leadership interns.

All things considered, this study serves as a model for future projects. The pilot project allowed for the competitive evaluation of two different internship models. The results provided empirical evidence to suggest that an educational leadership internship involving supervision of pre-service teachers provides an excellent experience for aspiring school leaders. There are undoubtedly other internship models available to programs. This study highlights the importance of gather data to evaluate the effectiveness of different models.

Implications for Further Research

One purpose of the current study was to build upon the existing research on preparing school leaders through internships in instructional supervision and to encourage additional research. The current study was the first step in examining how different internship structures affect the experience, beliefs, and knowledge of aspiring school leaders. It provided empirical evidence that the internship can be structured to support the goals of a program. The study should be done at other sites to attempt to replicate these findings.

The focus of this study was on the effects of the internship on aspiring school leaders. Additional research should focus on the effects of this kind of internship on pre-service teachers. Collecting data from pre-service teachers could provide valuable information for the teacher education program as well as the leadership preparation program that produce the supervisors.

The data in the current study suggests that the internship structure that assigned pre-service teachers to interns reinforced the leadership preparation program's specific objective that interns be skilled and knowledgeable in instructional supervision. Additional objectives could be identified in a leadership preparation program and internship structures could be modified to achieve the program's objective. For instance, if the objective was that interns needed to be highly skilled in building professional learning communities, than the internship structure could be modified to further this goal. Regardless of the objective, designing a study and gathering data to examine the effects of the different internships is crucial to the future of educational preparation programs.

Conclusion

Leadership preparation programs must prepare aspiring school leaders to be instructional leaders. Equipping these emerging leaders with instructional supervision skills is one strategy in improving the instructional practice of teachers. This study suggests that a leadership preparation program offering a different internship structure to aspiring school leaders affected the practice and knowledge of instructional supervision skills. This was only a first step in examining different internship models. The hope is that more research like this will evaluate other internship models and help define best practice for developing skills in instructional supervision.

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APPENDIX A

Supervision Survey

Survey Instructions:

The supervision of teacher instruction is challenging for administrators and administrative interns. Supervision has three phases: pre-observation, observation, and post-observation. I have included components from each phase in this survey. In your internship thus far, how many supervision experiences have you had?____ Think about your most recent supervision experiences. Select the rating that most reflects how frequently you implemented each component.

	Rating 1- I did not do this 2- I rarely do this 3- I usually do this 4- I often do this 5- I always do this				
Pre-Observation Conference					
1. I know the components of the pre-observation conference.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I have established a positive rapport with the teacher(s) I am supervising.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I have the pre-observation conference within 24 hours of the observation.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I give the teacher time to share about their classroom practice during the pre-observation conference.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I have a clear understanding of the learning objective from the pre-observation conference.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I know what the students will be doing during the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I am familiar with the instructional strategies the teacher plans to use during the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I know the student outcomes the teacher is expecting from the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I know the materials, technology, and resources the teacher is planning on using for the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I know how the room will be arranged (physically set up) to support the objective of the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I discuss how the teacher plans to address the various learning abilities amongst the students.	1	2	3	4	5

12. I know how the teacher will adapt or modify the lesson for special learning needs.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I know the classroom management system the teacher will use.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I know what type of assessment and artifacts (test, quiz, portfolio, project, and essay) the teacher will use to determine whether the objectives have been met for the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I know why the teacher chose the specific assessment to demonstrate mastery.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I inquire about an area of focus that the teacher wants observed in this specific lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I have identified with the teacher what data will be collected to measure the specific focus.	1	2	3	4	5
Observation	**Rating**				
1. I know the components of the observation phase of supervision.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I collect data that is objective and quantifiable during the observation.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I write selective verbatim notes to capture teachers' and/or students' actual words.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I track the physical movement of the teacher and students.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I include anecdotal notes on what occurs in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I collect data on the specific area of focus that the teacher identified in the pre-observation.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I collect data that addresses the objective of the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I record the details of statements made by the teacher and students.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I identify the level of questioning the teacher uses. I use Bloom's Taxonomy or another taxonomy as a reference.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I collect data on the wait time a teacher uses before calling on a student to answer a question.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I record the variations of instructional strategies the teacher uses.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I collect data on the effectiveness and efficiency of the transitions that occur during the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I record the strategies used to start and conclude the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I record the variety of grouping methodologies and/or cooperative learning strategies incorporated in the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I observe and take notes on student engagement throughout the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I record teacher student interactions to look for patterns of involvement and noninvolvement from students during	1	2	3	4	5

the lesson.					
17. I identify the resources, materials, and technologies used in the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
Post-Observation Conference			**Rating**		
1. I know the components of the post-conference phase of supervision.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I have the post-observation within 48 hours of the observation.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I review my notes and data collection before the post-observation conference.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I analyze the teaching process prior to meeting with the teacher.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I analyze the data on the specific area of focus that the teacher identified in the pre-observation.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I ask the teacher to self-reflect about the lesson prior to coming to the post-observation conference.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I prepare notes for the conference and select discussion strategies specific to the lesson observed.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I have identified possible strategies for ongoing growth and professional development opportunities for the teacher.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I engage in a collaborative dialogue with the teacher about the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I actively listen to the teacher during the conference.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I accurately present the data that I gathered to the teacher.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I frequently check for clarification and explanation of the data with the teacher.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I facilitate the teacher's self-analysis and reflection based on data.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I am willing to adjust my analysis based on the teacher input during the conference.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I share the strengths and weaknesses observed in the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I engage in constructive analysis of the teaching and learning process during the conference.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I collaborate with the teacher to identify specific actions to be taken for future lessons.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I keep the conference positive to build a rapport for future supervision experiences.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX B

Supervision Survey (Importance)

Survey Instructions:

The supervision of teacher instruction is challenging for administrators and administrative interns. Supervision has three phases: pre-observation, observation, and post-observation. I have included components from each phase in this survey. I need you to rate how important you believe each component is to your supervision of teacher instruction. Select the rating that reflects how important you see each component.

	Rating 1- Slightly Important 2- Somewhat Important 3- Important 4- Quite Important 5- Highly Important				
Pre-Observation Conference					
1. I know the components of the pre-observation conference.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I have established a positive rapport with the teacher(s) I am supervising.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I have the pre-observation conference within 24 hours of the observation.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I give the teacher time to share about their classroom practice during the pre-observation conference.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I have a clear understanding of the learning objective from the pre-observation conference.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I know what the students will be doing during the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I am familiar with the instructional strategies the teacher plans to use during the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I know the student outcomes the teacher is expecting from the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I know the materials, technology, and resources the teacher is planning on using for the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I know how the room will be arranged (physically set up) to support the objective of the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I discuss how the teacher plans to address the various learning abilities amongst the students.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I know how the teacher will adapt or modify the	1	2	3	4	5

lesson for special learning needs.					
13. I know the classroom management system the teacher will use.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I know what type of assessment and artifacts (test, quiz, portfolio, project, and essay) the teacher will use to determine whether the objectives have been met for the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I know why the teacher chose the specific assessment to demonstrate mastery.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I inquire about an area of focus that the teacher wants observed in this specific lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I have identified with the teacher what data will be collected to measure the specific focus.	1	2	3	4	5
Observation	**Rating**				
1. I know the components of the observation phase of supervision.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I collect data that is objective and quantifiable during the observation.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I write selective verbatim notes to capture teachers' and/or students' actual words.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I track the physical movement of the teacher and students.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I include anecdotal notes on what occurs in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I collect data on the specific area of focus that the teacher identified in the pre-observation.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I collect data that addresses the objective of the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I record the details of statements made by the teacher and students.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I identify the level of questioning the teacher uses. I use Bloom's Taxonomy or another taxonomy as a reference.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I collect data on the wait time a teacher uses before calling on a student to answer a question.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I record the variations of instructional strategies the teacher uses.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I collect data on the effectiveness and efficiency of the transitions that occur during the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I record the strategies used to start and conclude the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I record the variety of grouping methodologies and/or cooperative learning strategies incorporated in the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I observe and take notes on student engagement throughout the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I record teacher student interactions to look for patterns of involvement and noninvolvement from students during the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5

17. I identify the resources, materials, and technologies used in the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
Post-Observation Conference			**Rating**		
1. I know the components of the post-conference phase of supervision.	1	2	3	4	5
2. I have the post-observation within 48 hours of the observation.	1	2	3	4	5
3. I review my notes and data collection before the post-observation conference.	1	2	3	4	5
4. I analyze the teaching process prior to meeting with the teacher.	1	2	3	4	5
5. I analyze the data on the specific area of focus that the teacher identified in the pre-observation.	1	2	3	4	5
6. I ask the teacher to self-reflect about the lesson prior to coming to the post-observation conference.	1	2	3	4	5
7. I prepare notes for the conference and select discussion strategies specific to the lesson observed.	1	2	3	4	5
8. I have identified possible strategies for ongoing growth and professional development opportunities for the teacher.	1	2	3	4	5
9. I engage in a collaborative dialogue with the teacher about the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
10. I actively listen to the teacher during the conference.	1	2	3	4	5
11. I accurately present the data that I gathered to the teacher.	1	2	3	4	5
12. I frequently check for clarification and explanation of the data with the teacher.	1	2	3	4	5
13. I facilitate the teacher's self-analysis and reflection based on data.	1	2	3	4	5
14. I am willing to adjust my analysis based on the teacher input during the conference.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I share the strengths and weaknesses observed in the lesson.	1	2	3	4	5
16. I engage in constructive analysis of the teaching and learning process during the conference.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I collaborate with the teacher to identify specific actions to be taken for future lessons.	1	2	3	4	5
18. I keep the conference positive to build a rapport for future supervision experiences.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX C

Internship Log and Reflection

Each intern will submit six (6) internship logs and reflection papers.

In regard to the Internship Log: the left column is to brief state the activity (ex: IEP Meeting, Chaperoned a dance, attended district admin. meeting, Principal for the day), then put an "x" under the administrative standard(s) where you gained experience. You may have X's under more than one standard for an activity, that's ok. The right side column is for more detail - what did you do in the IEP meeting - did you take notes, were you admin. designee (if you were the classroom teacher, that does not count as admin hours!). What did you do at the dance - any discipline, community connections, etc. What items were covered at the admin. meeting. You get the point - just a little more detail about the experience you gained.

In regard to the Reflection Papers: please write a one-page reflection on your experiences as an administrator for that particular month, or time period. You may choose to highlight one event that stood out the most, or you may write a summary of all or most of the events. This is entirely up to you. The purpose of the reflection paper is two-fold: 1) so that you have time to reflect on your learning experience; and 2) to provide me with a more rich and personal narrative of your internship. I get far more out of these reflection papers than I do out of the Internship Log.

Logs and Reflections must be submitted to me electronically on the following dates:

Table C.1.   Time Periods and Due Dates for Intern Logs and Reflections

	TIME PERIOD	DUE DATE
1	August 1 – September 30	October 1
2	October	November 1
3	November	December 1
4	December 1 – January 31	February 1
5	February	March 1
6	March	April 1

If you have completed your 250 hours prior to April 1, 2014, then you do NOT need to submit a log or reflection. In other words, logs and reflections end when your internship hours are completed. If you are still counting hours in April, which is very common, please submit an Internship Log for April, but the Reflection Paper is not required. <u>I must have logs that show all 250 of your internship hours!</u>

I will provide electronic feedback to you to acknowledge that I received your log and reflection, and then again after I have read them over – typically within a week.

Any questions?