A Question-Based Framework for Co-Constructing Supervision in Clinically Based Teacher Preparation

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Rutten, L. (2022). A Question-Based Framework for Co-Constructing Supervision in Clinically Based Teacher Preparation. *Journal of Educational Supervision, 5*(1). [https://doi.org/10.31045/jes.5.1.4](https://doi.org/10.31045/jes.5.1.4)
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Logan Rutten

Abstract
The field of teacher education has embraced robust models of clinically based teacher preparation. In part because these models rely upon school-university partnerships for which shared missions are an essential component, they also demand increasingly complex, co-constructed conceptions of supervision to support teacher candidates’ learning during clinical practice. However, even as the need for supervision has grown, good supervision is seldom clearly defined. Many supervisors begin supervising largely underprepared for the complexity of their work in clinical settings. In response to these challenges, this paper proposes a framework for co-constructing supervision consisting of four key components—conceptions, models, tasks, and techniques—that could simultaneously inform supervision scholarship and offer a practical tool for building shared understandings of supervision in clinically based teacher preparation contexts.

Keywords
clinical education; clinical experiences; clinical practice; field experiences; preservice teacher education; supervision; teacher education
Introduction

Over a decade ago, the Blue Ribbon Panel of the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE, 2010) proclaimed the need to “turn teacher education upside down” (p. ii). In response, teacher educators heralded a “pivot toward clinical practice” (American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education [AACTE], 2018). The core proposition of clinical practice—that initial teacher preparation should take place through robust clinical experiences situated within school-university partnerships—demands that teacher candidates’ clinical practice be “well-supervised” (Darling-Hammond, 2014, p. 547). Burns (2012) has argued that supervision within the kinds of partnerships that enable high-quality clinical practice entails “complex leadership” that is “aimed at positively impacting the learning of all community members” (p. 39). While colleges of education have ostensibly embraced the proposition of clinical practice, many continue to undervalue supervision by assigning this complex leadership function to novice adjuncts, retired teachers, and graduate students (Slick, 1998; Wolkenhauer & Hooser, 2020).

One reason that supervisors are undervalued and underprepared is that good supervision is seldom clearly defined. While both the NCATE (2010) and the AACTE (2018) reports acknowledged the need for supervision, neither report articulated what good supervision entails. McIntyre and Byrd (1998) described a similar problem in the Handbook of Research on School Supervision. More recently, Burns and Badiali (2018) remarked that teacher preparation has “long suffered from a lack of a common lexicon perpetuated from ill-defined constructs” and that “the supervision of clinical experiences is no different” (p. 429).

This paper responds to the intertwined problems of underprepared supervisors and a lack of shared understandings of good supervision for clinically based teacher preparation. Other scholars have addressed these problems through empirical research (e.g., Burns & Badiali, 2019) and through research synthesis. In particular, the meta-analysis of Burns et al. (2016, 2020) has deepened the field’s insights into the nature and scope of supervision by offering a framework that synthesizes the tasks, high-leverage practices, and pedagogical routines reported in empirical articles. While this line of inquiry has brought the field up to date on what is known about supervision in preservice teacher education, one of its strengths is also a limitation. Through its emphasis on identifying and describing reported practices, meta-analysis offers an incomplete basis for supervisors to articulate and interrogate the assumptions underlying their day-to-day practices—work that is urgently needed because the “pivot” toward clinical practice requires that many programs of teacher preparation embrace new assumptions about the process of learning to teach. To complement the scholarship of Burns et al., this paper offers a conceptual approach to enhancing supervisory practice by describing a question-based framework—a structure that could be used to facilitate the process of co-constructing good supervision through reflection, deliberation, and inquiry. The paper’s purpose is not to argue for any particular approach; rather, its aim is to propose a tool for localized application and future research.

The framework in Table 1 synthesizes ideas from 20th century and more recent supervision scholarship (e.g., Fusarelli & Fusarelli, 2019; Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2019; Holland, 1998; Neville & Garman, 1998; Tracy, 1998). It includes four components that funnel from abstract to concrete: conceptions, models, tasks, and techniques. Each component is paired with a guiding
question that supervisors (and people who facilitate the professional learning of supervisors) could use as a spark for collaborative inquiry:

Table 1
A Framework and Guiding Questions for Co-Constructing Supervision

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Framework Component</th>
<th>Guiding Question</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conception of Supervision</td>
<td>What does it mean to supervise?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Model of Supervision</td>
<td>How could this conception be structured for action?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task of Supervision</td>
<td>What would supervisors need to do to enact this model?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technique of Supervision</td>
<td>How would supervisors go about performing these tasks?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1 illustrates how any given conception of supervision could theoretically be enacted through multiple models, each of which could include multiple tasks and techniques.

Figure 1
Conceptions, Models, Tasks, and Techniques of Supervision.

As a way to conceptualize the components of this framework and illustrate their potential application, this paper is structured around a series of three theoretical interludes that alternate with three vignettes. The interludes explain the framework’s components, while the vignettes illustrate a possible application of the framework by portraying a series of three conversations among a group of novice supervisors over the first weeks of their work together. The vignettes are fictitious and highly essentialized. They are offered not as an example of high-quality professional talk about supervision but as an illustration of a setting in which this paper’s framework could be useful.

Interlude 1 explains how the paper’s framework addresses a current need in clinically based teacher preparation. Vignette 1 portrays the fictitious novice supervisors’ first meeting, illustrating the tensions and confusions that can arise when such a framework is absent. Next, Interlude 2 defines the framework’s first two components, conceptions and models of supervision, after which Vignette 2 illustrates how these components might assist the supervisors in their next meeting. Interlude 3 defines tasks and techniques, then Vignette 3 applies these components to the supervisors’ third meeting. Following Vignette 3, the paper discusses some potential implications of this framework and concludes with an appendix to consolidate the
framework’s ideas into a single page that could be used to initiate worthwhile conversations among supervisors.

**Interlude 1: The Need for a Tool to Co-Construct Supervision**

Efforts to promote widely shared understandings of supervision have long been contested. Barott and Galvin (1998) articulated the inherent problem with any attempt to pin down a definition of supervision: a “simple definition belies a subject of enormous complexity” (p. 310). However, when left undefined, supervision does not disappear but becomes an “elusive concept” (Mosher & Purpel, 1972, p. 1) that “travel[s] incognito” under a variety of assumed names (Spears, 1953; Glanz & Hazi, 2019). This problem, too, has long been recognized; Pohland (1976) excoriated the 20\textsuperscript{th} century supervision literature for being “seriously deficient in proposing any well-articulated theory” (p. 1).

More recently, Mette (2019) observed that contemporary supervision scholarship lacks a core theoretical basis because it reflects at least five separate discourse communities. Within these communities, some scholars have criticized the very term “supervision,” emphasizing its historical relationships to inspection, surveillance, and bureaucratic control of teaching (Gordon, 1997; Waite, 1997). Others have advocated that supervision be abolished (Starratt, 1997). Still others have called for supervision to be reconceptualized as instructional leadership, coaching, mentoring, or collaborative inquiry (Gordon, 1992; Sergiovanni, 1992). Scholars working from postmodern perspectives have challenged the wisdom of any quest for widely shared understandings (Hazi, 1997), while scholars drawing from critical traditions have advanced supervision frameworks for equity and social justice (e.g., Cormier, 2019, 2020; Jacobs & Casciola, 2016; Lee, 2011).

Rather than attempting to unify supervision’s varied discourse communities under a single definition, this paper assumes that practicing supervisors can benefit from having a diverse array of useful tools available to guide local processes of working out what “well-supervised” means in a shared clinical setting. When supervisors are working in a shared context, as is increasingly common amid the pivot toward clinical practice, this working-out process is necessary because the proposition of clinical practice requires far more than extending the duration of traditional student teaching. According to Dennis et al. (2017), clinical preparation requires teacher educators to rethink how and where worthwhile knowledge of teaching is generated, and, consequently, what it means to supervise. Dennis et al. proposed a framework (Table 2) for classifying models of teacher preparation on the basis of their assumptions about clinical practice and its relationship to supervision.

According to Dennis et al. (2017), supervision in a clinically accompanied model typically involves supervisors who observe teacher candidates’ teaching a few times per semester, offer feedback, and evaluate their application of theoretical knowledge acquired from coursework. Although they require skilled campus-based teacher educators, clinically accompanied models do not assume the existence of highly skilled supervisors. In contrast, clinically rich and clinically centered models depend on the existence of school-university partnerships such as professional development schools (PDSs). Since these kinds of partnerships are characterized by shared missions and/or purposes (National Association for Professional Development Schools,
clinically rich and clinically centered models further assume that supervisors will collaborate in co-constructing shared meanings about their work in ways that traditional models of teacher preparation did not require because supervisors in these models commonly worked in isolation or performed more limited roles that ignored the contextual nature of learning to teach. The underexplored implication of this assumption is that supervisors need a means of building shared meanings about their work in a given clinical context. Vignette 1 contextualizes the tensions that can occur when supervisors lack such a means.

**Table 2**

*Four Models of Teacher Preparation (Adapted from Dennis et al., 2017)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>Assumptions about How People Learn to Teach</th>
<th>Emphasis on Clinical Practice</th>
<th>Supervision Needed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Clinically Impoverished</td>
<td>Teacher educators transmit objective knowledge of good teaching to teacher candidates for application in their future classrooms.</td>
<td>None.</td>
<td>None.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clinically Accompanied</td>
<td>Teacher candidates reconstruct and apply university-based knowledge of good teaching in their clinical settings.</td>
<td>Some.</td>
<td>Some; primarily limited to observation and feedback or evaluation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clinically Rich</td>
<td>Teacher candidates co-construct knowledge of good teaching with others in their clinical settings.</td>
<td>Robust.</td>
<td>Complex; supervisors co-teach with inservice teachers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clinically Centered</td>
<td>All teacher preparation program and school community members are lifelong learners who critically co-construct knowledge for renewal and transformation.</td>
<td>Intensive; clinical practice regarded as the core of learning to teach.</td>
<td>Highly complex, collaborative, and contextual.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Vignette 1: Searching for Shared Meaning in the New Supervisors’ First Meeting**

It is mid-August. Five newly hired supervisors from the local university are chatting around a conference table at a nearby school. The university and school have an emerging partnership, and both institutions have committed resources to building a clinically rich program of teacher preparation. Sandra, an experienced supervisor, is about to facilitate the first meeting of the new supervisors—three graduate students (Jamal, Julia, and Janet) and two retired teachers (Monique and Mark) whom the university has hired as adjuncts. Sandra calls the meeting to order.
Welcome, everyone. We have a lot to discuss! Let’s start with the supervisors’ handbook and the basic job requirements from the clinical placement office. We need to observe at least one lesson per week for each of our teacher candidates. The forms are in the back.

Julia: What forms?
Janet: I’ll bet they’re for evaluating lessons.
Julia: That’s not what I thought supervising was about.
Mark: I did evaluations all the time when I was a mentor teacher. It’s just an opportunity to give teacher candidates feedback.
Julia: Maybe, but I’m not sure evaluation and feedback is as important as helping teacher candidates reflect critically on their own teaching…
Monique: I’m with Julia. I think this job is about teaching teacher candidates to reflect and inquire.
Janet: But don’t we also need to make sure our teacher candidates can apply the “best practices” they’ve learned in their methods courses?
Monique: Maybe, but I’m actually not so sure. Doesn’t that ignore the voices of teacher candidates? What about mentor teachers, P-12 students, and parents and guardians?
Julia: Why are we even starting with forms and handbooks and evaluations? What if instead we talked about purposes of our work and what we’re here to do?
Mark: That’s a good point. Doesn’t this partnership already have a mission statement?
Sandra: You’re right, Mark. Yeah—it’s here on the first page of the handbook.
Monique: Maybe we should start by reading and discussing that.
Jamal: And what about the school’s needs? And the university’s new strategic plan for teacher education? If we are going to supervise together in this partnership, I think we’ll need some shared ideas about what we’re doing and why.

Interlude 2: Conceptions and Models of Supervision

Like so many other supervisors, the supervisors in Vignette 1 are about to begin supervising with minimal preparation for their work, and they are operating from divergent perspectives on the meaning of supervision. Since they will be supervising teacher candidates’ clinical practice within the same partnership, however, they need a basis for working through their differences in a productive manner. The framework in Table 1 (above) offers one possible basis—four building blocks that could help the new supervisors begin co-constructing what it means to supervise together. The following interlude, Interlude 2, explicates the first two of the framework’s components: conceptions and models.

Conceptions of Supervision

A conception of supervision is a constellation of assumptions pertaining to a broad range of issues that include but are not limited to the purposes of schooling in the clinical context, the sociocultural factors influencing teaching and learning in the clinical context, the proper relationship of supervisors to teachers or teacher candidates, and the means by which supervisors should strive to effect change. A conception of supervision reflects elements of a person’s or group’s worldview—understandings of the nature of reality, views about how knowledge is
obtained and what knowledge is worth obtaining, convictions about living a good life, and beliefs about what values are worth pursuing. A conception of supervision also encapsulates more specific values, ideologies, and perspectives about the purposes of schooling, the nature of good teaching, and how people learn to teach.

Similar to personal theories—educational philosophies (e.g., Glickman et al., 2018) and educational platforms for supervisors (e.g., Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007)—a conception of supervision encompasses supervisors’ beliefs and perspectives that inform their practices. In the context of clinically based teacher preparation, a conception, in contrast to a personal theory, encompasses both individual and group dimensions. The guiding question for a conception of supervision is: What does it mean to supervise? Supervisors formulating conceptions of supervision may consider broad questions such as:

- What ought to be the purposes of schools? This particular school? This school-university partnership? Who should be involved in deciding?
- What purposes are valued here (i.e., in this school, this partnership, this teacher education program)?
- How are historical, cultural, social, and political factors influencing our thinking about purposes?
- What should be taught to whom?
- What kinds of learning are necessary and valued here?
- What kinds of teaching are necessary and valued here?
- By what means do teachers learn, grow, and change?
- How does our thinking about these questions relate to the particular people we are teaching in this context?
- What is our role in supporting this learning?
- How could we know whether we are succeeding?

In addition to these kinds of questions, two additional core issues are addressed in a conception of supervision: the conception’s theory of change and its degree of conflation with evaluation. First, a theory of change answers a key question: By what means should a supervisor strive to improve teaching? According to Gordon (1997), 20th century scholars of supervision were broadly divided into two camps representing different theories of change that remain relevant in contemporary conceptions of supervision: control theorists and collegial theorists. Control theorists assume that the most effective way to improve teaching is by directing teachers’ behavior. In contrast, collegial theorists assume that the most effective ways to improve teaching involve trusting relationships, collaboration, shared reflection, and inquiry.

A second core issue addressed in a conception of supervision is the relationship between supervision and evaluation. According to Nolan and Hoover (2004), seven dimensions distinguish supervision from evaluation (purpose, rationale, scope, relationship, data focus, expertise, and perspective); Burns and Badiali (2015) added an eighth dimension (degree of action). Along each of these dimensions, a conception of supervision is conflated with evaluation to the degree that it emphasizes evaluative practices (e.g., protecting students from incompetence, offering judgments, directing, doing supervision to teachers) above supervisory practices (e.g., supporting growth, analyzing teaching, facilitating groups, encouraging risk
taking, doing supervision with teachers). Some scholars view supervision and evaluation as compatible functions and roles (e.g., Oliva, 1993), while others strive to keep them separate (e.g., Burns & Badiali, 2018; Nolan & Hoover, 2004).

Two concrete examples will illustrate the significance of the assumptions embedded in a conception of supervision. These examples were chosen because they offer a stark contrast in their fundamental assumptions about supervision and can therefore demonstrate how this paper’s framework could be used as a basis for comparing and contrasting comparable aspects of supervisory theory and practice across distinct conceptions.

First, human relations supervision is a conception with historical antecedents in Elton Mayo’s work at the Hawthorne Works in Chicago in the 1920s. In Mayo’s research, workers manufacturing electric telephone relays increased their productivity as their supervisors involved them in the factory’s decision-making processes and considered their needs for comfort and socialization. As Mayo’s conception of human relations supervision has been taken up within schools, it involves addressing teachers’ job satisfaction and motivation, as well as their need for supportive colleagues (Nolan & Hoover, 2004; Oliva, 1993; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007; Wiles, 1955; Wiles & Lovell, 1975). This conception of supervision is rooted in a collegial theory of change and typically separates supervision from evaluation.

A second conception is developmental supervision, represented by the work of Glickman et al. (2018), who define supervision as assistance for the enhancement of teaching and learning. An underlying proposition of this conception is that teachers exhibit varying levels of development across many different dimensions and that a goal of supervision is to promote development toward higher levels. Accordingly, developmental supervisors continually adjust their supervisory behaviors to teachers’ developmental levels. According to Glickman et al., “The long-term goal of developmental supervision is teacher development toward a point where teachers, facilitated by supervisors, can assume full responsibility for instructional improvement” (p. 176). Developmental supervision does not subscribe to a precise set of answers to the key questions underlying a conception of supervision. Rather, it emphasizes continual growth, drawing upon both collegial and control theories of change.

Models of Supervision

Whereas a conception of supervision frames the practically unlimited range of assumptions that are embedded in supervisory practice, a model of supervision organizes a given conception’s assumptions into something more concrete. While all supervisors work from some kind of conception, whether clearly articulated or not, a model is explicitly articulated. It represents an intentional operationalization of a conception of supervision and thereby offers an overview of the scope of supervisory activities that align with a particular conception. The guiding question for a model of supervision is: How could this conception be structured for action? Supervisors constructing a model of supervision may consider questions such as:

- What knowledge, skills, and dispositions do we need to develop to enact our conception of supervision?
- Where, when, and with whom does supervision take place?
• How important is understanding culture and context?
• How important is structuring for equity?
• What role does community play in our supervision?
• Who is/is not involved in enacting our conception?
• What tasks are necessary to enact our conception?
• How do the tasks in this model relate to one another?

Continuing the preceding examples of human relations and developmental supervision, one possible answer to the question, “How could human relations supervision be structured for action?” would be to adopt Cogan’s (1973) clinical supervision model. Cogan framed his conception of human relations supervision, in part, as “continuing education” and “professional company for the teacher” (p. 21-22). Cogan structured his conception for action by developing an eight-phase, cyclical model. Cogan’s model entails establishing a relationship, lesson planning, planning for the observation of instruction, observing instruction, analyzing instruction, planning for a post-observation conference, conferring, and planning changes for the future.

Just as Cogan (1973) proposed a model of supervision aligned with his conception of human relations supervision, so Glickman et al. (2018) proposed a model (i.e., the SuperVision and Successful Schools model) aligned with their conception of developmental supervision. Glickman et al.’s model requires that supervisors develop prerequisite knowledge, interpersonal skills, and technical skills. The function of supervision, derived from the model’s developmental conception, is enacted through six technical tasks and three cultural tasks, which, through their unification, address both individual and school/community goals.

Conceptions and models of supervision provide a basis for a deeper understanding of the tensions among the new supervisors from Vignette 1. The supervisors have differing conceptions of what it means to supervise and, consequently, what it would mean to enact their differing conceptions. Some of the new supervisors (e.g., Mark) appear to be working from a control theory of change, while others (e.g., Julia) are working more from a collegial theory of change. Some (e.g., Janet) have conflated supervision with evaluation, while others (e.g., Monique) seem to view these as separate functions. Vignette 2 now illustrates how the framework components of conceptions and models of supervision could support the new supervisors’ next conversation.

**Vignette 2: Scoping Supervision in the New Supervisors’ Second Meeting**

Sandra: Welcome back, everyone! When we ended last time, Mark and Jamal were encouraging us to think about our purposes and review our partnership’s mission statement. I’d like to propose that, at each of our meetings, we carve out some dedicated time to learning together about our own supervision. Together, we’ll develop our individual and shared conceptions of supervision, and we’ll work together to build a model for what good supervision looks like in our partnership. Why don’t we start building our conception of supervision by reflecting on a couple of core questions about what we think we’re here to do?
Please take one of these index cards, and write down some bullet points in response to the question, “What does it mean to supervise?” Let’s do this silently, then pass our cards to the left. The next person can write a comment or question. Keep passing until your card returns to you.

[10 minutes elapse.]

Now that the cards have gone around, what did you notice? What do you wonder?

**Jamal:** A lot of folks wrote about helping teacher candidates learn. That’s totally different from what supervision meant to me when I was a student teacher—getting evaluated a few times during the semester.

**Mark:** Yeah, that’s a totally different meaning than I had in mind at first. I like it. Maybe we still need to write up observation forms, but let’s keep our focus on learning.

**Monique:** So, when we say “supervision,” we mean “supporting teacher candidates’ learning about teaching”?

**Julia:** I think so, but I also think we could include all members of our partnership in that—teachers, students, ourselves... Maybe our focus is on learning together—learning for everyone in our partnership.

**Sandra:** Let’s take this a step further. I’m hearing agreement that supervision is about supporting learning, but learning for what? Let’s add to the cards in response to another question, “What are the most important purposes of schools?”

[10 minutes elapse.]

What did you notice this time?

**Janet:** Well, I can see that Mark and I are pretty much on the same page, but Monique and I have different ideas about the most important purposes of schools. I think that schools should emphasize making all kids ready for college.

**Sandra:** Why do you think that, Janet?

**Janet:** I’m honestly not sure. That was in my old school’s mission statement. It sure seems important...

**Monique:** I’m not saying that’s not important, but I wrote that a more important purpose is to remediate inequities throughout our partnership.

**Jamal:** Tell us more, Monique.

**Monique:** Well, as I reviewed the handbook and our partnership’s mission statement, I saw that’s a core part of our mission. There are deep inequities across many different areas in our partnering schools and in the college of education. I think it needs to be a top priority.

**Julia:** I agree with Monique. Making our partnership more equitable needs to be a core part of our work.

**Sandra:** Since we seem to agree that supervision involves supporting learning and creating more equitable outcomes, let’s make that our starting place, then try to build a model that could help us get there. What kinds of things would we have to focus on doing to support more equitable outcomes?

**Jamal:** I think we need to build and sustain a strong community where everyone feels welcomed as a learner.

**Janet:** I agree with that. I just moved here for grad school, so I’m new. I don’t know much about the current issues in this community, so I would add that I probably need to develop deeper knowledge of the schools where we are working and the
people we are teaching. Maybe we could include something about “learning about our context”?

**Mark:** How about reflection and inquiry? I think supervisors should help teacher candidates learn how to think systematically about their own teaching.

**Jamal:** I like these. We’ve developed quite a list already, and I think we should also add observing teaching. How can we do any of these things, let alone address inequities, if we’re not taking a close look at classroom practices?

**Monique:** I don’t necessarily disagree, Jamal, but what about taking a good look at the structures and policies of our partnership itself, like processes for recruiting teacher candidates or hiring teachers, not to mention what’s in the formalized curriculum. Maybe equity work needs to happen at multiple levels.

**Julia:** Well, so far, we’ve said a key part of our shared conception is addressing inequities. We’ve also said that building community, learning about the context, inquiry, observation, and structuring for equity are important things we think we need to do. Next time we meet, let’s list out these ideas on some chart paper and see what else we think is still missing.

**Interlude 3: Tasks and Techniques of Supervision**

Vignette 2 illustrated how the first two components of the framework (i.e., “conception” and “model”) could provide a starting point for supervisors as they begin to build shared understandings of supervision. Similar conversations among supervisors in actual partnerships could be sparked by considering the questions in the appendix. Deliberating their conceptions and building a coherent model would be a long-term undertaking for any group of supervisors—far more extensive than what the vignettes suggest—but even if the supervisors had somehow reached a shared conception of supervision by the end of their second meeting and begun to build a model of how to enact that conception, they would still need a basis for deciding what to do and how to allocate their time when they are in clinical settings. The supervisors in the vignette will need to figure out how to supervise in ways that are aligned with their conception and emerging model. The third and fourth components of the framework, tasks and techniques of supervision, provide additional tools to help them think about their practices at a more granular level.

**Tasks of Supervision**

A task is a specific aspect of a model of supervision that must be addressed to enact that model. At the task level, supervision resembles a to-do list for supervisors to consider as they plan their work. The guiding question addressed by a task of supervision is: What would supervisors need to do to enact this model? Supervisors identifying tasks need to consider questions such as:

- How important is classroom observation?
- How important is practitioner inquiry?
- How important is professional development?
- How important is leading change?
- How important is X?
- What other activities or processes are necessary?
Tasks can be generated theoretically by supervisors in a particular context as they build a model aligned with their conception of supervision, but tasks can also be derived from scholarly literature. For example, in their meta-analysis, Burns et al. (2016) defined tasks as “the areas that need to be addressed in order to create the clinical context needed to meet PST [preservice teacher] learning needs” (p. 416). Their study identified five tasks: targeted assistance, individual support, collaboration and community, curriculum support, and research for innovation.

Since tasks are the specific aspects of a model of supervision, they typically carry labels indicating processes for which a supervisor is responsible within a particular model. Continuing Interlude 2’s examples, a supervisor who wishes to enact human relations supervision through Cogan’s (1973) model would perform tasks that Cogan associated with each of his model’s eight phases. Some of these include developing self-knowledge, gaining knowledge about the teacher, observing and analyzing teaching, and conferencing. In contrast, a supervisor who wishes to enact developmental supervision through Glickman et al.’s (2018) SuperVision and Successful Schools model would engage in six technical tasks (direct assistance, evaluation of teaching, group development, professional development, curriculum development, and action research) and three cultural tasks (facilitating change, addressing diversity, and building community).

**Techniques of Supervision**

Once tasks have been identified, supervisors still need technical know-how to execute their tasks. *Techniques* provide that means and can be defined as specific procedures or routines for performing or addressing a task. Techniques are the means by which the perspectives embedded within the tasks that comprise a model are translated into action. The guiding question for techniques is: How would supervisors go about performing these tasks? At the level of techniques, supervisors can engage in deliberations about specific ways of approaching particular tasks. For instance, supervisors whose models include a task involving classroom observation could deliberate technical questions about how to conduct an observation. Their questions might include:

- On what basis are the purposes and foci of an observation determined?
- In what ways do we collect observational data?
- How do we structure post-observation conferences?

Techniques often carry specific names, such as “mediative questioning” (Costa & Garmston, 2002) or “critical incident analysis” (Cogan, 1973). For tasks involving observation, Acheson and Gall (1997) articulated three techniques for collecting data: wide-lens techniques, selective verbatim, and visual diagramming. A supervisor might perform part of the observing instruction task from Cogan’s model using Acheson and Gall’s visual diagramming technique. Specifically, a supervisor might use a seating chart to code a teacher candidate’s classroom interactions with students. Later, the supervisor would perform Cogan’s conferring task using a different technique, such as role-playing or Socratic questioning. The same visual diagramming technique could be embedded within the direct assistance task of Glickman et al.’s (2018) model. However, the meaning of the technique would vary according to the model in which it is enacted. For instance, within Glickman et al.’s model, visual diagramming could lead to the supervisor’s
proposal that the teacher consider a cycle of action research, whereas in Cogan’s model, it might lead to another cycle of clinical supervision.

The framework’s components of tasks and techniques of supervision provide a basis for the new supervisors in the vignettes to articulate and analyze their practices more precisely in relation to their conceptions of supervision. As Vignette 2 illustrated, the supervisors do not have shared meaning surrounding every aspect of their work, but they have nevertheless been able to develop some of the components of a model of supervision. The final vignette, Vignette 3, illustrates how the ideas of tasks and techniques of supervision could help the supervisors funnel their conversation from the abstract to the concrete, while providing a rich basis for ongoing discussion.

**Vignette 3: Discussing Details of Supervisory Practice in the New Supervisors’ Third Meeting**

Jamal, Julia, Janet, Monique, Mark, and Sandra have gathered for their third meeting, and they have been working together on some chart paper to sketch out a model that represents what they think it means to supervise in their school-university partnership. Sandra starts to notice some commonalities, to which she calls the group’s attention.

**Sandra:** When we left off last time, we had started to list some of the parts of our model of good supervision. Today we’ve been putting those on chart paper, and we have lots of bubbles and circles and connecting lines starting to take shape! As I look at what we’ve done so far, I’m starting to notice some clusters of similar ideas. I see one here: a group of ideas suggesting that we believe we need to build relationships, trust, and community. Could we group those together as a task of “building community?”

**Jamal:** That works. I see another group of ideas suggesting that we need to support our teacher candidates before, during, and after their teaching. Let’s call that a task of “assisting with instruction.”

**Monique:** I see a group here about reflection, inquiry, and analyzing teaching. Maybe we could call that task “facilitating inquiry”?

**Sandra:** Let’s be sure to consider what’s not included here. Whose perspectives are missing? What else might we have forgotten to consider?

**Jamal:** I don’t see anything here about working with students or parents or guardians. Is that something we should be considering?

**Janet:** I think it is. But I’m not certain what my role would be in doing that. Could we talk more about that one?

**Sandra:** We can definitely talk about that…

**Mark:** Oh, here’s another group. This one’s the ideas we talked about last time about working toward greater equity throughout our partnership. For now, let’s call that a task of “advancing equity.” Maybe we draw that as a bubble that includes all the other tasks, to show that we’re embedding that one in everything we do?

**Sandra:** I’m going to push us to be increasingly specific on each of these. For example, when we say that a task of supervision is “building community” or “facilitating inquiry” or “advancing equity” or “assisting with instruction,” what, exactly, does
that mean? And how could we go about doing it? For starters, what kinds of
techniques do you use when you observe instruction?

Janet: Well, I often log particularly interesting moments that happen when I’m supervising so I can debrief them later in a post-observation conference.

Monique: I do that, too! Sometimes I tally which students my teacher candidate calls on, so that we can analyze those data together later.

Julia: Another technique I use is during the pre-observation conference. I meet with my teacher candidates before they teach, and I have them rehearse their lesson plan and explain their planning out loud.

Mark: I hadn’t thought of that before.

Monique: Yeah, there’s a lot here I hadn’t considered either. What if, at each of our meetings, we focus on one of these tasks and really break it down together?

Implications

Other scholars have recently called for increased attention to teacher educator and supervisor learning. The framework outlined in this paper could contribute to various emerging approaches for enhancing the professional learning of supervisors. In particular, practitioner inquiry (Cochran-Smith et al., 2020; Conklin, 2021; Dana & Yendol-Hoppey, 2020; Dresden et al., 2019; Jacobs et al., 2015; Rutten, 2021a, 2021b; Wolkenhauer et al. 2020), duoethnography (e.g., Higgins et al., 2018; Long et al., 2021; Lloyd et al., 2021) and self-study (Butler & Diacopoulos, 2016; Diacopoulos & Butler, 2020; Diacopoulos et al., 2021; Dinkelman et al., 2012; Snow et al., 2020) have been identified as potentially effective mechanisms for supporting teacher educators’ professional learning. The questions in the paper’s framework offer potential starting points for each of these approaches.

The paper’s framework could also be used as a basis for future empirical research about the relationships between supervisors’ professional talk and their enacted practices. While previous research has already examined how supervisors’ perspectives can be transformed over time (e.g., Burns & Badiali, 2019) and how individual supervisors enact supervision (e.g., Burns, 2012), fewer studies have examined how groups of supervisors in a shared clinical context go about co-constructing their supervision, the role of their professional talk in doing so, or how the meanings they build together actually play out in their supervision. This paper’s framework could be used by a facilitator (such as Sandra from the vignettes) to structure an ongoing series of conversations among a group of supervisors, which could be recorded and analyzed to understand how they build shared meaning about their work and how these meanings relate to their supervision. The framework could also provide a basis for comparative case studies of individual supervisors to understand how individual conceptions of supervision are shaped by group conceptions and other influences in a clinical setting.
### Table A1

**A Framework and Guiding Questions for Co-Constructing Supervision**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Framework Component</th>
<th>Guiding Question</th>
<th>Possible Questions to Spark Discussion, Reflection, and Inquiry (Not an Exhaustive List)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Conception of Supervision | What does it mean to supervise? | • What ought to be the purposes of schools/this particular school/our school-university partnership? Who should be involved in deciding?  
• What purposes are valued here (i.e., in this school, this partnership, this teacher education program)?  
• How are historical, cultural, social, and political factors influencing our thinking about purposes?  
• What should be taught to whom?  
• What kinds of learning are necessary and valued here?  
• What kinds of teaching are necessary and valued here?  
• By what means do teachers learn, grow, and change?  
• How does our thinking about these questions relate to the particular people we are teaching in this context?  
• What is our role in supporting this learning?  
• How could we know whether we are succeeding? |
| Model of Supervision | How could this conception be structured for action? | • What knowledge, skills, and dispositions do we need to develop to enact our conception of supervision?  
• Where, when, and with whom does supervision take place?  
• How important is understanding culture and context?  
• How important is structuring the model for equity?  
• What role does community play in our supervision?  
• Who is/is not involved in enacting our conception?  
• What tasks are necessary to enact our conception?  
• How do the tasks in this model relate to one another? |
| Task of Supervision | What would supervisors need to do to enact this model? | • How important is classroom observation?  
• How important is practitioner inquiry?  
• How important is professional development?  
• How important is leading change?  
• How important is X?  
• What other activities or processes are necessary? |
| Technique of Supervision | How would supervisors go about performing these tasks? | • For each task:  
  o Do we currently do this? If so, why and how?  
  o How did this come to be the way we do this?  
  o Who benefits from doing it this way?  
  o How can we do this in a way that reflects our conception of supervision? |
References


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