

**LEVERAGING AN OVERLOOKED ALLY: EXAMINING THE ROLES AND
TRAINING OPPORTUNITIES FOR UNIVERSITY SUPERVISORS OF STUDENT
TEACHERS**

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University supervisors of student teachers are an essential component in teacher education, yet they are often contingent faculty who are outsiders to the university and receive little training or preparation for their work. This context is troubling because supervisors' work is complex, multifaceted, and must bridge theory and methods coursework with clinical experiences. This study examined several facets surrounding university supervisors' work: (1) Supervisors' central roles and functions, (2) The tensions that exist between supervisors' role definitions and their efficacy, (3) Formal and informal training supports for supervisors, and (4) Supervisors' suggestions for training opportunities, organizational reforms, and policy initiatives to support their work. I conducted a case study of a teacher education program at a Research I institution in the Northeast that included survey, interview, and document analysis. Data from 28 supervisors and two co-directors of teacher education revealed that supervisors embodied the instructional coach role and, to a lesser but still important extent, the counselor / mentor and socializer into the profession roles. All supervisors acknowledged that they complete the basic functions of evaluation, but they do not appear to adopt the evaluator role. Interestingly, second career supervisors also embodied a service role whereby they view their work similar to volunteering.

The primary tension supervisors faced occurred when their duty to evaluate student teachers interfered with other roles that they felt were more central to their work. Overall, supervisors did not receive significant formal training for their work, and most relied on individual communications with program coordinators or other supervisors for informal support. A lack of training allowed supervisors to retain their practitioner identities and avoid developing university-based, teacher educator identities. Finally, supervisors did not offer substantive suggestions for organizational reforms or policy initiatives to support their work, likely because their practitioner identity resulted in a high level of efficacy despite a lack of training. Moving forward, I suggest administrators at comparative universities clarify roles for supervisors, provide organizational supports for supervisor training and identity development, and maximize the use-value of evaluation for both supervisors and student teachers, thereby successfully leveraging supervisors to support student teacher development.

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PREFACE

A faculty member at the University of Pittsburgh recently told me that only 1% of the population of the United States holds a PhD and that 70% of students who begin a doctoral program do not finish. As I complete the final requirements for graduation, I remember how difficult this journey has been at times, and I realize that I have arrived at this place only because of the support from faculty in the School of Education, the encouragement from family and friends, and the grace and faithfulness of God. To say thank you in an acknowledgements section feels like woefully inadequate recompense for the years of dedication, guidance, training, love, and patience, so I will be clear that the impact of the following faculty, friends, and family have had on me extends far beyond this preface and those words will be expressed in another space.

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1.0 INTRODUCTION

1.1 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

University supervisors are an essential component of teacher education (Bailey, 2006; Tang, 2003; Youngs & Bird, 2010) and perform a variety of roles and functions as they support student teacher¹ growth. They act as instructional coaches (Akcan & Tatar, 2010; Baecher, McCormack, & Kung, 2014; Bailey, 2006; Fayne, 2007; Lutovac, Kaasila, & Juuso, 2015), socialize student teachers into the teaching profession (Bailey, 2006; Enz, Freeman, & Wallin, 1996; McNamara, 1995), negotiate between the PK-12 site and the university site (Talvitie, Peltokallio, & Mannisto, 2000), report to program administrators regarding the mentor teachers² and school sites (Talvitie et al., 2000), and provide socioemotional support to student teachers (Bailey, 2006; Caires & Almeida, 2007; Fayne, 2007; Gelfuso, Parker, & Dennis, 2015; Mudavanhu, 2015; Nonis & Jernice, 2011). Furthermore, the clinical and shared supervision models, which include the classic triad of student teacher, mentor teacher, and university supervisor, are nearly ubiquitous today and have been in place for the past half-century (Acheson & Gall, 2003). The preference for and longevity of these models reinforce the claim that supervisors are valued members of teacher education programs.

¹ While I recognize there are multiple terms used to describe student teachers (e.g. pre-service teacher, intern, teacher learner), I use the term, student teacher, because that is the language the participants in this study used.

² While I recognize other scholars refer to these practitioners as cooperating teachers, I use the term, mentor teacher, because that is the language the participants in this study used.

Findings from empirical studies echo the importance of supervisors. Fayne (2007) reported that student teachers felt their supervisors were very important in developing their skills and knowledge in the practicum experience. Furthermore, Smith and Lev-Ari (2005) found that the majority of student teachers believed their supervisors were supportive during the practicum to a large extent, and Talvitie et al. (2000) reported supervisors have a “substantial influence” (p. 80) on student teacher development. Supervisors “interact constantly” (Akcan & Tatar, 2010, p. 36) with student teachers in planning, professional development, giving feedback, evaluation, and even in teaching university courses. In addition, education theorists position supervisors as critical actors (Baecher et al., 2014), a critical friend (Schneider & Parker, 2013), a knowledgeable other (Gelfuso et al., 2015), a consultant (Foster, 1969), and a colleague (Cogan, 1973), all of which underscore the importance of supervisors in the teacher education endeavor.

Despite the heavy reliance upon supervisors in teacher education programs, university supervisors are for the most part overlooked and ignored. Supervisors receive very little training for their work (Danielowich & McCarthy, 2013; Goldhammer, 1969; Mudavanhu, 2015) or feedback on their performance (Conderman, Katsiyannis, & Franks, 2001). Furthermore, as largely graduate students and adjunct faculty (Baecher et al., 2014; Conderman, Morin, & Stephens, 2005; Gelfuso et al., 2015; Tom, 1997; Zeichner, 2010), supervisors can be seen as or feel like they are not a part of the university. Slick’s (1997, 1998a, 1998b) work repeatedly found that supervisors function as and feel like outsiders to both the PK-12 site, because they are no longer practitioners there, and to the university site, because they are not full-time faculty. Scholars have pointed out that supervisors actively work in two different spaces, the university and the field placement site, and supervisors may not have agency in either space (Guillaume &

Rudney, 1993; McNamara, 1995; Slick, 1997; Zeichner, 2010) or have the agency to change their role as outsiders (Beck & Kosnik, 2002).

I hypothesize a few reasons for this. It may be that teacher education programs pay little attention to university supervisors because they generally occupy subordinate positions and low-status roles at the university (e.g. adjunct faculty, graduate students, retired PK-12 teachers and administrators) (Baecher et al., 2014; Conderman et al., 2005; Gelfuso et al., 2015; Steadman, 2006; Steadman & Brown, 2011; Zeichner, 2010). In fact, one study found that when full-time faculty supervise student teachers, the work is relegated to junior faculty (Conderman et al., 2005). One program administrator in the present study confided: “I would be discouraged from supervising” even if she wanted to, because it is not a valuable use of her time. Thus, in addition to the low-status of part-time supervisors, there appears to be a bias against supervising for full-time faculty in some teacher education programs (Slick, 1997; Zeichner, 2010). The work of supervising student teachers is thus outsourced to those who are willing to accept part-time status and low pay. These can include graduate students who assume supervisory duties as part of an assistantship or stipend, adjunct faculty who are often desperate to get a foot in the door at a university and accept any opportunity in hopes that it will lead to full-time work, and retired teachers and administrators who want to stay involved in education as they transition from full-time work to full-time retirement. Therefore, the available labor pool makes it easy for teacher education programs to fill low-status and low-paying supervisor positions.

However, it may be just as likely that supervisors are ignored at the university due to the assumption that their teaching or administrative careers prepared them to supervise, so they do not need extensive training, attention, or feedback on their work (Zeichner, 2005). Program administrators may purposefully hire supervisors who have strong teaching backgrounds with the

belief that the work of supervising student teachers is similar enough to the work of classroom teaching and with the confidence that those supervisors will be successful without extensive oversight. Recent studies of former classroom teachers transitioning to university supervisors suggest that supervisors often do approach their work from a practitioner perspective and instinctively fall back on their career experiences to guide their work (Cuenca, 2011; Ritter, 2007; Williams, 2014). Furthermore, teacher education program administrators are likely teaching their own courses, pursuing their own research agenda, and performing key administrative duties for the program, so they may not have additional time to spend with supervisors, many of whom have decades of career experience.

These findings from the literature are problematic for several reasons: (1) Supervisors can be ignored and unprepared for their work; (2) Supervisors may not have a voice in program decisions that they are asked to implement or follow; (3) Supervisors may not be aware of the program vision or curriculum; (4) Supervisors may not be using best practices; (5) Supervisors may have different or contrary beliefs about teaching and learning than the university; (6) Administrators may not know what supervisors are emphasizing in their observations, conferences, and evaluations; and, as a result; (7) Student teachers may not be receiving the best possible guidance or they may be receiving conflicting guidance. These potential conflicts have important implications for teacher education that will be covered in later chapters.

A brief vignette of my own experiences as a university supervisor provides an overview of the challenges faced by university supervisors and is consistent with the literature on supervisor's work. I first worked as a university supervisor as part of a graduate assistantship in the 2015-2016 academic year. I received very little preparation or induction in this work before I began supervising aside from an orientation that covered paperwork requirements (deadlines,

contracts, etc.) and a brief discussion as well as a bulleted list of general advice from another supervisor in the program whom I had not met. I did not know any other supervisors at the time, but I eventually met three others at program meetings the program coordinator held to discuss the student teachers' progress.

As a supervisor, I had several major responsibilities that included: observation and evaluation of instruction, conferencing, tracking students' submission of documents and artifacts needed for state certification, providing a professional reference, and negotiating between the student teachers and the mentor teachers. I completed observation forms, conducted formative and summative evaluations, tried to build relationships with my student teachers, listen to their concerns, and find a balance between being empathetic and holding them to professional standards. The first struggles I encountered were a lack of expectations and instructions from the university for completing the evaluation forms, finding a time to debrief the lesson with the mentor teacher and student teacher, fostering authentic reflection in the student teacher, managing mentor teacher expectations that were different from the university's expectations, and completing evaluations. I found myself in many roles, often caught between the PK-12 school site and the university, and at times unsure myself of what the requirements and processes of the evaluations were. To succeed in my first year, I frequently contacted my program coordinator with questions and developed relationships with two experienced supervisors in my program who informally mentored me and provided some socialization and guidance in the role. I achieved a moderate level of efficacy at best that was largely due to the supervisor networks I formed and learning as I went rather than from organizational supports. At the end of my first year of supervising, I was left wondering about effective instructional coaching techniques I could use with my student teachers, what types of feedback were most meaningful and useful for

my student teachers, and how to be empathetic to the realities of student teaching without enabling complaints or otherwise unproductive behaviors and mindsets.

Stemming from the findings in the literature and my own anecdotal experience, the purpose of this study is to contribute to the literature on university supervisors of student teachers in two focal areas: (1) The ways supervisors understand their role and their efficacy in carrying out that role; and (2) The ways supervisors are prepared for their work and the suggestions they have for improving their efficacy in terms of training, organizational reform, and policy initiatives. First, the study seeks to document the ways in which current university supervisors of student teachers at a Research I institution understand their role(s), including how they view their practice and responsibilities. Then, stemming from the supervisors' understandings of their role(s), the study seeks to catalogue what tensions they perceive in enacting their role, formal and informal training supervisors have received or would like to receive, and suggestions they have for training, organizational reform, and policy initiatives. By learning more about the ways in which supervisors conceive their role and their ideas for professional development and reform, I hope to provide an empirical base that allows teacher education administrators to better "see" supervisors' work and subsequently begin to leverage supervisors' career and educational knowledge and experience while also transforming them into teacher educators through professional development, feedback on their work, and practical reforms and initiatives. At the end of this chapter I translate the two broad aims of the study into discrete research questions that structure the data analysis.

In addition to contributing to the literature on supervisors, this study also has a practical purpose for program administrators at Research I universities as they work to sustain and improve their teacher education programs. Findings from this research can inform program

administrators about: (1) Supervisors' central functions and the roles they embody; (2) Supervisors' beliefs about supervision; (3) Supervisors' efficacy; (4) Supervisors' preparation or lack of preparation; (5) Supervisors' teacher educator identity development; (6) What supervisors would like to learn; (7) Organizational supports for supervisors; and (8) Supervisors' ideas for training, organizational reform, and policy initiatives. Program administrators can review supervisors' practices and beliefs to ensure that they align with program policies and the vision or mission and adjudicate any discrepancies. In addition, program administrators can draw on supervisors' supervisory-related career and educational experience during training and supplement what supervisors already know. Thirdly, many of the supervisors who participated in this study have had illustrious careers in education, therefore, when supervisors suggest organizational reforms and policy initiatives, it would benefit program coordinators to be aware of these ideas and to consider leveraging supervisors' knowledge and experience.

A final goal for this study is that it brings to light the desperate need for training and feedback for university supervisors, especially first-year supervisors, so that they are able to do their work well with efficacy, according to their own institution's practices, policies, and vision. It is important to note that program administrators have limited time and resources. They are likely unable to implement trainings, organizational reforms, or policy initiatives on their own. Therefore, I also hope this study encourages support staff, program faculty, the department chair, and other administrators at Research I institutions to take a closer look at university supervisors and provide measures and resources to support the work of supervisors. By engaging in this study, I hoped to: (1) Learn how university supervisors at one Research I institution conceptualize their role and what training they feel they need based on those conceptualizations; (2) Draw Research I teacher education program administrators' attention to the need for

organizational supports for supervisors; and 3). Encourage Research I teacher education program administrators to evaluate their own supervisors' beliefs about their role and practice and provide feedback to promote growth, retention, and alignment between the program's vision, mission, goals, and curriculum and supervisory practices.

1.2 KEY TERMS

I use Biddle's (1979) definition of the term, role, for this study. He conceived of a role as "those behaviors characteristic of one or more persons in a context. This definition hangs on four terms—behavior, person, context, and characteristicness" (p. 58). In other words, roles are: behavioral, performed by people, limited by context and not representative of all of a person's behaviors, and consist of the behaviors that are characteristic of a group of people in a specific context. That group of people can embody more than one role; in fact, "roles tend to interlock with others" (Biddle, 1979, p. 70), and some roles can be more complex than others. Biddle proposed that a role can be associated with groups of people or with specific contexts, and it can be determined by its content or function performed by the group. Furthermore, roles are plural, fluid, and only constrained by what we can observe and how we think about or measure them.

I also use Biddle's (1979) concept of role functions as "characteristic effects...within a social system" (p. 6). Role functions are tasks associated with specific roles by both the "official system" of "expected" tasks that are prescribed by a "formal organization" or the "informal system" (Biddle, 1979, p. 72) of behaviors expected by the group. Role functions are associated with specific roles and can provide "insight as to why a role is organized the way it is and how it integrates with other roles in a social system" (Biddle, 1979, p. 70). Those embodying the role

functions understand them, approve of them, and see them as motivation to continue in the role. Biddle notes that observers are unable to generate an exhaustive list of functions of a given role.

In this study, I define formal training opportunities as training provided to all university supervisors by program administrators, university faculty, or other qualified individuals in an intentional, professional development-type setting. Formal training could be an orientation, trainings centered on a particular skill or issue, disseminated literature or training materials, online modules, problem-solving discussions, or technology training. Formal training is likely to occur between a supervisor and department faculty or program administrator. In contrast, I define informal training as mentoring or coaching that occurs between supervisors individually outside of the university setting or individual supervisor consultations with a program coordinator to address specific questions or concerns. Informal training could be in-person, phone, or email conversations with a program coordinator around specific questions or problems, individual research on the theory and practice of supervision, socialization into the role by experienced supervisors, or self-study of one's own practice. Informal training is likely to occur between more experienced supervisors and novice supervisors, although it can occur among equally-experienced supervisors or supervisors and program coordinators or faculty.

1.3 ORGANIZATION OF THE CHAPTERS

This dissertation contains nine chapters. Chapter 1 introduces the study and discusses its purpose, presents key terms and the conceptual framework, and lists the guiding research questions. Chapter 2 situates this study within the current landscape of supervising, reviews the salient literature on the role of the supervisor, supervisors' work, organizational supports, and

supervisor training. Chapter 3 details the research methodology employed for the study including the research questions, research design, data collection methodology, and data analysis. Chapter 4 reports the study participants' background information. Chapters 5-8 report major findings for the four research questions individually and sequentially. Lastly, Chapter 9 presents conclusions to the study, implications of the study, the study's limitations, and suggestions for future research.

1.4 CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

I use a combination of liminal space, research on organizational supports for teachers, and research on teacher professionalization as the conceptual frameworks for this study. In order to do so, I borrow from current scholars' conceptions of liminal space in learning theory and extend the idea of liminal space to conceptualize the nebulous, gray space in which university supervisors work and the possibility of utilizing formal training and informal learning to move university supervisors through liminal space to develop teacher educator identities. Furthermore, I draw from recent research that frames schools as organizations and teachers' work as bounded within those organizations. Although supervisors are not teachers, all the supervisor participants in this study have worked in PK-12 spaces and are organizational actors who likely face some of the same challenges as teachers. Considering supervisors' work in organizations and what organizational supports drive professionalization can help scholars understand the roles supervisors enact, the tensions they face, and the organizational supports they need. An absence of theory on organizational supports for supervisors also informed my decision to look to teacher supports to frame this study. In the following section, I provide the role typology I use in this

study as a starting point for understanding supervisors' roles. Secondly, I discuss liminal space as a metaphor for understanding supervisors' experiences. Finally, I include the research on organizational supports and teacher professionalization as an empirical lens for framing supervisors' work and needed support within organizations.

1.4.1 Role typology

To clarify the concept of supervisor roles, this study used a typology of university supervisors' roles stemming from the literature that includes five major roles: instructional teacher or coach, supportive counselor or mentor, manager of the practicum experience, evaluator, and socializer into the teaching profession. It is important to note that the roles are not mutually exclusive. For example, a supervisor who views herself as a manager of the practicum experience may also see herself as a supportive counselor or mentor. Utilizing this typology allowed me to make predictions about how role identity affects attitudes about and preferences for training as well as supervisor behavior. Table 1 references the literature base and describes the primary responsibilities for each of the roles.

Table 1. Typology of Supervisor Roles

Role	Literature Base	Primary Responsibilities
<i>Instructional teacher or coach</i>	Akcan & Tatar, 2010; Baecher et al., 2014; Bailey, 2006; Fayne, 2007; Lutovac et al., 2015; Stones, 2003	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Co-plan lessons and provide feedback on lessons • Observe student teaching • Debrief and reflect on the lesson taught • Improve quality of teaching
<i>Supportive counselor or mentor</i>	Bailey, 2006; Caires & Almeida, 2007; Enz et al., 1996; Fayne, 2007; Gelfuso et al., 2015; Mudavanhu, 2015; Nonis & Jernice, 2011; Smith & Lev-Ari, 2005	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide emotional support • Help student teacher manage stress • Listen to student teacher • Encourage student teacher
<i>Manager of the practicum experience</i>	Enz et al., 1996, Fayne, 2007	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Observe student teaching and provide feedback • Assess student teacher progress • Complete paperwork & other program requirements • Collaborate & communicate with mentor teacher and university faculty
<i>Evaluator</i>	Baecher et al., 2014; Bailey, 2006; Conderman et al., 2005; Hamel, 2012; Mudavanhu, 2015	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Observe and assess classroom instruction, management, and classroom environment • Give feedback on lesson • Monitor student progress • Determine aptitude for teaching
<i>Socializer into the teaching profession</i>	Bailey, 2006; Enz et al., 1996; McNamara, 1995	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Observe student teaching and provide feedback • Acquaint student teacher with the social and political contexts of teaching • Provide professional recommendation

1.4.2 Liminal space

Learning theorists have described liminal space as “a transformative state in the process of learning in which there is a reformulation of the learner’s meaning frame and an accompanying shift in the learner’s ontology or subjectivity” (Land, Rattray, & Vivian, 2014, p. 199). Liminal space is a “deeply reflective” state where the learner moves through a “transformational landscape,” which can be uncomfortable or troublesome and include an “unsettling of identity” (Simmons et al., 2013, pp. 9-10, 17) or re-authoring of one’s self (Ross, 2011).

As an in-between, gray area, liminal space can be troublesome and uncomfortable. Land, Rattray, and Vivian (2014) explained liminal space with a tunnel metaphor. The liminal space the learner enters may be “dark and foreboding” (Land et al., 2014, p. 205). The learner may not want to go into the tunnel. After entering, he may want to escape and go back to the entrance, or he may look for an easier route around the tunnel. If the duration of the liminal space is long-lasting, the learner may lose his sense of progress and direction; the proverbial light at the end of the tunnel may diminish or even extinguish. The journey through liminal space is not linear; rather, it is twisted and foggy. The learner’s newly acquired meaning frame, ontology, or subjectivity may vacillate and leave him confused (Land et al., 2014). The struggle through this space leads to “troubled knowing” where the learner must learn to “become comfortable being in a nexus of discomfort” (Simmons et al., 2013, p. 12).

The journey through liminal space begins when the learner encounters threshold concepts—“certain concepts, practices, or forms of learning experience [that] act in the manner of a portal, or learning threshold, through which a new perspective opens up for the learner” (Land et al., 2014, p. 200). When confronted with the threshold concept, the learner encounters and integrates new frames of meaning, ontology, or subjectivity, realizes the fault of the prior

frames of meaning, ontology, or subjectivity, releases prior beliefs, and comes to “realizations...[and] reconstruction of...identity” (Simmons et al., 2013, p. 9) and acceptance of the new identity (Land et al., 2014). It also entails a discursive shift between identity and language as the new frames of meaning, ontology, or subjectivity result in a changed relationship between the two. While potentially disorienting, tolerating the transition can take the learner to a better, more progressive place (Land et al., 2014). Burns (2012) defined liminal space as the place between “two thresholds of understanding...[and] between social structures” (Burns, 2012, pp. 259, 265). The liminal space is where “innovative learning occurs” and those in the liminal space “gradually acquire a new status, new role, new identity which become integrated into their biography or total life experience” (Burns, 2012, p. 265). Burns’ research demonstrates the extension of liminal space from learner to researcher and from classroom learning to organizational research.

Following Burns’ (2012) example, I extend the concept of liminal space from student learning in classrooms to a framework for understanding the space in which university supervisors exist. Liminality describes an ill-defined, in-between space. It also implies a journey from a before space to an enlightened, after space. University supervisors exist in a liminal space between the university and the PK-12 school site and belong to neither. As adjuncts, graduate students, and retired PK-12 practitioners, supervisors do not belong to the university in the same sense as full-time faculty. They may not be involved in curriculum development, teach courses, create policies, be invited to faculty meetings, or be included in other activities related to the teacher education program in which they work. They also may not feel confident offering opinions, critiques, or otherwise engaging in the teacher education program if they do not have the same credentials or standing as university faculty. Similarly,

the university supervisors do not belong to the PK-12 school site, even if they once were faculty or administrators. They are caught in a unique position between the expectations of the two institutions and generally have little power at either. University supervisors are not directly responsible for making the student teacher a good teacher, yet their role is to observe, evaluate, and make recommendations about the qualifications of the student teacher.

What scholars who study and use liminal space as frameworks omit in their theorizing of liminality and liminal space is the propellant that guides learners through the space. They imply that the learner herself works her way through by her own reflection and reflexivity. We do not get a sense of who or what presents the threshold concept to the learner or, again, who guides the learner through the space, other than the learner herself. However, this model does not hold for reluctant or complacent learners. If university supervisors are confident in their practices and reluctant to critically examine those practices or their role(s) in teacher education, they may not go through the liminal process. We see this occurring with former teachers who struggle to transition from their teacher identities to teacher educator identities (Cuenca 2010, Ritter, 2007, Williams, Ritter, & Bullock, 2012). Offering formal training and supporting informal learning on a variety of instructional supervision topics can introduce supervisors to threshold concepts that would help them more clearly define their practices and their role(s) within the two institutions. Without professional development or training opportunities, the university supervisors may remain in the liminal space indefinitely or may not enter at all. This is essential because, for the most part, there are no degree, certification, or apprenticeship programs to prepare university supervisors for their work or to help them understand their role(s). Therefore, the training program administrators provide to them may be all the training they ever receive, and that appears to be limited.

1.4.3 Schools as organizations

In addition to using liminal space as a metaphor for framing supervisors' work, I also draw from literature that studies teacher turnover and teacher professionalization from an organizational perspective, specifically surrounding organizational supports for teachers. Although supervisors are not teachers, they are organizational actors and former teachers themselves who have largely retained a teacher-based professional identity (Cuenca, 2010; Ritter, 2007); as such, they likely face some of the same organizational functions and challenges as teachers. For example, like supervisors, teachers also struggle to balance objective assessment of student work with encouragement and positive support for students. Furthermore, supervisors and teachers occupy similar employment positions of authority and submission in their respective organizations. Teachers are authority figures over students but submit to the authority of their administrators whereas supervisors are authority figures over the student teachers but submit to the authority of the program administrators. In this section, I first discuss organizational supports for teachers and then turn to teacher professionalization.

1.4.4 Organizational supports for teachers

Kraft, Marinell, and Yee (2016) noted that while recent educational reform efforts have focused on teacher evaluation systems and teacher quality, “[T]eachers do not work in a vacuum; their schools’ organizational contexts can undermine or enhance their ability to succeed with students” (p. 1439). Therefore, improving teacher quality should not be the sole aim of educational reform and policies; administrators and policymakers also need to consider the organizations in which teachers work. The same logic applies to supervisors; if scholars and teacher education

administrators want to improve supervisor effectiveness, they must consider the contexts in which supervisors work. A review of the literature on organizational supports for teachers revealed that the work is largely focused on retaining teachers and preventing teacher turnover.

Recent scholarship has revealed that the most salient organizational supports for teachers are: a positive organizational climate, generally, and, specifically, support from school administrators, positive relationships with colleagues, appropriate and enforced discipline policies, and a perception on the part of teachers that they are successful in their work. Simon and Johnson's (2015) literature review sought to reframe prior conclusions regarding teacher turnover as dependent on student characteristics rather than organizational supports. The researchers noted a thirty-year trend that teachers in poor, minority schools frequently leave those schools for affluent, White schools. Prior studies (e.g Hanushek, Kain, & Rivkin, 2004) explained this trend by concluding that teachers favored wealthier, White, and higher-achieving students. However, Simon and Johnson argued that teachers' decisions to move schools or leave the profession entirely are largely based on school context and working conditions. In their literature review of six empirical studies on the relationship between various school context variables and teacher turnover, Simon and Johnson found that the reasons teachers move from poor, minority schools to wealthier, White schools are largely a matter of working conditions that prevent teachers and students from being successful instructors and learners. Their study found the three best predictors of teacher satisfaction and retention were school leadership, collegial relationships, and elements of school culture. Thus, they refute the interpretation of the phenomenon as teachers preferring wealthier, White students over poor, minority students. Simon and Johnson contended that their finding is significant, because it is feasible to change organizational contexts to support teachers work, unlike student characteristics, and there is an

abundance of research on this topic from which to draw. Kraft et al. (2016) used panel data from New York City Department of Education's annual School Survey to examine if improving organizational contexts would decrease teacher turnover in New York City middle schools, and, if so, which. They found four factors: improving school leadership, improving academic expectations, teacher relationships, and school safety had statistically significant, negative relationships with decreasing teacher turnover, although improving school leadership had the strongest relationship. Finally, in a study of 95 teachers and administrators at six high-poverty, urban schools in one district, Kraft et al. (2015) found that school systems can help teachers overcome endemic uncertainty of their influence on students through: coordinated instructional supports, systems to promote order and discipline, socioemotional supports for students, and efforts to engage parents.

In addition to school contexts as a whole, research demonstrates four organizational variables that have a strong influence on teacher turnover. First, a lack of support from school administrators is strongly associated with teacher turnover (Boyd et al., 2011; Grissom, 2011; Ingersoll, 2003; Johnson & Birkeland, 2003; Kraft et al., 2016; Simon & Johnson, 2015) including teachers feeling that they lacked influence in the decision-making process (Ingersoll, 2003). In an interview with the *Harvard Education Letter*, Katherine Merseth, the then-director of the teacher education program at the Harvard Graduate School of Education, commented that administrators can support teachers, especially new teachers, by keeping their focus on teaching and learning, although the demands of schooling may pull them toward social services, transportation, and other supplementary sectors (Chauncey, 2005). Secondly, the literature shows that positive relationships with colleagues are important for teachers (Johnson & Birkeland, 2003; Kraft et al., 2016; Simon & Johnson, 2015). Thirdly, teachers noted their

schools' discipline policies and the enforcement or lack thereof of the policies and student discipline problems influenced their decision to leave (Ingersoll, 2003; Johnson & Birkeland, 2003; Kraft et al., 2015; Makkonen, 2005; Shen, 1997; Simon & Johnson, 2015). Lastly, teachers need to feel that they are effective at their jobs and influencing students (Johnson, 2004; Johnson & Birkeland, 2003; Lortie, 1975). In his landmark text on the organization of schools and teachers' work, Lortie (1975) reported that teachers' socialization into the profession was weak relative to other professions and that teaching does not have a career ladder by which teachers measure professional success. Therefore, there are no organizational supports to reinforce teachers' success, and teachers rely on intrinsic, "psychic" rewards as motivation. Johnson and Birkeland (2003) conducted 50 interviews with beginning teachers over four years with the Project on the Next Generation of Teachers and found that the teachers' perceptions of how effective they were with their students had the strongest influence on whether they remained in the teaching profession. Organizational aspects that informed this perception were the quality of relationships with colleagues, administrative support, and discipline policies. Finally, Santoro (2018) used the concept of demoralization, "the inability to access the moral rewards offered and expected in teaching" (p. 8) to understand experienced and committed teachers' reasons for leaving teaching. Teacher demoralization occurred over time, but Santoro found that it could be reversed by school leaders affirming teachers' moral justifications for teaching, support and networking through teachers' unions, and reframing dissatisfaction as demoralization, thus enabling teachers to name the causes of their demoralization.

1.4.5 Teacher professionalization

Multiple scholars have noted that the past thirty years of teacher professional development have been driven by neoliberal reforms marked by increased regulation of teacher's work including: teacher accountability, standardization, efficiency, and productivity (e.g. Gerwitz, Mahony, Hextall, & Cribb, 2009; Kraft & Papay, 2014). Recent policy reforms targeted toward improving teachers' effectiveness to improve student achievement have also led to standardization reforms for teacher licensure such as edTPA (Hutt, Gottlieb, & Cohen, 2018). One challenge to teacher professionalism is that it is bound by organizational context. Lieberman (2009) noted that schools function as bureaucracies that are difficult to change and prone to adopting "'one size fits all' solutions [to improve teaching] that often fail to make distinctions among different kinds of school and classroom contexts, or between the needs of novice and experienced teachers" (p. 221). Kraft and Papay (2014) noted that research has documented how new teachers make large gains in their first few years of teaching, but those gains level off and it is not clear how much teachers learn after their initial gains in the first few years. Using North Carolina state surveys from over 3,000 teachers, Kraft and Papay found that teachers working in more supportive school environments increased their teaching effectiveness 38% more over 10 years than those working in less supportive school environments. A supportive school environment was characterized by trust and mutual respect, time to collaborate with colleagues, and administrative support for teachers' disciplinary decisions. Not surprisingly, administrators have a large role to play in teacher professionalization. Scholars found that teachers improve when administrators act as instructional coaches who give specific feedback on instruction and foster teacher reflection (May & Supovitz, 2010; Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2003). Hattie (2009) found that the top-down professional development that is typically used for professional development

was less effective, because it did not address the reality of classrooms. However, professional development sessions were generally beneficial in improving: teacher knowledge, teacher affect, and job satisfaction. Santoro's (2018) study of twenty-three experienced teachers revealed that teacher demoralization can be reversed when administrators affirm teachers' moral motivations for their work and engage in discussions about what is best for classrooms and students.

One way researchers have countered top-down teacher professionalization and the practice of bringing in experts from outside the organization for one-size-fits-all trainings is by suggesting the development of teacher networks (Boyle, Lamprianou, & Boyle, 2005; Gamoran, Gunter, & Williams, 2005; Hofman & Dijkstra 2010; Lieberman, 2000). They contend such trainings do not improve teacher effectiveness and discount individual differences between teachers. Rather, Hofman and Dijkstra (2010) examined two existing teacher networks and found that, while they were both successful in improving teacher effectiveness, the teacher network that focused professional development towards content knowledge, teacher efficacy, and teacher motivation through self-reflection and enthusiastic, growth-minded professional learning communities better supported teacher professionalism and increased motivation. There is evidence in the literature that teachers both desire professional networks with their colleagues, and these networks improve their practice. In a longitudinal study of 854 primary and secondary teachers in England, Boyle, Lamprianou, and Boyle (2005) found that teachers' long-term professional development preferences were: observation of their colleagues (69%) and sharing their practice (63%). Seventy-seven percent of the teachers in Boyle et al.'s study reported that engaging in long-term professional development activities resulted in altering one or more components of their teaching. They also found that teachers expected teacher networks would improve their practice. Boyle et al. found that long-term, focused study groups, peer mentoring,

teacher networks, and inquiry-based approaches to their practice result in improved teacher practices rather than one-off, outside-expert led professional development sessions.

Furthermore, new teachers require additional support (Chauncey, 2005; Johnson, 2004), especially given high teacher turnover and high teacher turnover in urban schools (e.g. The National Commission on Teaching and America's Future [NCTAF] (2007) found that 70% of new teachers leave Philadelphia schools within six years.), but schools and districts often do not anticipate or provide support to meet new teachers' needs (Kardos, 2005). Kardos (2005) suggested specific new teacher induction programs to support novice teachers in practical functions of their work (e.g. parent teacher conferences), to reduce isolation, learning opportunities from more experienced teachers to support new teachers' growth, and to reduce teacher attrition. She also argued that the induction programs must be supported financially and professionally by district administrators and be part of an organizational culture of teacher growth. Ingersoll and Smith (2004) demonstrated that a departmental mentor, planning time with departmental colleagues, general collaboration with colleagues, and an outside-of-school teacher network reduces teacher turnover in first-year teachers. Makkonen (2005) reported results from 200 novice teachers that being paired with a same-content and grade level mentor was the most supportive professional development in the first few years of teaching. Furthermore, the Next Generation of Teachers concluded that: "effective new teacher induction is a *system* of supports, not merely a menu of offerings. It has multiple, interconnected parts, all of which have as their primary focus classroom teaching and student learning" (Kardos, 2005, p. 73). Lastly, Santoro (2018) found that a different type of network—professional teachers' unions—can also be a valuable space for teachers to have their voice heard, engage in an allied

network to advocate for teachers' beliefs, and improve teachers' connections to their communities.

Considering schools as organizations, the organizational supports that teachers need, and teacher professionalism frames this study in several ways. First, when looking at supervisors' work, it is important to consider that they work within organizations—two, in fact (the university and the school site)—and thus their roles, role functions, tensions they face enacting those roles, and training they receive to support their work are all bounded by organizational constraints. Second, since most the supervisors in this study were former PK-12 teachers, some of the same reasons for teacher turnover and teacher satisfaction may help explain supervisors' expectations when they began at City University³, their efficacy in their work, and their motivations to remain supervising despite the low-status, part-time, and low-pay nature of their work. Finally, teacher education administrators can learn from the research on teacher turnover and teacher professionalization and consider strategies for retaining supervisors and supporting their professional growth and development including: an overall positive organizational climate, administrative support, positive relationships with colleagues, and a sense that their work is affecting student teachers.

1.5 RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Four research questions guided this study:

³ A pseudonym.

1. What functions do university supervisors of student teachers report as central to their occupational roles?
2. What tensions exist between supervisors' role definitions and their efficacy in carrying out those functions, and what are the sources of those tensions?
3. What formal and informal training opportunities support university supervisors' work?
4. What training opportunities, organizational reforms, or policy initiatives do university supervisors of student teachers believe would improve their effectiveness?

Collectively, these research questions shed light on the nature and sources of supervisor efficacy and provide insight that may prove useful to program administrators and faculty for several reasons. First, if administrators do not provide formal training or guidance on how the university views the role of the supervisor, the supervisors may be considering their role in ways that are outside of the university's conception, or they may not be considering certain aspects of supervision to be their responsibility. This could lead to two unintentional, opposing missteps: overstepping boundaries and responsibilities or sidestepping responsibilities. Furthermore, administrators may not know what supervisors are doing, how they are doing, or what they are emphasizing in their observations and post-lesson conferences, because supervisors are rarely supervised or evaluated themselves (Conderman et al., 2001). Because there is limited oversight of supervisors, they are free to do what they want, rely on their best judgment, and perpetuate their own understandings of good teaching. While these are not inherently detrimental to student teachers or undesirable to the university, the vast majority of supervisors in this study have not been trained to be teacher educators or, specifically, to be supervisors of student teachers. Thus, the supervisors are likely to fall back on their own experience and knowledge of teaching or

administrative experience overseeing new teachers. Again, this is not inherently wrong, but the supervisors may have come from educational organizations that have different philosophies or practices from City University, or, in the case of administrators and veteran supervisors, may have been out of the classroom for many years, distanced from daily classroom teaching, and unaware of recent reforms, policies, initiatives, and practices. In addition, learning about the tensions in supervisors' work can highlight areas where supervisors do not feel that they have efficacy to do their work as well as they would like or in the way the university requires. If supervisors do not feel they have efficacy to do their work the way they see fit due to the tensions they face, they may not follow university policies and procedures to avoid the tensions⁴, or they might resign. If supervisors are expected to be an essential component of the clinical supervision model, then they should have a clear articulation of their roles and responsibilities and receive periodic feedback on their work.

⁴ For example, one supervisor I interviewed did not like the grades on the lesson observation form she had to use, so she crossed out the grade column on each form and gave the student teachers qualitative comments instead.

2.0 SUPERVISORS' ROLES, CONTEXT, AND TRAINING

The scholarly literature on university supervisors of student teachers spans multiple content areas and grade levels. In addition, there is substantial international interest in and research on supervisors and supervision of student teachers. I have included the research literature from international contexts in this review, because, while the context may vary, the fundamental nature of the work and the relationship between the supervisor and the student teacher transcend contexts. The terms, supervisor and supervision, are used in the educational literature in a variety of ways and contexts. For example, there is much work around instructional supervision in PK-12 schools that centers on school leaders as supervisors who coach or evaluate in-service teachers (see Glanz and Zepeda (2015) for a recent discussion of supervision primarily around school leadership). However, this literature review narrows the terms, and thus the review of research, to university-based supervisors of student teachers.

2.1 BACKGROUND

University supervisors are “critical actors” (Baecher et al., 2014, p. 3) in teacher education (Fayne, 2007; Koerner, Rust, & Baumgartner, 2002; Talvitie et al., 2000), are generally associated with the practicum experience, and are an important piece of it (Bailey, 2006; Tang, 2003; Youngs & Bird, 2010). They are a critical friend (Schneider & Parker, 2013), a consultant

(Foster, 1969), and a colleague (Cogan, 1973) to the student teacher. However, despite a broad consensus on the importance of supervisors to the development of student teachers, they are often overlooked and ignored (e.g. Baecher et al., 2014; Cuenca, 2012; Gelfuso, Dennis, & Parker, 2015; Slick, 1998a; Zeichner, 2005). Cuenca (2012) summarized the perilous problem that has existed in American teacher education programs for decades:

The university supervisor occupies a position within teacher education that is incredibly important for the professional preparation of teachers...[U]niversity supervisors are uniquely situated in spaces where they can help develop understandings of the intertwined nature of theory and practice in education. Unfortunately, education schools rarely acknowledge the importance of this work. Supervision is often considered a self-evident activity and thus poorly resourced by educational schools. (p. vii)

The supervisor role is complex (Cuenca, 2012) yet undergirded by assumptions that it is not difficult (Stones, 2003), that teaching experience prepares supervisors for their work (Zeichner, 2005), that supervisors have the observational skills necessary to observe student teachers, and that they are able to convert their observations to useful feedback keeping in mind program expectations, the student teacher's academic and socioemotional supports, and the classroom culture (Cuenca, 2012). Many teacher education programs ignore the complexity of the role and treat supervisors as lower-status members in the higher education hierarchy (Cuenca, 2012). Thus, the supervision of student teachers has become "second-rate work" (Cuenca, Schmeichel, Butler, Dinkelman, & Nichols, 2011, p. 1068).

2.1.1 The impact of supervisors on student teachers

Although there are not many available, some studies have shown that supervisors have a positive impact on student teachers' growth. In a survey of 222 student teachers, Fayne (2007) found that student teachers felt their supervisors were very important in developing their skills and knowledge in the practicum experience. Furthermore, in a study of 480 students enrolled in a teacher education program in Israel, Smith and Lev-Ari (2005) found that 66% of students responded that the university supervisors were supportive during the practicum to a large extent (a percentage even higher than their peer group—60%), and Talvitie, Peltokallio, and Mannisto (2000) reported qualitative data from 16 student teachers that showed supervisors have a “substantial influence” (p. 80) on student teachers' professional development. They also reported that student teachers in the study experimented in the classroom when they had encouragement from supervisors. Another survey of 224 student teachers found that the students were generally satisfied with their supervisor's performance (Caires & Almeida, 2007). Enz, Freeman, and Wallin (1996) reported that student teachers rated supervisors' mentoring functions significantly higher than the supervisors themselves or the mentor teachers did.

However, other studies have shown a less positive effect. Richardson-Koehler (1988) found that student teachers believed that their own instructional practice and personal affect were due to their mentor teacher rather than their supervisor after two weeks at the field site. Furthermore, Johnson (1987) illustrated that student teachers take up behaviors after their mentors, even when those behaviors are not looked upon favorably by the supervisor. Some scholars found that student teachers did not recognize the impact that supervisors had on them during the practicum experience (Beck & Kosnik, 2002; Borko & Mayfield, 1995), although Fayne (2007) reported that students did recognize the impact of their supervisors at a small,

liberal arts college, so institution size may be related to this effect. Other criticisms of supervisors were on an individual basis; students did not like overly harsh criticism or feedback that was not useful to them or when the supervisor criticized the university (Talvitie et al., 2000). Cuenca (2012) posed a question of causality surrounding the impact of supervisors' work. He claimed that the supervisors' work is largely perfunctory and may not have a large impact on improving student teachers' practice, which would explain why the work is assigned to low-ranking faculty and why there is little supervisor preparation for the work. However, he conceded that it may also be the case that supervision becomes perfunctory, because there is no training for or professionalization of the work.

2.2 THE ROLE OF THE SUPERVISOR

The role of the supervisor is multifaceted, complex, and the work of supervision can be disconnected and fragmented. Supervisors hold their own beliefs about teaching but have to negotiate those with the beliefs of the university, student teachers, mentor teachers, and school administrators. Furthermore, supervisors work within organizations with their own cultural norms and expectations for teaching and within the contexts of swirling national and international policy reforms that are often political and have a strong influence on teacher education (Swennen, Shagrir, & Cooper, 2009). Scholars have conceptualized the role in ways that can be categorized as five general roles:

- **Instructional teacher or coach** (Akcan & Tatar, 2010; Baecher et al., 2014; Bailey, 2006; Burns, Jacobs, & Yendol-Hoppey, 2016; Fayne, 2007; Lutovac et al., 2014; Stones, 2003);

- **Supportive counselor or mentor** (Bailey, 2006; Burns et al., 2016; Caires & Almeida, 2007; Enz et al., 1996; Fayne, 2007; Gelfuso et al., 2015; Mudavanhu, 2015; Nonis & Jernice, 2011; Smith & Lev-Ari, 2005);
- **Manager of the practicum experience** (Enz et al., 1996, Fayne, 2007);
- **Evaluator** (Baecher et al., 2014; Bailey, 2006; Conderman et al., 2005; Hamel, 2012; Mudavanhu, 2015); and
- **Socializer into the teaching profession** (Bailey, 2006; Enz et al., 1996; McNamara, 1995).

Within those roles, the literature revealed that supervisors are tasked with:

- **Linking theory to practice for the student teacher and sometimes the mentor teacher** (Cuenca, 2012; Fayne, 2007; Hamel, 2012; Holmes Group, 1990; Schön, 1983);
- **Being self-aware of their own supervisory practices** (Holland, 1988);
- **Coaching professional reflection about instruction** (Akcan & Tatar, 2010; Baecher et al., 2014; Bailey, 2006; Fayne, 2007; Lutovac et al., 2014; Schön, 1983);
- **Teaching how the social context of education influences teaching and learning and critical knowledge and action** (Zeichner, 1992; Zimpher & Howey, 1987);
- **Coaching technical instructional and teaching skills** (Beck & Kosnik, 2000; Zimpher & Howey, 1987);
- **Coaching inter-personal skills** (Zimpher & Howey, 1987);
- **Teaching about the ecology of the school and classroom** (Caires & Almeida, 2007); and
- **Coaching professional development** (McNamara, 1995).

Burns, Jacobs, and Yendol-Hoppey (2016) conducted a meta-analysis of 32 articles that studied the core supervisory tasks and practices of supervisors that support student teacher development and concluded that supervisors' practices fall into five tasks: targeted assistance, individual support, collaboration and community (building relationships), curriculum support, and research for innovation. They concluded that the supervisor's role is shifting as teacher preparation in clinical experiences gains ground across teacher education programs due to increased calls for school-university partnerships. This expanded role has implications for supervisor knowledge and skills, supervisor training, and number of supervisors who undertake the increasing responsibilities of supervising student teachers. As this review shows, the role of the supervisor is multifaceted and complex. Cuenca (2012) wrote: "enacting a pedagogy that not only coheres with campus-based teacher learner experiences but also accounts for the situated realities of student teaching is an incredibly complex undertaking" (p. viii). Supervisors are responsible for, at least to some extent, nearly every facet of student teacher development; they "observe, interpret, and ultimately judge the practice of a student teacher" (Cuenca, 2012, p. viii).

Some scholars have called for a shift in the role of the supervisor. Gelfuso, Dennis, and Parker (2015) borrowed from Vygotsky (1978) and argued that supervisors function as a "knowledgeable other" rather than an expert other. The knowledgeable other "engages in collaborative dialogue" (n. p.) with the student teacher, and the shift from expert others to "content coaches" (n. p.) moves away from the student teacher as an "empty vessel" (n. p.) and the idea that teaching is a technical skill irrespective of context of practice. Borko and Mayfield (1995) suggested reframing the supervisor role in a way that would have the supervisors train the mentor teacher as a teacher educator and provide assistance bridging theory and disciplinary

knowledge. This suggestion was based on their finding that supervisors did not play a large role in developing student teachers' instructional abilities. Burns et al. (2016) argued for a change in the supervisor title from university supervisor to preservice teacher supervisor. This shift would move the supervisor's position conceptually from the privileged university and center it within the school-university partnership. Other, more logistical revisions to the role include lessening the student load for supervisors so that they can deeply engage student teachers—Gelfuso et al. (2015) suggested having supervisors work with student teachers over consecutive terms—and raising the esteem for the supervisor role (Fayne, 2007). In addition to supervising students, supervisors act in additional roles as: full-time university faculty⁵ (Conderman et al., 2005; Gelfuso et al., 2015; Prater & Sileo, 2004), adjunct faculty (Baecher et al., 2014; Cuenca, 2012), graduate students (Conderman et al., 2005; Cuenca, 2012; Gelfuso et al., 2015; Tom, 1997), and external staff not connected to a specific university (Mabunda, 2013).

2.2.1 Role tensions

The specific role played by the supervisor varied among contexts in the literature and may contribute in some ways to the disparate findings on supervisors' impact. This review of the literature did not unearth any studies that were specific to the tensions supervisors encounter as they enact multiple or contrasting roles. However, there is some evidence that supervisors are tasked with completing functions that pull them in separate directions. Supervisors act in roles that are perceived by student teachers as both affirming, such as providing emotional support (Caires, & Almeida, 2007), and threatening, such as evaluating their teaching (Bailey, 2006).

⁵ When supervisors were university faculty, they tended to be the lowest-ranking faculty (Conderman et al., 2005; Cuenca, 2012).

Fayne (2007) argued that supervisors are “benevolent authority figures” (p. 63) and described their role as “supporter / confidante” (p. 62), yet Bailey (2006) argued that it is the supervisor’s responsibility to ensure that the student teacher is fit for the profession. She and others (Ong’ondo & Borg, 2011) called this the quality assurance role. Furthermore, Ong’ondo and Borg (2011) noted that supervisors can have two contrasting goals: evaluating student teachers and supporting their growth. There is a sense in the literature that, although the supervisor should be emotionally supportive and encouraging, they are, in fact, gatekeepers to the profession and have to be objective evaluators of student teachers’ skills and abilities. While I did not find any sources specific to the tensions between evaluation and instructional or socioemotional support, there are arguments from scholars of in-service teacher supervision that the two are mutually exclusive (e.g. Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2014; Nolan & Hoover, 2010; Sergiovanni & Starratt, 2007; Yusko & Feinman-Nemster, 2008). For example, Nolan and Hoover (2010) argued that there were differences between evaluation and supervision in: purpose, rationale, scope, relationship, data focus, expertise, and perspective. They posited that the purpose of supervision is to foster growth in the teacher, while the purpose of evaluation is to ensure student teachers meet minimum criteria for certification. Several scholars suggested that successful supervisors find a middle ground between providing affirming, emotional support and viewing their work as strictly evaluative and non-personal (Caires, & Almeida, 2007, Fayne, 2007; Holland, 1988).

Most recently, Donovan and Cannon (2018) found that standardized teacher education reform, specifically edTPA, interfered with their relationships with student teachers and diminished their ability to have authentic conversations about teaching. edTPA functioned in their teacher education work as standardized tests function in teachers’ work. The supervisors

found themselves centering much of their conversations with student teachers on edTPA, because they felt an obligation to it since it was the framework for the student teachers' certification: "Our professional judgement as experienced educators was usurped by pressure to meet the requirements of edTPA" (Donovan & Cannon, 2018, p. 14). In addition, the student teachers encountered additional stress trying to "please edTPA" (Donovan & Cannon, 2018, p. 15) rather than focus on central functions like improving instruction.

2.2.2 The development of teacher educator identities

There is a common assumption in teacher education that classroom teaching experience prepares one to supervise (Zeichner, 2005). In fact, some supervisors have found that their teaching experience, especially recent teaching experience, established an ethos for them with the student teachers (Elfer, 2012), influenced their beliefs about teacher education and served as a strong base for their work (Skerrett, 2008), and provided extensive experiential knowledge for their transition to teacher educators (Williams et al., 2012). However, studies have found that teaching experience can actually hinder supervisors' work, because supervisors who were classroom teachers tend to default back to their teacher identities and classroom practices when supervising, which may not be appropriate for their student teachers' context and situation, can impede student teacher development, and impairs supervisors' transitions from classroom educators to teacher educators (Cuenca, 2010; Williams, 2014; Williams et al., 2012). Cuenca (2010) argued that teacher educators need a "significantly different set of skills" (p. 30) than classroom teachers. Therefore, there has been a surge of interest in the past decade documenting novice supervisors' transitions from classroom teachers to field-based teacher educators, although much of this work is self-studies by novice supervisors (e.g. Bullock, 2012; Cuenca,

2010; Elfer, 2012; Ritter, 2007)⁶ who were doctoral students or full-time university faculty supervisors. The literature did not reveal any studies or theory explicitly centered on part-time supervisors' identity development. Recently, scholars have begun investigating supervisor role development in two tracks. First, there is research around supervisors' transitions from classroom teacher to teacher educator. Secondly, recognizing that supervisors' work crosses multiple boundaries, scholars have written about supervisors' role development within the third space⁷. The following sections investigate the research on those two aspects of supervisor identity development. It is important to note that some of the research focuses on full-time teacher educators who hold faculty positions at universities but also supervise in the field site. Although those supervisors hold a different position within the higher education hierarchy than contingent and graduate student supervisors, I have included studies about them here because they likely face similar challenge as part-time supervisors in teacher educator identity development.

2.2.2.1 The transition from teacher to teacher educator

Dinkelman (2011) wrote that there is uncertainty around what constitutes an identity, let alone a teacher educator identity, but that teacher educator identities are similar to other identities in that:

They are multiple, fluid, always developing, shaped by a broad range of sociocultural power relationships, strongly influenced by any number of relevant contexts and relational. Teacher educator identities reflect an unstable and ever-shifting weave of personal and professional phenomena. They are both claimed by teacher educators and

⁶ Self-study of teacher education practices (S-STEP) is an established area of scholarship stemming from the S-STEP SIG (special interest group) of AERA (American Educational Research Association).

⁷ While scholars refer to this space using different terminology, I use third space here generically to designate the in-between spaces in which supervisors work.

given to them via the roles and institutions that frame the profession. In a word, teacher educator identity is complex. (p. 309)

Classroom teachers who become teacher educators rely heavily on their career knowledge and experiences when they first become teacher educators. This teaching experience is valuable to novice teacher educators because they are confident in their instructional and curriculum writing abilities, they can evaluate student learning, and they know how to provide socioemotional support for their students (Swennen et al., 2009).

Despite the benefits that classroom teaching affords to supervisors, Swennen, Shagrir, and Cooper (2009) wrote that “the transition from teacher to teacher educator can be more challenging and difficult than beginning teacher educators expect” (p. 91). Murray and Male’s (2005) study of 28 new teacher educators found that the two biggest challenges for teachers adopting teacher educator positions were establishing their own teacher educator pedagogy and becoming researchers. Cuenca (2010) posited that developing teacher educator identities is complicated by the solitary nature of supervising and lack of training whereby the supervisor individually conceives her own pedagogy of supervision. Williams, Ritter, and Bullock’s (2012) literature review of nearly 60 empirical studies on supervisors’ transitions from teacher to teacher educator revealed that years of teaching experience may affect supervisors’ openness to developing a supervisor identity. Supervisors with more teaching experience came to supervising student teachers with pre-conceived beliefs about supervising and did not feel that they needed additional support or needed to re-examine those beliefs, whereas supervisors with less teaching experience were more open to accepting the university’s position on teacher education. One reason for this may be that the transition also includes a demotion of sorts. Williams and Ritter (2010) found that supervisors can feel as though they transitioned from

expert, knowledgeable classroom teachers to less knowledgeable teacher educators. In their new role, supervisors can be fearful others will perceive them as “imposters, deskilled and disempowered, [and] masquerading as teacher educators” (Williams et al., 2012, p. 248); therefore, they retain teacher identities to give themselves credibility as they develop their supervisor identities or to avoid an identity that is “unknown and unsettling” (Sweenen et al. 2009, p. 93). Interestingly, the teacher educators in Murray and Male’s (2005) study reported a double challenge in their transition; they left the space (i.e. school site) where they were once experts and became novices in developing student teachers, and they entered a space (i.e. university) where they were positioned as experts but were really novice researchers.

The retention of what is familiar and known is enabled by a lack of training for the supervisor role and led supervisors to fall back on their career experiences and their own teacher preparation. Cuenca (2010) reflected that in his first year of supervising he expected his student teachers to use the same classroom management, relationship-building, and instructional techniques that he had used as a classroom teacher. Through qualitative analysis of his own supervision documents for eight student teachers, Cuenca realized, “[F]ashioning a pedagogical perspective based solely on my experience as a university supervisor significantly limited the potential of my work as a field-based teacher educator to help student teachers analyze and learn from the experience of teaching” (2010, p. 37). He also realized that his repeated attempts to change student teachers’ behaviors and practices based on his beliefs did not take into account the “situated nature of learning to teach” (Cuenca, 2010, p. 38). His experiences reflect struggles that others have encountered (e.g. Elfer (2012)). Williams et al. (2012) summarized the central work of transitioning from a teacher to a teacher educator: “[T]he task for beginning teacher educators is to identify how their previous experience and professional identities are relevant to

teacher education, and how these fit with their new roles and identities as teacher educators” (p. 249).

Doctoral students who are acting as supervisors have additional stressors as they develop teacher educator identities, because they often have less teaching experience to fall back on, are taking classes, and are teaching classes while they supervise. They, too, can be uncertain of their roles and lack the organizational supports to reflect on their developing beliefs about their pedagogy and praxis as supervisors and to develop teacher educator identities (Allen, Rogers, & Borowski, 2016). However, one self-study of a doctoral student’s developing supervisor identity is an example of how a community of practice can support identity development despite the challenges doctoral student supervisors face. Allen, Rogers, and Borowski (2016) found that the university handed Jared, the subject of the study, a teacher educator identity along with “authority, rules, laws, traditions, responsibilities, and principles” (p. 327) of the university. Jared, became so overwhelmed with the responsibility of being the university’s ambassador to the placement site that he took control of his student teachers’ work and completed some of their responsibilities to prevent them from failing and ensure that the student teachers represented the university well. In doing so, he prevented the student teachers from learning through doing their assigned tasks and enabled them to avoid challenges in their placements. A community of practice discussion group with two critical friends allowed Jared to identify problematic tendencies in his practice and identities, like enabling and protecting the university from negative perceptions, and helped him adjust before the end of the term when he began to position himself as a teacher educator.

One of the first problems of transitioning from a classroom teacher to a supervisor is that the supervisor does not know what questions to ask when he first begins or what tensions might

arise during the term (Elfer, 2012). Other struggles of new supervisors' role development were: understanding the program vision or mission (Elfer, 2012), having to mediate relationships between actors (Bullough & Draper, 2004; Elfer, 2012) and across communities of practice (Williams et al., 2012), a shifting alliance from the school site to the university (Elfer, 2012; Ritter, 2007); developing a research agenda (Murray & Male, 2005); resistance to critiquing pedagogical beliefs held as a classroom teacher and a fear of "selling out" (Ritter, 2007, p. 12) to higher education (Swennen et al., 2009), knowing the program norms for supervisors (Elfer, 2012); enacting beliefs about supervision in practice (Elfer, 2012); the tension between the value of theory and practice in learning to supervise (Williams et al., 2012); isolation (Swennen et al., 2009; Zeichner, 2005); and developing one's own pedagogy (Murray & Male, 2005).

Despite these challenges, the literature is full of rich accounts of supervisors making a successful transition from classroom teacher to teacher educator. Over time, supervisors were able to develop teacher educator identities through two primary methods: critical inquiry and reflection (Chauvot, 2008; Cuenca, 2010; Swennen et al., 2009) and discussions with colleagues who were going through, had gone through, or were supportive of the person going through the identity development process. The latter often involved critical inquiry and reflection, so there is some overlap in effective supports. Scholars reported that involvement in a community of practice discussion group (Allen et al., 2016; Cuenca et al., 2011; Dinkelman, 2011; Elfer, 2012), a community of practice in general (Swennen et al., 2009; Williams et al., 2012), or general discussions with a diverse group of others within and outside of their programs who were interested in this work (Swennen et al., 2009) were powerful methods for supervisors to share, ask questions, reflect, consider questions from their colleagues, and deliberate around their past histories, current beliefs, assumptions, and pedagogy. Dinkelman (2011) called this

“deliberative inquiry” (p. 320) and advocated for shared inquiry among experienced and novice teacher educators, especially doctoral students. Williams (2010) argued that a sense of connectedness to other members, especially veterans, in the learning community was an important component of identity development, because it reduced the isolation that often accompanies supervision and allowed supervisors a sense of belonging at the university.

In addition, feeling accepted at the university eased the transition for those who had strong past ties to the school site. Throughout the literature, specific methods that supported the development of a teacher educator identity were: acknowledging the difference between the roles of classroom teacher and teacher educator (Swennen et al., 2009); developing an individual teacher education pedagogy, which allows for a personalized identity at the university while retaining the sense of self that was important at the school site (Williams et al., 2012); and the actual experience of supervising (Elfer, 2012; Williams et al., 2012). Elfer (2012) claimed that becoming a supervisor was similar to becoming a teacher; through the experience of doing the work, one encounters patterns of behavior and circumstance and must react to similar occurrences in the field site. Over time, handling the same situations results in a training of sorts and knowledge of practice. Unfortunately, there are no standards for becoming a supervisor, as there are for becoming a teacher (Dinkelman, 2011), so supervisors are largely dependent upon their institutions and colleagues within those organizations for induction and support. Although these supports are largely non-existent due to the previously discussed assumptions about supervising, the MOFET Institute in Israel is one exception. This organization develops curriculum and conducts research specifically to support teacher educator induction.

Lastly, identity development is an on-going process (Allen et al., 2016; Elfer, 2012) as well as a “process of becoming” (Williams et al., 2012, p. 256). Research estimates that it takes

two to three years for classroom teachers to develop teacher educator identities (Murray & Male, 2005; Swennen et al., 2009), although Murray and Male (2005) speculated that not all former teachers will establish teacher educator identities. As they transition to teacher educators, Swennen et al. (2009) argued that supervisors should adopt common professional functions of that practice. These include: developing professional knowledge, discourse, and skills such as instructional coaching and mentoring skills, seeking solutions for problems in their work, becoming knowledgeable about the research literature of supervision, growing confidence in their work, and establishing individual praxis and a teacher educator identity (Swennen et al., 2009, p. 100). To develop their professional practice and identities as teacher educators, supervisors should become “immers[ed]” (Zeichner, 2005, p. 121) in teacher education. Zeichner (2005) argued that supervisors need to teach classes, supervise student teachers, be engaged in self-study of practice, especially around the role of supervisor, and have broad knowledge of the main issues in teacher education and the research on fostering teaching ability. Not knowing the literature on teacher education “reduces teacher education to a commonsense activity” (Zeichner, 2005, pp. 122-23), separates supervisors from what is known about their practices, enables them to embrace the status quo of their practice and identity, and goes against the tradition of research at the university (Zeichner, 2005).

2.3 WORKING IN THE LIMINAL AND THIRD SPACE

The teacher and teacher educator roles are not mutually exclusive (Williams et al., 2012), and much of the supervisor’s work takes place in gray, nebulous areas such as between the university and PK-12 site, between the student teacher and the mentor teacher, and between theory and

practice. Two recent developments have drawn attention to supervisors' work in unbounded spaces. First, Zeichner (2010) and others (e.g. Williams, 2014) have pointed out that calls for school-university partnerships and teacher education reforms have attempted to bring teacher education closer to the school site and mend the disconnect between the two spaces, which has forced supervisors into closer contact with schools. Secondly, as the empirical research on teacher educators' identity development has grown, scholars have begun to theorize supervisors' work in these third spaces. One of the difficulties of adopting a teacher educator identity is negotiating work in this undefined space, because supervisors frequently cross boundaries and navigate relationships within it (Williams, 2014). This dissertation uses the concept of liminal space to define these spaces, but other scholars have used descriptors like hybrid space (Zeichner, 2010) and called themselves hybrid teacher educators (Martin, Snow, & Franklin Torres, 2011). Furthermore, scholars (Cuenca et al., 2011; Tsui & Law, 2007; Williams, 2014, Zeichner, 2010) have borrowed concepts such as boundary spaces from Akkerman and Bakker (2011), boundary zones from Tuomi-Gröhn, Engeström, and Young (2003), and boundary crossing and third space from Bhabha (1994) to theorize supervisors' work in between the school site and the university. Reflecting on his experience as a transitioning teacher educator, Elfer (2012) wrote, "I imagined myself as a sort of hybrid character trapped somewhere in between the worlds of classroom practice, teacher education, and scholarship" and described his identity as "split personality" (p. 6). While it may seem that supervisors who have worked in PK-12 spaces would cross school and university spaces with ease, that does not appear to be the case (Williams, 2014). In fact, like their roles, supervisors' work between the school and university is complicated and multifaceted (Williams, 2014).

2.3.1 Description of the third space

Work within the third space is complex, “inherently ambiguous” (Williams, 2014, p. 317), and a no man’s land owned by neither party (Akkerman & Bakker, 2011) where intersecting and overlapping boundaries are constantly drawn and redrawn (Williams, 2014). In addition, it is relational and occurs within numerous social contexts (Martin et al., 2011). Martin, Snow, and Franklin Torres (2011) concluded that the supervisor has to build multiple relationships and navigate a “web of relationships” (p. 305) carefully. Negotiating the third space is especially difficult for new supervisors or supervisors who are simultaneously developing teacher educator identities (Cuenca, 2010; Ritter, 2007; Williams, 2013). In the unknown, complicated space, teacher educators default to their teacher identities (Elfer, 2012; Ritter, 2007). However, the third space is also a place for learning (Akkerman & Bakker, 2011). It offers an opportunity for supervisors to develop new perspectives on teaching and learning as they engage in the field site and reexamine their pedagogy, challenge their teacher identities, and develop teacher educator identities (Bullock, 2012; Cuenca, 2010; Williams, 2013). In a study of 18 teacher educators, Williams (2014) documented supervisors’ shifting identities and beliefs about teaching and learning in the third space. The teacher educators in her study crossed the boundaries of the school site and university without difficulty, but some noted tensions but an understanding of the origin of those tensions.

2.3.2 What happens in this space?

Supervisors take on many complex and challenging tasks within the third space. They are liaisons who bridge multiple spaces (Martin et al., 2011), and they bridge the needs of student

teachers and mentor teachers and balance their beliefs (Williams, 2014). Korthagen, Loughran, and Russell (2006) proposed that supervisors simultaneously balance three sets of perspectives on developing the student teacher: her own and that of the student teacher and the mentor teacher. Thus, supervisors develop and manage complicated relationships among multiple actors (Martin et al., 2011; Williams, 2014). Bullough and Draper (2004) detailed a painful situation when a supervisor failed to navigate multiple relationships, which led to a complete breakdown of the student teaching triad. However, when supervisors navigate relationships successfully, the third space can be a site for the supervisors to lead mentor teachers, student teachers, and administrators to develop a new community of practice (Bullough, Draper, Smith, & Birrell, 2004). Williams (2014) concluded: “the work of teacher educators in the third space involves crossing and re-crossing, and negotiating and re-negotiating, professional and personal boundaries between different but closely connected sites of professional practice” (p. 317).

Framing supervisors’ work in the third space can be helpful, because third space theory abandons traditional binaries like theory and practice (Zeichner, 2010). Rather, it blends previously-held opposing ideas to form new perspectives. For example, in teacher education, third spaces allow for the democratic intermixing of practitioner and research knowledge to inform teacher education in new ways and bring about more equal social status for the participants. Traditional models of teacher education sought to infiltrate the school site with researcher knowledge and practice from the university, but the third space allows for an epistemological shift that recognizes and respects the importance of practitioner knowledge in teacher education (Zeichner, 2010).

2.3.3 How have supervisors worked within this space?

As reported in the previous section on teacher educator identity development, the literature shows a lack of institutional training for supervisors working in the third space and a strong tendency for supervisors to seek support from colleagues through communities of practice and some success in doing so. In response to state funding cuts that limited the number of site visits and thus further distanced themselves from the teacher education program in which they supervised, Cuenca, Schmeichel, Butler, Dinkelman, and Nichols (2011) gathered a group of graduate students, faculty, and staff in a community of practice that engaged in shared inquiry into their teacher education program. Stemming from those deliberations, the authors attempted to establish a third space for pedagogical reflection and learning for themselves and their student teachers by incorporating biweekly breakout sessions as part of preexisting student teaching seminars. During these sessions, the supervisors met with their own student teachers to discuss a variety of topics and allow the student teachers space to share and reflect on their experiences. In these breakout sessions, supervisors learned more fully about the student teachers' experiences, beliefs, and challenges at the school site. This deeper knowledge of their student teachers occurred because: the supervisors could spend additional time with the student teachers that they could not during their observations and the student teachers opened up to each other with the supervisors present in ways that they did not with the supervisor during the observation visits. As they learned more about what was happening at the school site and student teachers' experiences there through the breakout sessions, the supervisors found new aspects to focus on during the observations and revised their practice. Lastly, the breakout sessions resulted in more authentic relationships between the student teachers and supervisors, in part because the supervisors got to know the student teachers before they began observing and evaluating them.

Although they positioned this work as occurring in the third space because it was a newly created space to engage in pedagogical conversations and learning for both the student teachers and the supervisors, Cuenca et al. (2011) questioned whether it truly was a third space, because the breakout sessions physically took place at the university and they were unsure if the learning that occurred in this space differed significantly from the learning that occurred in other spaces. This positioning of supervisors' work, however, was unique to the literature and the only study I found where scholars theorized a third space as part of student teachers' coursework and as a space for dual learning by student teachers and supervisors apart from generic communities of practice.

Although there is not much known about best practices for working in the third space aside from suggestions from self-studies, a few implications for navigating the third space arose in the literature. First, working within the third space requires good communication and the ability to navigate the two different spaces (Williams, 2014). It also appears that supervisors should be affirming of school site knowledge and norms and reframe their epistemological beliefs to support democratic participation in school-university partnerships to support student teachers (Zeichner, 2010). Furthermore, supervisors can break down the traditional pairs of supervisor and student teacher and invite the mentor teacher and administrators into conversations and communities of practice to build partnerships with the school site actors (Martin et al., 2011). Martin et al. (2011) reported gains they made with school leaders by showing leadership to repair past tensions between particular school sites and their university. Finally, as with developing a teacher educator identity, organizational supports for supervisors working in the third space are practically non-existent at either site, but researchers have reported some success in forming regularly scheduled meetings with multiple actors at the school site to

discuss the student teacher's progress and supervisor meetings at the university site to inquire into working in the third space (Martin et al., 2011). Finally, finding support in colleagues, communities of practice, and organizational supports where available can help supervisors navigate the slippery terrain of the third space as described in the previous section.

2.4 ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORTS

In addition to the findings from the literature on supervisors' role development, research from the study of organizational supports for teachers is also helpful in understanding the contexts in which supervisors work and can be successful. As discussed in Chapter 1, research has revealed that a positive organizational climate (Simon & Johnson, 2015), support from school administrators (Kraft et al., 2016; Santoro, 2018), and positive relationships with colleagues (Kraft et al., 2016; Simon & Johnson, 2015) are essential for reducing teacher turnover. Organizational supports are also significant to teacher professionalization. Administrators who provide feedback on instruction (May & Supovitz, 2010), teacher networks (Gamoran et al., 2005; Hofman & Dijkstra, 2010), and new teacher induction (Kardos, 2005) can increase teacher effectiveness and support teachers' practice.

Some scholars have considered organizational context in supporting supervisors' work as well. Williams et al's. (2012) literature review found that the organizational context in which the supervisor begins to develop a teacher educator identity and the organizational supports for that work are significant to the process. Pressure from the political structures and cultural norms as well as the demands of research, publishing, and tenure are barriers to developing teacher educator identities, especially for those who take on faculty positions without research-based

backgrounds. Furthermore, juggling needs from multiple actors (students, colleagues, administrators) can be exhausting, isolating, and challenging to teacher educators' beliefs and identities and force them to enact pedagogies with which they disagree. A primary tension for novice teacher educators is socialization into the higher education context while retaining authentic individuality. The authors found that organizations would do well to develop a formal induction or mentoring program for new teacher educators, which does not appear to be happening in practice due to assumptions that career experience is sufficient preparation. Positive engagement with colleagues who are willing to support teacher educators' identity development can be a primary source of this work. However, Dinkelman (2011) noted that the size and structure of large research institutions can prohibit collaborative discussions on practice that are part of identity development work and engagement across programs.

Although the research on supervisor training overwhelmingly agrees that new supervisor induction and continuing professional development for more experienced supervisors is practically non-existent, there are scattered examples of organizational supports, which I report in the previous section on teacher educator identity development. The following example is unique in that the teacher education program offered space for graduate student supervisors to meet and discuss their developing pedagogy, practice, and identity. Elfer (2012) credited the organizational structure of his teacher education program as being significant in his development of a supervisor identity. He noted that his program held a graduate seminar for discussions of supervisor practice, and faculty, at times, joined the group. This seminar was a space for Elfer to engage in peer deliberation of his burgeoning beliefs about supervising and an important site for identity development within a community of practice. However, other researchers have found

that teacher education departments infrequently provide the needed supports for fostering teacher educator identities (Swennen et al., 2009).

2.5 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE SUPERVISOR AND STUDENT TEACHER

A significant component of the supervisor role is the relationship between the supervisor and the student teacher. Akcan and Tatar (2010) pointed out that supervisors “interact constantly” (p. 36) with student teachers in planning, professional development, giving feedback, evaluation, and even in teaching university courses. Prior research has argued that the student teachers’ effectiveness and growth is highly contingent on their university supervisor and that supervisors’ socioemotional support for student teachers is just as important, if not more important, than support for the technical aspects of learning to teach (Caires & Almeida, 2007). However, there may be inherent tensions within the nature of the relationship. Goldhammer (1969) wrote: “Besides the inherent risks of having one’s professional behavior examined, the supervisee must generally mobilize himself against a dozen extrinsic dangers associated with the supervisor’s presence...Too often, the supervisory relationship is mutually thwarting” (pp. vi, viii). Holland’s (1988) literature review pointed out that the supervisor-student teacher relationship is political and can be “bureaucratic...manipulate[ive]...and paternalistic” (p. 11). The supervisor has control and has control of having control. She can relinquish control in a more collaborative gesture or hold on to it in a more directive nature. Bullough and Draper (2004) pointed out that the clinical triad of student teacher, mentor teacher, and supervisor is hierarchical and documented a specific instance where the triad members forced the student teacher to ally herself

with either the mentor teacher or the supervisor, which damaged her relationship with both parties. Goldhammer (1969) also provided an existential critique of the problem of the relationship between supervisor and student teacher. He claimed that the most significant barrier in the relationship occurs when the supervisor fails to “experience professional existence generally and supervision particularly as [the student teacher] does in his own phenomenological frame of reference” (Goldhammer, 1969, p. 331). A few reasons for this mismatch are misaligned purposes between the supervisor and student teacher, different career aspirations that situate both actors in different spaces, and ever-widening space between the lived experience of the student teacher and that of the supervisor (Goldhammer, 1969).

Despite the tensions inherent in the relationship, the supervisor is framed as an affirming counselor and in other interpersonal ways in both theory and practice (Bailey, 2006; Caires & Almeida, 2007; Fayne, 2007, Nonis & Jernice, 2011; Smith & Lev-Ari, 2005); therefore a supportive relationship between the supervisor and student teacher is essential and expected. In a study of 224 student teachers’ perceptions of their supervisor’s positive aspects, the student teachers reported the most positive aspects of their supervisor at the beginning of the practicum were general support factors like the supervisor being organized and giving helpful and relevant feedback. However, at the end of the practicum, the student teachers reported the supervisor’s personal attributes were twice as important as they were at the beginning of the year and more important than the general support factors (Caires & Almeida, 2007). Caires and Almeida (2007) interpreted this finding as an effect of the student teacher becoming more immersed in teaching, encountering difficulties, taking on more responsibilities, and getting to know the supervisor better, thus relying more on their supervisors’ supportive, personal attributes at the end of the year than they did at the beginning of the year. Talvitie et al. (2000) reported an

opposite finding. In a qualitative study of 16 student teachers' journals, Talvitie et al. found that student teachers did not depend on supervisors for emotional, affirming support as much toward the end of the practicum as they did at the beginning. They believed this shift in the nature of the student teacher-supervisor relationship occurred as the student teachers developed and gained confidence. Both Talvitie et al.'s. and Caires and Almeida's studies found that supervisors' role can shift during the field experience due to student teachers' needs. The studies also demonstrated that student teachers found their supervisor's personality to be a significant factor in the practicum experience, but this area of scholarship has not received much attention in the literature.

Unfortunately, there is also evidence of negative relationships between the student teacher and supervisor. Ong'ondo and Borg's (2011) case study of six student teachers and six supervisors found that students teachers were largely intimidated by their supervisors and did what they thought they had to do to please them. The supervisors in this study responded that they did not have enough time to foster personal relationships with students, because they had to move from observation to observation quickly, and they did not have time to consult with the mentor teacher on the student teacher's progress. Cuenca et al. (2011) lamented that state budget cuts resulted in their teacher education department reducing the number of student teacher observations from four to three, which made it even more difficult for the supervisors to develop relationships with their student teachers and strategize how best to coach the student teachers in their individual contexts.

Similarly, Borko and Mayfield (1995) used observation and interview data from the Learning to Teach Mathematics longitudinal study to examine four mathematics education student teachers' practicum experiences. They found that supervisors' lack of time to spend with

their student teachers, among other effects, resulted in superficial relationships with their student teachers, and supervisors avoided potentially difficult conversations in their conferences either due to low expectations or a desire to prevent conflict. Supervisors in their study also reported that a lack of time prevented them from engaging their student teachers in supplementary learning opportunities like group meetings with the supervisor's other student teachers. Other scholars have noted that supervisors are pressed for time (Talvitie et al., 2000; Zimpher & Rieger, 1998) but did not specifically state that the lack of time affected the quality of the student teacher-supervisor relationships. Furthermore, having to evaluate student teachers can also have negative effects on the student teacher and their relationship with the supervisor. Student teachers did not appreciate harsh criticism or feedback from the supervisors (Talvitie et al., 2000) and could be resistant to it (Fayne, 2007). An overly evaluative approach to supervision can force student teachers to focus on their grade, which stifles creativity and experimentation (Ong'ondo & Borg, 2011; Talvitie et al., 2000).

The relationship between the supervisor and student teacher is also related to the supervisory approach. For example, a directive approach entails the supervisor telling the student teacher what to do, defining what good teaching is, and preventing the student teacher from making important decisions (Gebhard, 1990). This approach can be damaging to the relationship, because the supervisor can be threatening (e.g. disapprove of what the student teacher has planned), can damage student teacher's confidence by making themselves seem superior, and student teachers can become defensive. Gebhard (1990) argued if the supervisors do not let the student teachers make decisions, the supervisor ends up running the class and prevents the student teachers from growing professionally and in their confidence. In contrast, in an alternative or collaborative approach, the supervisor and student teacher work together to

plan, reflect, and problem-solve (Cogan, 1973; Freeman, 1982; Gebhard, 1990). In the alternative approach, the supervisor gives alternatives to the student teacher to choose from when planning or reflecting with the intention to foster critical thinking from a repository of options. The efficacy of the options is not important but rather that the student teacher think critically about the options. This provides a finite number of options for the student teacher (an infinite number of options might be overwhelming) and allows the student teacher to maintain responsibility for what goes on in the class. The student teacher tries alternatives (including opposites) and learns from the effects of those choices. In this way, he grows developmentally. In this model, the supervisor should be neutral toward all possible options. The goal is an equal relationship (Freeman, 1982; Gebhard, 1990). Talvitie et al. (2000) reported successful relationships between student teachers and supervisors when the alternative approach was used. The collaborative approach as described by Gebhard (1990) is essentially Cogan's (1973) model of clinical supervision. The supervisor actively collaborates with the student teacher to assist in decision-making and problem-solving, and the student teacher establishes a sharing relationship with the supervisor.

In the non-directive approach borrowed from Rogers (1951, 1961), the supervisor listens to the student teacher and repeats back what the supervisor believes she has heard. The supervisor can solicit contextual knowledge to understand the situation. Then, the supervisor provides examples from her experience but not in a way that is superior. In this approach, the supervisor allows the student teacher to articulate, critique, ask questions, and grow from their own ideas. The basic assumption is that learning stems from the student teacher's experience. Gebhard (1990) noted that the non-directive relationship is not a sharing relationship, but it is a trusting relationship. In discussing these approaches, Freeman (1982) presented a hierarchy of

needs and made the case that the supervisory approach should hinge on individual student teachers' needs. Jyrhama (2001) presented the same argument and claimed the ability to meet different needs at different times is a measure of the supervisor's "competence" (p. 6). Scholars in Holland's (1988) review suggested action steps to ensure supervisors were not using their control in harmful ways but promoting more collaborative relationships. Recent scholarship has argued for more democratic relationships between the student teacher and supervisor. For example, Cuenca (2010) and Bullock (2012) documented their struggles to relinquish control of the knowledge of best ways of teaching and tendencies to coach their student teachers to adopt the practices they used as former teachers. Instead, they realized, as teacher educators, they needed to encourage their student teachers to seek answers and try out practices that would fit their teaching styles and beliefs. These attempts position the supervisor as a colleague and guide rather than an expert knower.

Researchers agree that supervisors can be successful when they work at the intersection of these approaches. Holland (1988) suggested "effective supervisory behaviors [include] balanced use of directive and non-directive behaviors" (p. 15). Furthermore, Fayne (2007) concluded, "The key to success was to know when to be prescriptive, interpretive, and supportive" (p. 63), and Caires and Almeida (2007) summarized:

In our opinion, it is at the core of this relational matrix—significant, emotionally charged and regulated by mutual respect, trust and support—that the student teachers find adequate conditions for the exploration, expression and integration of the multiple rehearsals and experiments involved in the first contact with the teaching profession. (p. 525)

Goldhammer (1969) theorized that when supervisors acknowledge the struggles of the student teachers without making the students feel judged, the relationship is likely to succeed. Engagement in quality discussions of student teachers' practice is another pathway toward establishing positive relationships (Talvitie et al., 2000). The literature shows that the relationship between the supervisor and the student teacher is important. Despite the different ways in which it has been theorized, the basic human relationship is political and is best when nurtured for a positive, productive, working relationship for both the supervisor and the student teacher.

2.6 SUPERVISOR TRAINING

Slick's (1997, 1998a, 1998b) and others' (Baecher et al., 2014; Conderman et al., 2005; Cuenca, 2012; Gelfuso et al., 2015; Tom, 1997; Zeichner, 2010) work has demonstrated that supervisors are outsiders in teacher education programs in that they are often graduate students, adjunct faculty, or the lowest ranking faculty—in other words, not full-time faculty. This outsourcing of the supervision of student teachers to outsiders is likely because supervision is underrated within teacher education departments (Cuenca, 2012; Slick, 1997; Zeichner, 2005, 2010) and teacher education is not valued within higher education (Darling-Hammond, 2010, Labaree, 2004; Zeichner, 2006). Not many teacher preparation programs evaluate the work of supervisors (Conderman et al., 2001), nor is there definitive research on the effectiveness of different supervision models (Conderman et al., 2005). Furthermore, major teacher education organizations do not define “supervisor” or the supervisors' tasks in their major policy documents: Association of Teacher Education (ATE) Field Experience Standards (Guyton &

Byrd, 2000), Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation's (CAEP) glossary (2015), NCATE PDS Standards (2001), NCATE Blue Ribbon Panel Report (2010) (Burns et al., 2016).

Perhaps due to the lack of a common definition and essential tasks of the supervisor, there are not frameworks available to evaluate supervisors' work (This review of the literature did not unearth one.) or guidelines to direct supervisors' practice according to current beliefs and trends. In a case-in-point example, Rodgers and Keil (2007) examined the supervision practices of a teacher education program at a large research university in the Midwest and found that the school was using supervisory practices from the 1970s. While these are not inherently undesirable, ideas about teacher education have changed in the past 45 years and the supervisory practices could be revisited and reassessed within the context of the university, the school site, and current research on the effectiveness of supervisory approaches. Furthermore, scholars have pointed out that supervisors actively work in two different spaces—the university and the field placement site—although supervisors may not have agency in either space (Guillaume & Rudney, 1993; McNamara, 1995; Slick, 1997; Zeichner, 2010) or have the agency to change their role as outsiders (Beck & Kosnik, 2002). Davey (2013) and others (e.g. Swennen & van der Klink, 2009) expand this problem to all teacher educators, not just supervisors. They illuminate a general lack of research on teacher educators, the low-status of teacher educators at the university level, and the lack of formal induction and socialization for teacher educators.

Some researchers have attempted to work against the isolation of supervisors with mixed results. Part-time faculty supervisors at a large, urban university formed a “community of practice” (p. 6) online to ask and answer questions about supervising (Baecher et al., 2014). The group “reduced some of the isolation that takes place in this line of work which is carried out individually at multiple school sites, and without direct interaction with peers” (Baecher et al.,

2014, p. 6). However, they did this largely on their own without institutional support after the group had been called together for on-campus training. In a small, liberal arts college, Fayne (2007) invited supervisors (all adjunct faculty) to education department meetings, but most did not come and the ones who came did not participate. She speculated it was either that the supervisors were not interested, or they did not feel it was their place to contribute. Fayne also led supervisor meetings once per quarter in which the supervisors were more active. Through these meetings, the supervisors developed an action research project, a rubric, and grading system that they then implemented. This group gave the supervisors agency, brought supervisors out of their isolation, and allowed them to share ideas and experiences stemming from their work. These findings demonstrate that forming supervisor professional learning communities to workshop problems and giving the group responsibilities within the program can lead to more inclusive and less-isolating work environments at the university level.

One significant consequence of being overlooked as a supervisor is a lack of training for the role (Dangel & Tanguay, 2014; Danielowich & McCarthy, 2013; Goldhammer, 1969; Mudavanhu, 2015; O'Reilly & Renzaglia, 1994; Stones, 2003; Zeichner, 2005). In the first line of his preface in the touchstone text, *Clinical Supervision*, Goldhammer (1969) wrote, "Supervisor education has never occupied an important place in America's colleges and graduate schools of education, nor has supervision of instruction ever emerged as a systematic professional discipline" (p. vii). Fifteen years later, Stones (1984, 2003) argued a similar sentiment—that most institutions do not provide training to supervisors likely due to the belief that supervising is not difficult. Most recently, Gelfuso et al. (2015) confirmed again that supervisors do not receive adequate training in the complexities of the field experience, especially as they "grapple with theory and practice, negotiating complex relationships among

triad members” and “exis[t] in” (n. p.) two spaces (the university and the field site) (Slick, 1997; Zeichner, 2010). Mudavanhu (2015) put the problem more bluntly: “new recruits in teacher education find themselves in the field supervising student teachers as soon as they take up the posts without any form of induction” (p. 99). Zeichner (2005) remarked that doctoral students at research universities bear the brunt of supervision but do not receive training or ongoing support, and then those doctoral students go on to teach at teacher preparation institutions where they continue to lack professional development on teacher education. The research universities that prepared the doctoral students did not consider it essential to train them as future teacher educators. Zeichner argued that the opposite should be the case: that research institutions have a responsibility to engage graduate students and prepare them to become teacher educators as well as to study their own teacher education programs and conduct research into best practices in teacher education. Finally, Morberg and Eisenschmidt (2009) suggested two forms of induction for teacher educators: a first induction phase for new teacher educators that links past history as a teacher with initial teacher education and a second induction phase for more experienced teacher educators whereby they become socialized into the “knowledge, skills, qualities, norms, and manners” (p. 104) of the university and learn about teaching teachers. The authors noted that for both phases to be successful, the teacher educators must be willing to engage in critical reflection of their practice.

Although there are no industry standards or widely-accepted guidelines on what supervisors should be able to do (Dinkelman, 2011), Zeichner (2005) offered a few suggestions: (1) Help student teachers learn to discern when to use particular praxis and how to adapt to changing contexts; (2) Guide student teachers to more advanced teaching practices in constantly-changing contexts; and (3) Develop reflective habits and abilities, especially in terms of the

assumptions student teachers bring with them to the classroom. Scholarship on supervising in the third space also posits that supervisors should be able to navigate those spaces, develop and manage relationships and care for the needs of others in those spaces (e.g. Martin et al., 2011; Williams, 2014).

Despite this overall lack of training, the literature did reveal a few examples of attempts to provide training to supervisors and recommendations for training. Baecher et al. (2014) reported that supervisors in their program (all part-time) received training both on-campus and online regularly. The professional development training sessions focused on giving feedback in pre- and post-lesson conferences. Stemming from these meetings, the supervisors themselves formed a community of practice online to ask and answer questions about supervising. Secondly, in a deliberate effort to involve supervisors, Fayne (2007) conducted a mandatory two-day Level 1 training in *Pathwise*, an Educational Testing Service (ETS) training program (Fayne, 2007, p. 64). As previously noted, these meetings led to more supervisor involvement in the program. Ong'ondo and Borg (2011) noted that the supervisors in their study were given a copy of the *Teaching Practice Guide*, a guide written by the university to help supervisors work with student teachers through the practicum. However, Ong'ondo and Borg did not indicate whether the supervisors received any formal training in using the text to inform their practice. Furthermore, many of the studies on teacher identity development and working in the third space suggested that supervisors could grow in their identity and pedagogy through critical reflection and shared inquiry with peers as discussed in prior sections.

Recommendations for training supervisors included: programs should offer trainings for supervisors at least once before the school year begins (O'Reilly & Renzaglia, 1994), program

administrators could meet supervisors to discuss the roles and be selective about matching supervisors and student teachers (Nonis & Jernice, 2011), and “empirically proven” training that includes: video-recordings of classes, ongoing assessment, and clear supervisory standards (Conderman et al., 2005, p. 10). Morberg and Eisenschmidt (2009) suggested that the topics of supervisor induction should include: university teaching, meeting student teachers’ needs, evaluation of student teachers’ work and growth, inquiry-based and reflective teaching, and organizational structures and opportunities (p. 110).

2.6.1 Recruiting supervisors

A final issue around the training of supervisors noted in the literature was the ability to recruit supervisors. Potentially due to their low status at the university (Conderman et al., 2005), recruiting high-quality supervisors can be difficult. Stones (2003) argued that teacher preparation programs do not recruit supervisors specifically for their supervising abilities but rather for their content knowledge. Others have proposed a pessimistic opinion that supervisors are not hired for their content or supervisory knowledge, but simply because they are available (Warger & Aldinger, 1984). As noted previously, Conderman et al.’s (2005) study of program administrators found that 13% of those surveyed responded that their greatest programmatic challenge was finding supervisors, and Mabunda (2013) demonstrated that the demand for supervisors could grow exponentially with the advent of online and distance learning teacher education programs. Therefore, not only do teacher education administrators face the challenge of providing adequate training for supervisors, but they also struggle to recruit candidates to their programs. Despite the lack of training that occurs overall for supervisors, there are texts available for the training of supervisors (Acheson & Gall, 2003; Anderson, Major, & Mitchell,

1992; Rogers & Jenkins, 2010) that are structured like textbooks and offer practical strategies for university supervisors and program administrators. These and similar texts may be utilized generally by program administrators to provide training for university supervisors. Furthermore, a few sources included exemplary teacher educator induction programs (Morgerg & Eisenschmidt, 2009) and institutes (e.g. MOFET Instituted referenced in Sweenen et al. (2009)).

2.7 CONCLUSION

The literature on the role of the supervisor and training for supervisors reinforced the importance of the university supervisor. Supervisors have been a critical component of the student teaching triad for decades, and teacher education programs continue to almost ubiquitously rely on supervisors to reinforce university teaching at the school site. There is some research on the impact of supervisors on student teachers' development, but the findings are mixed and the studies are somewhat dated. Perhaps because researchers have not empirically proven the effect of supervisors' work on the development of student teachers, the supervision of student teachers is not highly valued at the university and the work is relegated to low-ranking faculty and graduate students. Furthermore, supervisors receive very little preparation for their work. There is an assumption that classroom teaching prepares supervisors for their roles, which has resulted in a dearth of induction programs and continuing professional development.

In lieu of socialization into the university through organizational supports, supervisors who were teachers retreat to their classroom teacher identities and frequently do not adopt professional, university-based teacher educator identities. However, scholars recognize that supervisors' work is complex and multifaceted, and supervisors perform a variety of roles,

functions, and constantly navigate spaces and actors between the university and school site. Transitioning from a classroom teacher identity to a teacher educator identity is difficult work but can be promoted through organizational supports like communities of practice and discussion groups. Despite the consensus that university supervisors are important, they are still relatively overlooked outsiders who receive little training for their work. It may be that the low status of supervisors that allows them to fly under the radar with little training, but the importance of the supervisor to the shared supervision and clinical supervision models as well as the practicum experience should stimulate program administrators to find ways to better prepare and support supervisors for and in their work.

2.7.1 Filling gaps in the literature

This study seeks to fill gaps in the literature in a few select ways. First, none of the studies I found specifically examined supervisors' roles or tensions enacting their roles. The studies that discussed supervisors' roles did so in prescriptive ways, and only a few sought supervisors' opinions of their own roles. This work fills that gap by reporting findings of supervisors' own role identities and efficacy in carrying out their work. Secondly, none of the theoretical or empirical work around teacher educator identity and training is specific to part-time, non-graduate student supervisors. The majority of self-studies about teacher identity development were written by then-doctoral students or full-time faculty members in teacher education programs. Although researchers have noted a dependence on adjunct faculty (e.g. Baecher et al., 2014; Cuenca, 2012) to supervise, the literature is not representative of this group's unique challenges and needs in enacting their roles. Because the majority of supervisors in this study were second career supervisors who were not graduate students or full-time faculty at City

University, this study contributes to the literature by including adjunct faculty's perspectives and experiences. Thirdly, while many of the empirical studies were of individual or small groups of supervisors, this research offers a case study of a cohort of supervisors in a teacher education program at a Research I institution. In the studies I reviewed, there were no case studies of a cohort of supervisors in a teacher education program. While case studies are limited in their potential to generalize and extend findings, the results of this study can provide a foundation for future work in other Research I institutions and reveal stronger patterns than studies of individual or small groups of supervisors. The inclusion of the co-directors' perspectives on their supervisors is also unique to this study. Furthermore, this study uses liminal space as part of the conceptual framework to frame supervisors' experiences and potential for learning and identity formation. This goes beyond the descriptive output that third space theory offers.

3.0 METHODOLOGY

This study is a qualitative case study of university supervisors of student teachers in a teacher education program at a Research I university in the Northeast. This study reports data collected via a survey instrument, interviews, and analysis of documents. Although the study is generally qualitative, I utilize some quantitative data analysis methods to treat the survey data. First in this chapter, I introduce the research design of the study including a justification for the case study approach. Next, I present the data collection instruments and procedures as well as descriptions of the research site and target population. Thirdly, I describe the data collection methodology and conclude the chapter with a discussion of the data analysis procedures.

3.1 RESEARCH DESIGN

This section describes the research design and justifications for the study. Here I discuss the case study research approach, the four phases of the research design including data collection instruments, and the research site and targeted population for the study.

3.1.1 Research approach

The case study methodology literature closely informed the design of this study. I used Yin's (2009) definition of case study as "an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident" (p. 18). This definition is complimented by Stake's (2000) conception that case study is not a methodology per se, but rather it is distinguished by the object of study, the case, and the interest in that specific case. The end goal and pressing epistemological question of the case study is to understand the case—its uniqueness and its complexity—rather than to generalize the findings to other cases (Stake, 1988). In this study I focused on how university supervisors understood their role within the teacher education program at City University and how they are being trained for their work. As in other case study research, my goal was to provide an extensive and in-depth description of a current, existing social phenomenon (Yin, 2009). I as the researcher had no control over how university supervisors viewed their role or the training they received, and the study centered on practicing university supervisors who were currently working in a teacher education program at the time I collected the data. Furthermore, the case under study was a "specific, unique, bounded system" (Stake, 2000, p. 436). It was bounded by the teacher education program and, to some extent, by the time of study since university supervisors change from year to year. There are units and subunits within the case including: academic programs and content areas within the teacher education program and, among participants, years of experience supervising and status or role within teacher education at the university (e.g. graduate student, adjunct faculty, faculty, retired practitioner, etc.).

Since the primary purpose of my research was to gain knowledge about the specific case under study (Stake, 2000) and to gain preliminary information that can lead to later hypothesis and theory building (Yin, 2009), I designed the study as an intrinsic, exploratory case study. It is an intrinsic case study, because I wanted to learn about how university supervisors *themselves* understood their role, what formal training they had received and would prefer, and if and how they engaged in informal learning about their work to improve their practice (Stake, 2000). Furthermore, the study is exploratory, because there is scant new research on university supervisors' role conceptions and training supports. I also wanted to document the aforementioned topics and build a foundation for future theory development and empirical research.

3.1.2 Design of the study

Another reason I chose case study design is that it facilitates the collection and analysis of multiple data sources, which I believed would result in rich, descriptive data around supervisors' role conceptions and training preferences. To achieve a "concentrated inquiry" (Stake, 2000, p. 436) of university supervisors' views of their role and of the training they receive, I employed a three-pronged data collection approach that includes a survey, interviews, and document analysis over four research phases. This section describes the four stages of the research design and the three data collection instruments.

In Stage 1, I administered the supervisor survey. Results from the survey provided a broad picture of supervisor demographics, functions supervisors feel are central to their role, formal and informal training supervisors have received, and their ideas for training, organizational reform, and policy initiatives. The survey also provided me a first systematic

portrait of supervisors as a whole at City University, their beliefs, and their experiences. Next, I conducted supervisor interviews, which were designed to have the supervisors elaborate on the beliefs and experiences that they reported in the survey. Thus, I used the surveys to select supervisor participants to interview in Stage 2 and also to tailor the supervisor interviews somewhat to individual respondents. While participants could provide answers on the survey that they had not given much thought to, the interviews required participants to speak freely and at length, thus the interviews complimented the survey data. Also in Stage 2, I asked the interviewees to bring de-identified copies of their lesson observation forms to the interview that I hoped would inform the interview questions. Unfortunately, only two participants brought completed observation forms to the interviews⁸. I had intended to review the lesson observation forms with the supervisors, ask them to walk me through a typical observation conference, probe any interesting comments, explain why they structured their post-lesson conference in a particular way, and describe the tensions they experience at the PK-12 site. However, I later realized respondents may have been justifiably concerned about the quality of their feedback to student teachers being evaluated. Seeing no easy way to alleviate that concern, I decided to reach out to the interviewees and ask them to email me examples of “thorough” observations they conducted in the past semester. While that would yield purposefully selected, best-effort lesson observations rather than typical ones, I would at least be able to get a sense of the scope and nature of feedback for which the supervisors were striving. Finally, in Stage 2, I collected program documents (e.g. program handbooks, program observation forms, program evaluation forms) that I suspected would provide insight into how City University conceives the role of the supervisor. These documents were publicly available online at City University’s website. In

⁸ Two other participants brought blank observation forms to share, and the rest forgot to bring the observation forms.

Stage 3, I engaged in both quantitative and qualitative data analysis of the three data sources: survey data, interview transcripts, and documents. It is important to note that Stage 3 was an iterative process. I engaged in multiple coding cycles of the qualitative data and comparisons across the data sources. The three data sources allowed me to triangulate the data to improve the validity of the study (Stake, 2000; Yin, 2009). Finally, in Stage 4, I interpreted the data analysis results and arrived at conclusions regarding supervisors’ beliefs about the central functions of their role, tensions between supervisors’ role definitions and efficacy, training supports, and supervisors’ beliefs about training opportunities, organizational reforms, and policy initiatives that would improve their effectiveness. Figure 1 below portrays the four stages of the research design.

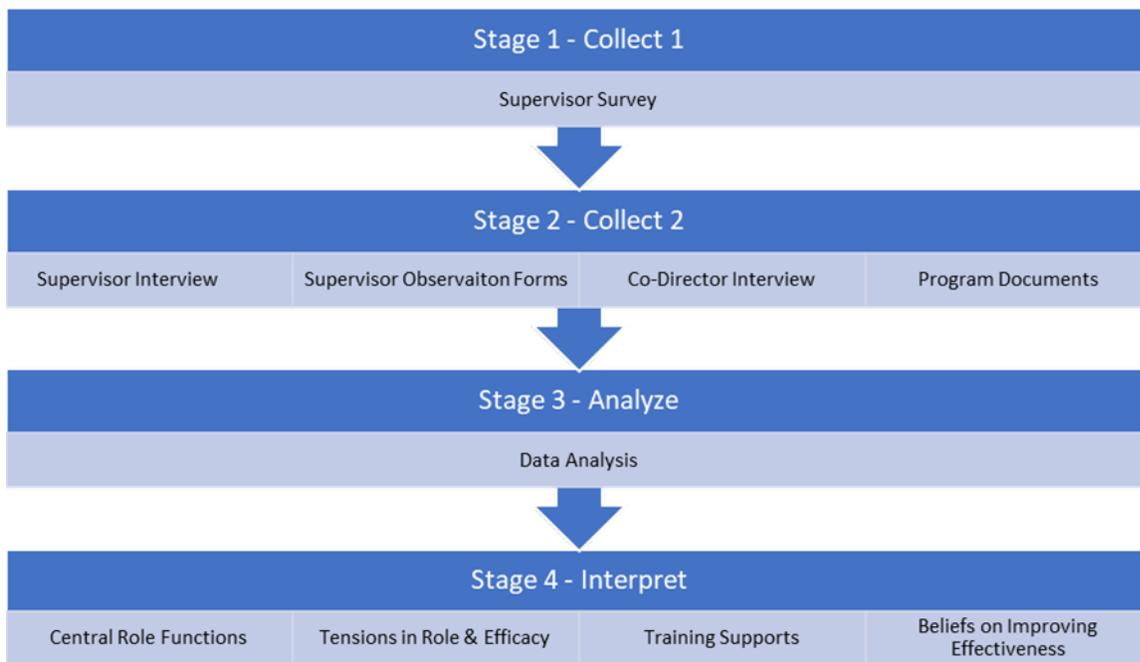


Figure 1. Research Design Flowchart

Table 2 below aligns the research questions with the data sources, evidence sought, and data analysis plan, and connects the research questions to the literature base.

Table 2. Research Design Table

Research Question	Data Source	Evidence Sought	Analysis Plan	Connection to the Literature
What functions do university supervisors of student teachers report as central to their occupational roles?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supervisor survey – Section II & V • Supervisor interview – Section I & II • Program documents • Lesson observation forms 	<p>Role enactment or conception (e.g. “I primarily focus on providing feedback on lesson planning and instruction,” examples of evaluation on observation forms, etc.).</p> <p>Beliefs about training needed (e.g. “I would like to learn how to better support students when they are experiencing emotional stress.”).</p>	<p><i>Survey data</i> Descriptive statistics</p> <p><i>Interview data</i> Transcription, member-checking, coding of interview transcripts as outlined below</p> <p><i>Document Analysis data</i> Qualitative coding as outlined below</p> <p>First cycle coding: Structural & Initial Coding (Saldaña, 2016) of concepts, ideas, examples, phrases, and narratives related to the role typology.</p> <p>Second cycle coding: Pattern Coding (Saldaña, 2016) of first cycle codes to develop major themes.</p>	<p>Supervisors’ roles can be categorized as: <u><i>Instructional teacher / coach</i></u> (Akcan & Tatar, 2010; Baecher et al., 2014; Bailey, 2006; Fayne, 2007; Lutovac et al., 2014)</p> <p><u><i>Counselor / mentor</i></u> (e.g. Bailey, 2006; Caires & Almeida, 2007; Fayne, 2007; Gelfuso et al., 2015; Mudavanhu, 2015)</p> <p><u><i>Practicum Manager</i></u> (Enz et al., 1996; Fayne, 2007)</p> <p><u><i>Evaluator</i></u> (Baecher et al., 2014; Hamel, 2012; Mudavanhu, 2015)</p> <p><u><i>Socializer into teaching profession</i></u> (Bailey, 2006; Enz et al., 1996; McNamara, 1995)</p> <p>Supervisors’ work is important to teacher education (e.g. Baecher et al., 2014; Youngs & Bird, 2010)</p> <p>There is a lack of training for university supervisors (Dangel & Tanguay, 2014; Danielowich & McCarthy, 2013; Gelfuso et al., 2105; Goldhammer, 1969; Mudavanhu, 2015).</p>

Table 2 continued

Research Question	Data Source	Evidence Sought	Analysis Plan	Connection to the Literature
What tensions exist between supervisors' role definitions and their efficacy in carrying out those functions, and what are the sources of those tensions?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Supervisor survey – Section I, II, III, & V 	Supervisors', mentor teachers', and administrators' expectations for supervisors at the PK-12 site.	<p><i>Survey data</i> Descriptive statistics</p> <p><i>Interview data</i> Transcription, member-checking, coding of interview transcripts as outlined below</p> <p><i>Document Analysis data</i> Qualitative coding as outlined below</p>	There is a lack of training for university supervisors (Dangel & Tanguay, 2014; Danielowich & McCarthy, 2013; Gelfuso et al., 2105; Goldhammer, 1969; Mudavanhu, 2015)
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Supervisor interview – Section II 	Supervisors, program administrators', and program faculty's expectations for the supervisor at the university site.	<p>Supervisors can be ignored or feel like outsiders at the university and the PK-12 site (Slick 1997, 1998a, 1998b)</p>	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Co-Director interview – Section II & III 	Tensions between the roles supervisors enact and the PK-12 and university site.	<p>First cycle coding: Initial Coding (Saldaña, 2016) of concepts, ideas, examples, phrases, and narratives related to role typology and efficacy.</p>	Supervisors are typically contingent faculty (Baecher et al., 2014; Conderman et al., 2005; Gelfuso et al., 2015; Tom, 1997; Zeichner, 2010)
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Program documents 	Tensions between the roles supervisors want to enact and are able to (supervisor efficacy).	<p>Second cycle coding: Pattern Coding (Saldaña, 2016) of first cycle codes to develop major themes</p>	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Lesson observation forms 	<p>Program policies governing supervisors at the university site.</p> <p>Supervisor demographics (e.g. status at the university).</p>		

Table 2 continued

Research Question	Data Source	Evidence Sought	Analysis Plan	Connection to the Literature
What formal and informal training opportunities support university supervisors' work?	• Supervisor survey – Section III & IV	Professional development offerings by university faculty and staff (e.g. orientations, skill development trainings).	<i>Survey data</i> Descriptive statistics	Supervisors desire interactions with and support from other supervisors (Slick, 1998a, 1998b)
	• Supervisor interview - Section II	Other interactions with university faculty and staff where the supervisor sought guidance (e.g. email, phone, or in-person conversations).	<i>Interview data</i> Transcription, member-checking, coding of interview transcripts.	Working with other supervisors decreases feelings of isolation (Baecher et al., 2014; Fayne, 2007)
	• Co-director interview – Section III & IV	Solicitation of other supervisors' advice and opinions.	First cycle coding: Initial Coding (Saldaña, 2016) of concepts, ideas, examples, phrases, and narratives related to professional development.	Other studies of teachers have shown that they learn from and value interactions with peers (e.g. Pogodzinski, 2012)
		Establishment of professional learning communities.	Second cycle coding: Pattern Coding (Saldaña, 2016) of first cycle codes to develop major themes	Organizational supports affect teacher retention (Ingersoll, 2003, Kraft & Papay, 2014; Simon & Johnson, 2015)
	Individual study of the theory and practice of supervision.		Organizational supports affect teacher professionalization (May & Supovitz, 2010; Kraft et al., 2016; Santoro, 2018)	
			Relationships with colleagues affect teacher retention (Johnson & Birkeland, 2003; Kraft et al., 2016; Simon & Johnson, 2015)	

Table 2 continued

Research Question	Data Source	Evidence Sought	Analysis Plan	Connection to the Literature
What training opportunities, organizational reforms, or policy initiatives do university supervisors of student teachers believe would improve their effectiveness?*	• Supervisor survey – Section V	Desires for increased support from program administrators in the work of supervision	<i>Survey data</i> Descriptive statistics	There is a lack of training for university supervisors (Dangel & Tanguay, 2014; Danielowich & McCarthy, 2013; Gelfuso et al., 2105; Mudavanhu, 2015). Organizational supports affect teacher retention (Ingersoll, 2003, Kraft & Papay, 2014; Simon & Johnson, 2015) Organizational supports affect teacher professionalization (May & Supovitz, 2010; Kraft et al., 2016; Santoro, 2018)
	• Supervisor interview – Section II	Desires for more knowledge of policies, contexts, skills, practices, and theories, etc. of supervision from administrators and faculty	<i>Interview data</i> Transcription, member-checking, coding of interview transcripts.	
	• Co-director interview – Section III & IV	Desires for increased interaction with other supervisors Desires for organizational reforms at City University, the specific teacher education program, the PK-12 site, or the State Department of Education Desires for changes to program policies at City University, the specific teacher education program, the PK-12 site, or the State Department of Education	First cycle coding: Initial Coding (Saldaña, 2016) of concepts, ideas, examples, phrases, and narratives related to professional development. Second cycle coding: Pattern Coding (Saldaña, 2016) of first cycle codes to develop major themes	

*These evidences were sought within the context of improving supervisors' practice, not for the sole sake of desiring change.

3.1.3 Data collection instruments: Survey instrument

I developed and administered a survey instrument as a way to collect standardized information from the supervisors at City University (Buckingham & Saunders, 2004; Fowler, 2013; Groves & Singer, 2004). My aims were primarily descriptive, seeking to collect contextual information on supervisors' backgrounds in education, experiences supervising at City University, and ideas for future training, organizational reforms, and policy initiatives. Since individual supervisors' experiences could be vastly different and since I was examining a specific case, the survey was important to provide a broad picture of the supervisors holistically. I chose to use an online survey for two reasons. First, the supervisors do not have campus offices or mailboxes and they are rarely on campus, so a paper survey distributed in-person did not seem feasible. Secondly, I did not have access to supervisors' addresses or phone numbers to contact them at home and administer the survey either in-person, over the phone, or by mail. Online surveys run the risk of low response rates, in some cases so low as to jeopardize the study (Tourangeau, Conrad, & Cooper, 2013). However, I had reason to believe I could achieve a high response rate in this study. First, I knew a few of the supervisors, and I hoped that the supervisors would be more likely to take a survey at the invitation of someone whom they knew or someone who had previously been in their position. I also hoped that using a university email account would provide credibility and increase the response rate. By using an online format, I also thought that supervisors could take the survey at a time and in a setting that was convenient to them, thus improving the quality of their responses (Roberts, 2007). I specifically chose to distribute the survey over the university's winter break, because I expected that supervisors would have more time to complete the survey and provide in-depth responses to the survey at a time when they did

not have obligations to their student teachers. Finally, the online survey was cost-effective to develop and distribute (Tourangeau et al., 2013) and saved time since I could send the survey link to all participants at once.

I distributed the survey through Qualtrics to university supervisors who were currently supervising in the teacher education program at City University (n=39) at the time of the study. The survey contained 68 open-ended, closed-ended, and scale choice items soliciting background demographics, supervisors' opinions about their role, tensions within their role, training for the role, and suggestions for improving their effectiveness. Due to the skip pattern that consisted of follow up questions dependent on participants' responses, not every question was displayed to every participant. Participants could go back and review or edit their responses before submitting in case the supervisors thought of something else they wanted to add or revise before they submitted the survey. In addition, participants could skip questions because not all may have applied to all participants, and I did not want supervisors to become frustrated and abandon the survey.

The survey had five major sections. Four sections aligned with one of the research questions, and one section sought descriptive data. The five sections were: descriptive/demographic data, role and functions of the supervisor, formal training received, engagement in informal learning, and preferred formal training, organizational reforms, and policy initiatives. The survey instrument is included in Appendix A. I estimated the survey would take 35-45 minutes to complete and kept the surveys anonymous unless the participant volunteered to participate in a post-survey interview⁹. The purpose of the survey instrument was to gain: (1) Demographic information about the university supervisors (their role prior to

⁹ The final item on the survey asked if the supervisor was willing to participate in a follow up interview. The participants had the option to decline this invitation.

becoming a supervisor, number of years supervised, number of student teachers supervised, etc.); (2) A broad understanding of how one university's teacher education program formally trains its supervisors; (3) A broad understanding of informal training and other sources of learning for supervisors; (4) Understandings about tensions supervisors face as they enact their role(s); (5) Understandings of supervisors' efficacy to enact their role(s); and (6) Ideas supervisors have for training opportunities, organizational reforms, and policy initiatives.

3.1.4 Data collection instruments: Supervisor interviews

After collecting the standardized survey responses, I wanted to collect data on supervisors' "lived experience" supervising in City University's teacher education program and learn about "the meaning they make of that experience" (Seidman, 2013, p. 9). Thus, I conducted in-depth interviews modeled on Rubin and Rubin's (2012) responsive interviewing method with ten supervisors. The centerpiece of the responsive interviewing method is tailoring the interview to individual interviewees' responses, personalities, and customs (Rubin & Rubin, 2012). This flexibility was particularly important in the present study where I was studying the invisible processes of role enactment and tensions in role enactment. While I came to the interview prepared with questions I wanted to ask, I needed the freedom to change and adapt those questions as the conversation progressed. This was important, because I assumed that not all supervisors would have the same experiences or want to or have a lot to say about specific interview questions. On the other hand, I assumed that some supervisors would have a lot to say about specific topics, so I did not want to stifle them by cutting them off to move on to the next question when they had more to discuss. Thus, the in-depth interviews permitted me to engage with participants who had "knowledge of or experience with the problem of interest" and

“explore in detail the experiences, motives and opinions of others and learn to see the world from perspectives other than their own” (Rubin & Rubin, 2012, p. 3). While I had been a supervisor and had my own experiences and biases, I expected the interviewees to bring a fresh perspective on the experiences, perspectives, beliefs, and sense-making of supervisory work. Appendix B contains the supervisor interview questions.

3.1.5 Data collection instruments: Co-director of teacher education interviews

I conducted interviews with both of the co-directors of teacher education at City University. I wanted to learn how both co-directors viewed the central functions of their supervisors, hear about any struggles supervisors had or areas where they felt that supervision could improve, learn about trainings that had been offered to supervisors, and collect co-directors’ suggestions for training, organizational reform, or policy initiatives to support supervisor efficacy. The interview questions were semi-structured and had four sections and 16 main questions. The four sections were: descriptive information, role of the supervisor, supervisor training (formal), and supervisor training (informal). The goals of these interviews were to understand administrators’ views of the role of the university supervisor, to learn about the training administrators believe university supervisors need based on administrators’ conceptions of supervisors’ roles, and to learn about what training they have provided in the past and if they have plans to provide training in the future. When designing the study, I also hypothesized the co-directors may also reveal challenges of overseeing and providing training to supervisors; thus, for example, if the supervisors lamented not receiving training, I might find insight into the reality of working with supervisors through interviews with the co-directors. On the contrary, I might also find that the co-directors believed the supervisors were adequately prepared for their work. I also wanted to

know how the co-directors viewed the role of the supervisor so that I could compare that to how the supervisors viewed their role. In so doing, any disconnects about the role supervisors play would come to light and, perhaps, any tensions in enacting the role. Appendix C contains the co-director of teacher education interview questions.

3.1.6 Data collection instruments: Document analysis

Although document analysis can be used for many purposes (see Bowen (2009)), I was primarily interested in the program documents and lesson observation forms for their utility in providing context (e.g. program policies, procedures, evidence of supervising), supplementing what the participants reported in the survey and interviews, and triangulating the two other data sources. Two sets of documents supplemented the survey and interview data: program documents (e.g. student teacher handbooks, lesson observation forms, formative and summative evaluation forms) and completed supervisor lesson observation forms. In addition, I thought the policies and procedures listed in the *Teacher Candidate Handbook* and other documents would clarify confusion or address questions or concerns supervisors raised the survey or interviews.

I included the lesson observation forms in this study because I thought they would provide fruitful data on how the supervisors enacted their conception of their role and their knowledge of supervising student teachers. When designing the study, I imagined these documents could highlight a potential disconnect between how supervisors view their roles and how administrators view the supervisor's role(s). I hoped they would also supplement the survey and interview findings on what functions supervisors felt were central to their work. In addition, I hypothesized the lesson observation forms could confirm program administrators' or supervisors' own beliefs that supervisors receive sufficient training to do their work well.

Finally, the lesson observation forms were actual products of the work of supervision. In other words, the interviewees could say they view their role in one way, but their lesson observation forms might demonstrate how they enact or do not enact particular roles in practice.

3.1.7 Research site

The site for this study was a teacher education program within the School of Education at a Research I institution located in an urban center in the Northeast. The institution enrolled approximately 19,000 undergraduate and 9,500 graduate students at the time of the study, was predominately White, and has one main campus and a several branch campuses¹⁰ according to the Office of Institutional Research at City University. The teacher education program at City University offered single and dual certification programs as well as certificates in early childhood education, a reading specialist program, and other special topics. Single certification programs included: early childhood education, secondary education (English education, foreign language education, mathematics education, science education, and social studies education), and other special topics. Dual certification programs included: applied developmental psychology / special education and secondary education (English education, foreign language education, mathematics education, science education, and social studies education) / special education. These programs differed in degree earned, time-to-degree, length of field experience, and coursework. It is important to note that the teacher education program at City University offered primarily graduate programs, which differs from most teacher education programs. Student teachers in these programs apprenticed at city public schools, private schools, charter schools,

¹⁰ Minor details of the university and program features are purposefully obfuscated to maintain confidentiality.

and suburban public schools in the region. The teacher education program relied on the clinical or shared supervision model that consisted of the student teacher, mentor teacher at the PK-12 site, and university supervisor. All of the programs had a program coordinator (although some programs shared a coordinator), and two co-directors of teacher education oversaw the program coordinators. Thus, the target population was 39 supervisors supporting four degree programs, multiple content areas and two co-directors of teacher education who were both faculty members as well as program coordinators in the School of Education.

3.1.8 Data collection methodology: An analytic sample

This section describes the data collection methodology for each of the primary data sources: the supervisor survey, supervisor interviews, co-directors of teacher education interviews, and program documents and lesson observation forms. To reduce redundancy, I only report basic response rate and sampling procedures here. Detailed methodological notes on recruitment and follow up procedures as well as interview detail tables can be found in Appendix D.

3.1.8.1 Survey sampling procedure

After I received site approval to conduct the study, I attempted to gather population data for the research site. Although population data is extremely difficult to obtain (Agresti & Finlay, 2009), the small number of university supervisors at the research site (n=39) made this attempt feasible. First, I requested a list of all university supervisors from the co-directors of teacher education. Then, I sent all university supervisors a recruitment email requesting their participation in the survey with a link to the online survey. Appendix E contains the survey recruitment script. Out of 39 possible supervisors, 28 responded to the survey, resulting in a 72% response rate. Of the

28 surveys started, two were incomplete¹¹, which resulted in a 93% completion rate of all surveys started and a 67% full-completion rate of all surveys begun.

3.1.8.2 Interview sampling procedure

To schedule the supervisor interviews, I emailed or called participants (depending on the contact information they provided in the survey) who consented to an interview with the approved recruitment script included in Appendix F. I emailed the participant a digital copy of his or her completed survey so he or she would be able to review his or her responses in preparation for the interview. I sent 13 interview recruitment emails, 11 participants responded, and I conducted interviews with ten¹² supervisors. To compliment the supervisor interviews, I conducted interviews with both co-directors in the teacher education program (n=2). Because there were only two co-directors, I did not need a sample of participants but rather recruited both co-directors for an interview. After I completed the supervisor interviews, I contacted both co-directors of teacher education via email with the approved recruitment script included in Appendix G to solicit their participation in an interview. I purposefully waited until to interview the co-directors until after I had interviewed the supervisors and coded the supervisor interview data so that I could strategically include findings from the supervisor interviews in the co-director interviews. Table 3 below provides demographic details about the interviewees¹³.

¹¹ I sent both participants reminder emails that their surveys were incomplete and requested they finish the survey, but they did not.

¹²I actually interviewed 11 supervisors, but I disregarded one interview as the participant did not directly answer my questions and seemed more interested in expressing her opinions about City University's programs.

¹³ All names are pseudonyms.

Table 3. Interviewee Demographics

<u>Supervisor Demographics</u>								
Name	Gender	Race	Age	Role Before Sup.	Years Super- vising	Program	Mean n Students Supervised	Role at University
Courtney	Female	White	61-70	PK-12 Teacher	5	Elementary & Early Childhood Education	2	Adjunct Instructor
Shannon	Female	White	61-70	PK-12 Teacher	10+	English Education	7	Adjunct Instructor
Jeanne	Female	White	71-80	PK-12 Teacher	10+	Foreign Language Education	3	Adjunct Instructor
Diane	Female	White	71-80	PK-12 Admin	4	Special Education	3	Supervisor
Caroline	Female	White	61-70	PK-12 Teacher	1	Elementary Education	4	Supervisor
Maria	Female	White	51-60	PK-12 Teacher & PK-12 Admin	10+	Elementary Education	2	Faculty
Bill	Male	White	61-70	PK-12 Admin	7	Science Education	2	Supervisor
Paul	Male	White	61-70	PK-12 Teacher & PK-12 Admin	3	Elementary & Early Childhood Education	3	Supervisor
Lauren	Female	White	31-40	PK-12 Teacher	2	Mathematics Education	4	Graduate Student
Gracie	Female	Asian	20-30	PK-12 Teacher	1	Elementary & Early Childhood Education	8	Graduate Student

Table 3 continued

Co-Director Demographics

Name	Gender	Race	Years Working with Supervisors	Role at University	Program Coordinator
Katherine	Female	White	20+	Faculty	Special education, special education & content area
Erin	Female	White	6	Faculty	English, social studies & reading

3.1.8.3 Document analysis sampling procedure

To supplement the co-director interview data, I drew on program documents (e.g. student teacher handbooks, program observation forms, program evaluation forms) that I suspected would provide insight into how City University defined or described the role of the supervisor. I retrieved all of the program documents from City University’s teacher preparation website, which is a publically-available website for student teachers, mentor teachers, and university supervisors that contains program documents and supplemental materials¹⁴. I collected all the program materials that were available online for each of the teacher education programs. Once I had collected the documents, I reviewed them for evidence of: supervisor roles, role functions, tensions enacting roles, and available training following the document analysis protocol included in Appendix H. I allowed the *Teacher Candidate Handbook* to hold the official university position on supervisors’ roles and role functions, because it is the governing handbook across all programs and represents the teacher education program’s policies and procedures.

In addition, I solicited completed lesson observation forms from the supervisors whom I interviewed, because I suspected they would provide insight into how the supervisors enacted

¹⁴ It is important to note that if documents did not appear online on the university’s teacher preparation website, they may have existed elsewhere and been distributed to the supervisors in another format.

their role and might be an interesting comparison to how they discussed conceiving of their roles in our interviews. After the interviewee agreed to an interview with me, I asked him or her to bring “one or two examples of a thorough lesson observation form” to the interview. Unfortunately, the majority of supervisors forgot to bring the observation forms. Following the interview, I emailed the participants who had forgotten to bring the forms and requested that they email a de-identified copy. Five supervisors emailed samples of their lesson observation forms, two responded that they would but did not before I had to move on with the data analysis, and three supervisors did not respond to my request. I analyzed the lesson observation forms according to the lesson observation form protocol in Appendix I.

3.1.9 Data analysis

Collecting data via the survey instrument, interviews, and documents resulted in mixed quantitative and qualitative data. However, one benefit of having multiple data sources in a case study is the ability to triangulate the data to increase the validity of the study (Stake, 2000; Yin, 2009). To analyze the data, I used both quantitative and qualitative procedures. This section provides specific details and procedures I used to analyze the survey, the interview data, and the documents. I interpreted findings and drew conclusions based on the correspondence theory of truth. With multiple sources of data providing evidence on supervisor’s role beliefs, it is possible that contradictions could arise. For example, supervisors might have indicated that they embodied multiple roles on the survey but relate in the interview or lesson observation form that they strongly embodied one or two and only sporadically embodied a third or fourth. Correspondence theory is based on the belief that truth corresponds to actual facts as they are perceived to be in reality and that truth exists “in relation to reality” (David, 2015, n. p.). Using

the correspondence theory framework, I interpreted survey, interview, and document analysis data not necessarily by a true/false dichotomy but rather as the data relate to my perceptions of reality, which was informed by the multiple data points and my experience as a university supervisor.

3.1.9.1 Analysis of survey data

The survey instrument contained a combination of closed-ended, open-ended, multiple choice (some of which had a fill-in-the-blank option), and scale questions that resulted in numerical, categorical, and qualitative data. For the majority of the survey items, frequencies and means provided evidence of central tendency and variability on essential components of supervisors' work. I treated the open-ended survey questions as qualitative data, which I coded following the same procedures as the interview data described in detail in the next section. I kept all open-ended survey responses in a separate Excel file codebook that was organized by the five sections of the survey. I went through each survey question using first and second cycle coding methods for each response. In the first cycle coding, I used Structural and Initial Coding (Saldaña, 2016), whereby I assigned a code or multiple codes to each response and aligned them to the four research questions. After I had completed the Initial Coding of the interview transcripts, I grouped codes that were very similar (e.g. "Continue to be in the classroom" and "Still wanted to be involved in education") by research question and parts of the research questions. If a code fit in multiple places, I put it in both places. For example, I grouped "Assist novice teachers" with "Second career supervisor" and "Practitioner experience." I also jotted down initial thoughts as I coded and as I combined codes and noted any initial patterns, tensions, disagreements, questions, and clarifications. Finally, I followed Corbin and Strauss's (2015) recommendation of keeping a list of emerging codes to revisit through the analysis that I eventually merged with a similar list I

had from the interview data analysis. As it turned out, there was much less second cycle coding work, since the questions were directed toward specific aspects of supervising and the respondents' answers were brief and direct. However, I did combine all of the first cycle interview data codes into one Excel sheet according to the four research questions and the parts of the research questions and used Pattern Coding for the second cycle of the survey data coding (Saldaña, 2016). The second coding cycle reduced the number of codes (e.g. from 133 to 28 for supervisor's role). I wrote brief analytic memos following the first and second coding cycles (Saldaña, 2016) and kept a code frequency report (Namey, Guest, & Thairu, 2008). Lastly, I merged the second cycle survey codes with the codebook I had developed through the interview data analysis.

3.1.9.2 Analysis of interview data

I followed the same data analysis procedures for both the supervisor and the co-director interviews except for the code frequency reports, which I describe presently. To begin the data analysis, I transcribed each audio recording, sent the transcripts to the interviewees for member checking, and coded the data using a thematic analysis approach and following Saldaña's (2016) coding cycles. The purpose of first cycle coding is the initial sorting and categorizing of the data (Saldaña, 2016). In the first coding cycle of the interview data, I went through the audio data interview-by-interview and in the order that I had conducted the interviews. I pulled out quotes, ideas, and examples that aligned to each of the four research questions and parts of the research questions¹⁵ and assigned a code to each piece of text, used the participants' own language where possible, and organized the codes according to individual research questions. I used two types of

¹⁵ For example, RQ 3 had separate columns for formal training and informal training opportunities.

codes for the first cycle coding: Structural and Initial. Structural Coding is a “content-based or conceptual phrase representing a topic of inquiry to a segment of data that relates to a specific research question” (Saldaña, 2016, p. 66) and an elemental method of coding, which is frequently used in first coding cycles and forms the basis for subsequent coding cycles. Structural Coding is particularly useful for studies with “multiple participants, standardized or semi-structured data-gathering protocols, hypothesis testing, or exploratory investigations to gather topics lists or indexes of major categories or themes” (Saldaña, 2016, pp. 66-67). Structural Coding allowed me to identify content and concepts that directly related to the research questions, the conceptual framework, and the role typology. Thus, I utilized Structural Coding in the first coding cycle to generate a broad index of themes aligned to each of the research questions, instances of tension in the liminal space, role typology, and organizational supports.

Simultaneously, I used Initial Coding to “brea[k] down qualitative data into discrete parts, closely examin[e] them, and compar[e] them for similarities and differences” (Saldaña, 2016, p. 81). I included Initial Coding in addition to Structural Coding, because Structural Coding alone did not cover all of the data. Initial Coding, also called open coding, is also an elemental method that is useful for the primary stage of qualitative coding; the codes should provide the researcher with “analytic leads” (Saldaña, 2016, p. 81) and may change or be revised over the course of the data analysis. Furthermore, Initial Coding pairs well with “Aligned research questions [that] might begin with...‘What does it mean to be...’ These types of questions suggest the exploration of participant actions / processes and perceptions found within the data” (Saldaña, 2016, p. 70). I focused Initial Coding around supervisors’ enactment of their roles, instances of tension in the liminal space, causes of tension, and instances of training and

desire for changes to increase supervisor efficacy. Although Saldaña (2016) noted that Initial Coding is primarily paired with grounded theory, I relied on the liminal space framework, the role typology, and basic thematic analysis to organize, categorize, and analyze the data sources.

In the first coding cycle, many pieces of text had multiple codes, and some aligned with more than one research question. For example, Diane told me about a time when one of her mentor teachers wanted the student teacher to write an individualized education plan (IEP) for a student, which the student teacher was not permitted to do. At that point, Diane felt it was her responsibility to “clarify the role of the [student teacher] with the mentor.” When I coded this piece of text, I felt it implied two central functions of supervisors: “Clarify roles” and “Mediate problems with mentor teacher.” This example also spans the first and fourth research questions. It is both relevant to addressing the central functions of supervisors and an opportunity for training (i.e. “Clarifying roles between supervisor and mentor”) that other supervisors mentioned. After I had completed the Initial Coding of the interview transcripts, I grouped codes that were very similar (e.g. “Foster teaching ability” and “Instructional coach”) by research question and parts of the research questions. If a code fit in multiple places, I put it in more than one place. For example, “Practical guidance on real-world teaching” grouped with “Socialize into the profession” and “Supporting practice, not theory.”

I kept the first cycle codes in three separate but identical Excel file codebooks for supervisors (two with data from three participants, one with data from four), which made the organization easier, and another identical Excel file for the co-directors. As I was coding, I also kept a fifth tab for “Other Findings” in each Excel file where I placed codes that were relevant to the study but that did not fit exactly into the research questions (or I was not sure how they would fit yet) and quotes and codes that I was seeing across multiple participants that could be

unexpected findings not directly relevant to the study. In addition to the “Other Findings” section of the codebook, I also jotted down initial thoughts as I coded for the first time and as I combined codes and noted any initial patterns, tensions, disagreements, questions, and clarifications. Following Saldaña’s (2016) recommendation: “A personal debriefing or ‘reality check’ by the researcher is critical during and after the Initial Coding of qualitative data, thus an analytic memo is written to reflect on the process thus far” (p. 118). I wrote separate analytic memos for the supervisor interview data and the co-director interview data stemming from the first cycle coding, the other findings, and the “initial thoughts” jottings. Lastly, following Namey et al.’s (2008) suggestion, I created a code frequency report that tallied how many participants referenced each code (not how many times a particular code was referenced). This provided a clearer picture of which codes the interview participants often and rarely referenced. I did not create a code frequency report for the co-director interview data, because the small sample size (n=2) prevented a meaningful report. Lastly, I followed Corbin and Strauss’s (2015) recommendation of keeping a list of emerging codes to revisit through the analysis.

Second cycle codes are used to “reorganize[e] and reanalyze[e]” (Saldaña, 2016, p. 149) data following the first coding cycle and for code reduction. The goal of second cycle coding is to “develop a sense of categorical, thematic, conceptual, and/or theoretical organization from First Cycle codes” (Saldaña, 2016, p. 149). Because the two first cycle codes resulted in mixed codes (e.g. large sections of text tied to research questions and the conceptual frameworks and small words, phrases, concepts, examples, and miscellaneous codes), I relied on a second coding cycle to help synthesize the mixed codes. I used Pattern Coding as the second coding cycle method, which is useful for the development of major themes, including analyzing social networks and relationship patterns and formulating “theoretical constructs and processes”

(Saldaña, 2016, p. 152). Pattern Coding allowed me to synthesize and organize the codes as well as to generate understandings of role definition, tension between role definition and supervisor efficacy, and beliefs about how training, organizational reforms, and policy initiatives could improve supervisor efficacy.

My first task for the second cycle coding of the supervisor interview data was to combine all the first cycle interview data codes into one Excel sheet according to the four research questions and the parts of the research questions. As I combined them, I used Pattern Coding (Saldaña, 2016) to synthesize and reorganize the codes one research question at a time in a new Word document, which resulted in new codes and code reduction (e.g. from 493 codes to 21 codes for supervisor functions). As I continued to engage the data, I refined and collapsed the Initial codes into larger concepts and themes. As in the first cycle coding, some of the codes in the second cycle fit multiple categories. For example, I grouped “Disagree with MEN¹⁶ on evaluations” with two sources of tension: “Mentor Teacher” and “Evaluating ST¹⁷.” The new second cycle Word document codebook listed major themes, ideas, and patterns by research question. For each of these, I wrote a working definition or clarification of the code and listed all of the first cycle codes that supported it. For example, a consistent finding for the third research question around formal training that supports supervisors’ work was trainings that individual programs offered to their supervisors. The following example shows the second cycle code, the definition of the code, and the list of similar, supporting codes.

Program-specific Training—This code refers to individual program training (e.g. elementary education, social studies) directed by program coordinators, university instructors, and/or staff.

¹⁶ An abbreviation for mentor teacher.

¹⁷ An abbreviation for student teacher.

(Program-specific orientation, Debriefing sessions, Calibration exercise, Program-specific orientation with interns, Program-specific workshop, Meeting explaining special ed course, Program-specific meetings, PC¹⁸ meeting for new supervisors)

As I combined codes, I kept the “Other Findings” category and used Pattern Coding as I did for each of the research questions. Again, I jotted down initial thoughts as I coded for the second time and noted any new or revised patterns, tensions, disagreements, questions, and clarifications. Again, I wrote separate analytic memos for the supervisor interview data and the co-director interview data stemming from the second cycle coding, the other findings, and the “initial thoughts” jottings. Finally, I again followed Namey et al’s. (2008) suggestion and created a code frequency report that tallied how many participants referenced each code (not how many times a particular code was referenced). This provided a second, more focused glimpse of which concepts the interview participants often and rarely referenced. I did not create a code frequency report for the co-director interview data, because the small sample size (n=2) prevented a meaningful report. Lastly, I followed Corbin and Strauss’s (2015) recommendation of keeping a list of emerging codes to revisit through the analysis.

3.1.9.3 Analysis of documents

Two types of documents informed this study. First, the lesson observation forms that the interview participants shared with me, and second, program documents and resources from the teacher education program at City University that provided insight into the role and responsibilities of supervisors at City University. Bowen (2009) wrote, “[Document analysis] entails finding, selecting, appraising (making sense of), and synthesizing data contained in these documents” (p. 28). To engage this process, I coded the two sets of documents separately in two

¹⁸ Abbreviation for program coordinator.

Excel codebook files using thematic analysis and following Saldaña's (2016) coding cycles. Although the completed lesson observation forms were literally the same documents as the blank lesson observation forms, they signified two separate things: how the university views the work of the supervisor and how the supervisor completes that work. Therefore, I coded them as separate types of documents and focused the data analysis on the ways the supervisor interpreted and utilized the form as an extension of their role conception and efficacy. As with the interview data, I utilized Structural and Initial Coding for the first cycle codes (see previous section for a complete description of first and second cycle coding methods and Structural, Initial, and Pattern Coding). I followed the same procedures to analyze the documents as I did the interview data, excluding the member checking. Since those procedures are detailed in the previous section, I do not repeat them here.

4.0 THE CITY UNIVERSITY SUPERVISORS

Who are the City University Supervisors, and what career paths led them to a position as a supervisor of student teachers? First and most importantly, nearly all supervisors had at least a few years of teaching experience. Additionally, the modal participant in this study was a White female who was a retired teacher, supervised three to four early childhood and elementary student teachers per year, and had been supervising for 10+ years at City University. Twenty-three females and five males participated in the study. Of the 28 participants, all identified racially as White except for one supervisor who identified as Asian. Most supervisors (70%) were of retirement age (61-80 years old), two were early career age (20-40), and six were middle or end-of-career age (41-60). The vast majority (85%) had been PK-12 teachers at one point¹⁹, approximately one-third had worked as administrators²⁰, five had taught courses at City University or other institutions as adjunct faculty, three were full-time faculty members, and six were graduate students. Surprisingly, only two of those graduate students noted that supervising pre-service teachers was a part of a graduate assistantship or fellowship position. These graduate student supervisors may have been in City University's Doctor of Education program that, for

¹⁹ It is likely that nearly all supervisors had actually been PK-12 teachers, because City University requires that supervisors have classroom teaching experience. Survey question 4 asked: "What was your career prior to becoming a supervisor?" Although the question did ask supervisors to select all applicable responses, some respondents may have interpreted this question to ask only about their career immediately before they became a supervisor, so some participants did not select the PK-12 response.

²⁰ These were not necessarily principals but a variety of other administrative positions in and outside of PK-12 schools.

the most part, does not offer graduate assistantships or fellowships, so supervising may have been an alternate source of funding for those students.

The number of years supervisors had been working at City University ranged from 1 to 10+, with most split between having only a few years of experience (1-3) and many years of experience (10+). Nearly one-quarter of supervisors, had 10+ years of experience supervising at City University. Only two supervisors supervised student teachers at other universities or had done so in the past, both of which are in close proximity to City University. Interestingly, five participants commented that they were alumni from City University and preferred to supervise there due to their positive experiences as students and a general sense of loyalty to the university.

Regarding the program in which they supervise,²¹ participants in this study can be grouped into three main program categories: elementary education supervisors (n=14), early childhood education supervisors (n=8), and supervisors in secondary education programs (n=15). These proportions are likely representative of the student teacher population at City University since there are more student teachers in the early childhood and elementary education programs than in the secondary programs²². On average²³, supervisors (n=16) have three student teachers per year, although that number ranged from 2-9 students. A surprising number of supervisors (n=10) take on more than six student teachers per year²⁴. Figures 2-8 below show the distributions of supervisor demographics.

²¹ Supervisors can and do work in multiple programs, which is why the totals here are higher than the number of participants.

²² A program coordinator gave me this information.

²³ In completing this survey, some of the supervisors wrote a range (e.g. 3-4). When this occurred, I took the average and rounded up as needed, so the results are biased toward the maximum number of students supervised per year.

²⁴ This is surprising for a few reasons. First, supervising at City University is a part-time job. However, supervisors have to observe each student teacher 4-5 times per semester (depending on program), complete two formal observations and review 20-30 artifacts of student teaching for state certification requirements. If one accounts for time spent traveling to the school sites, observing, conferring, evaluating, and communicating with student teachers and mentor teachers, having six student teachers may result in 40 hours of work per week.

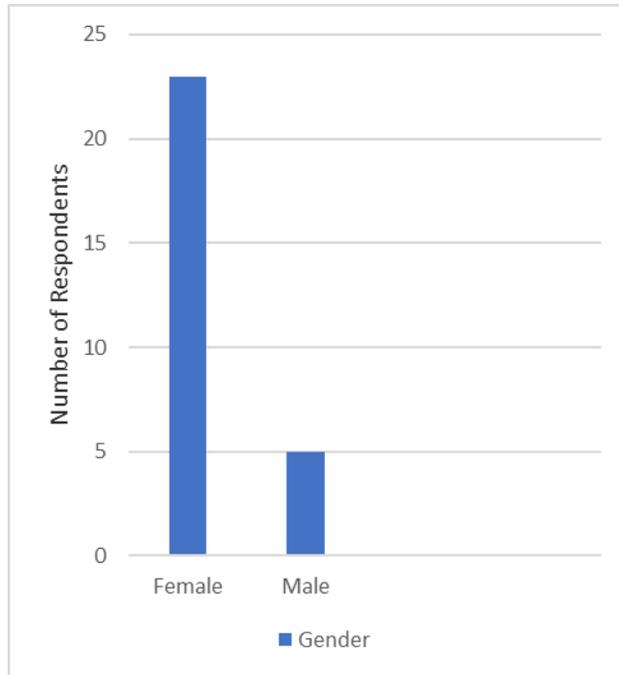


Figure 2. Supervisor Gender

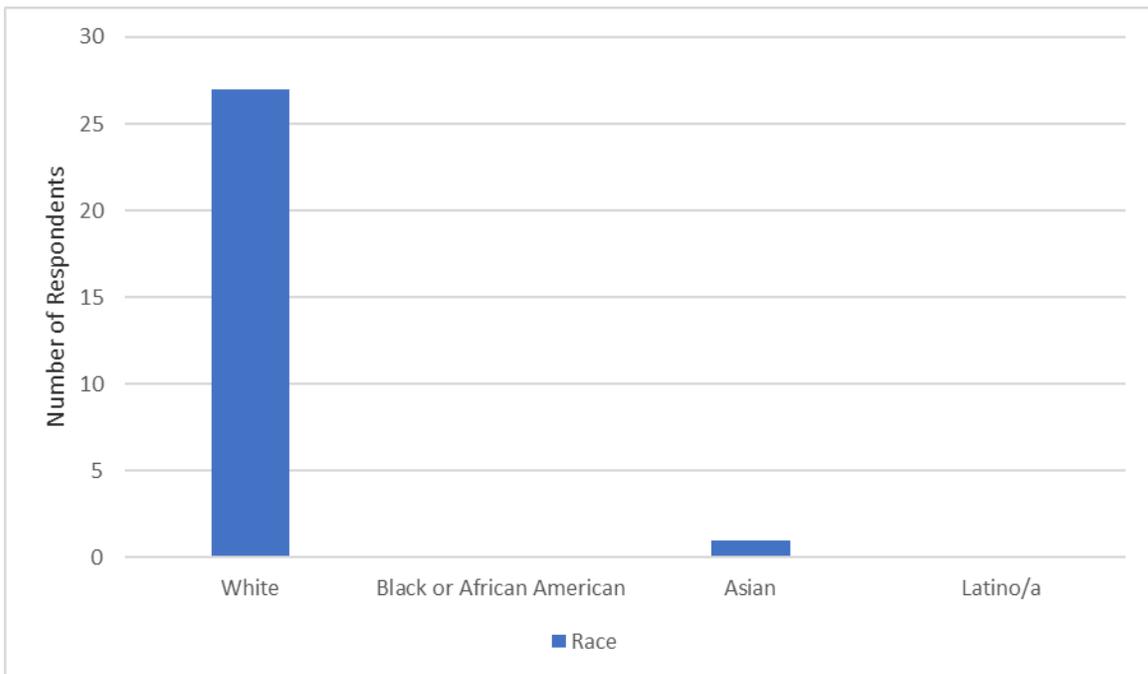


Figure 3. Supervisor Race / Ethnicity

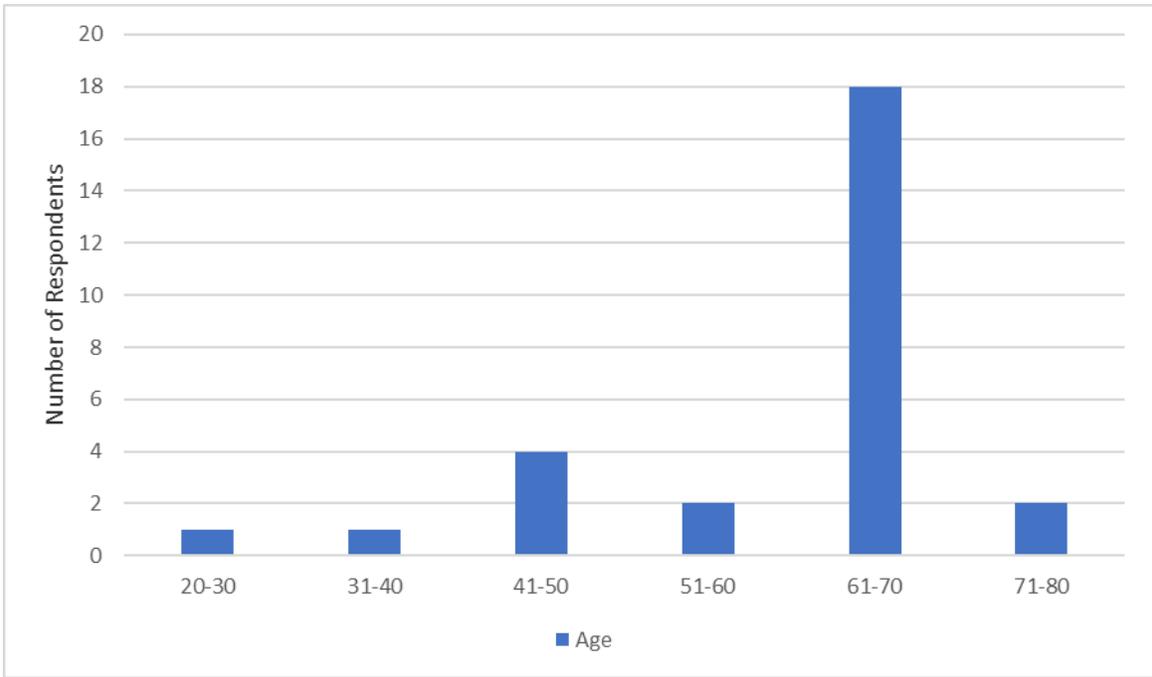


Figure 4. Supervisor Age

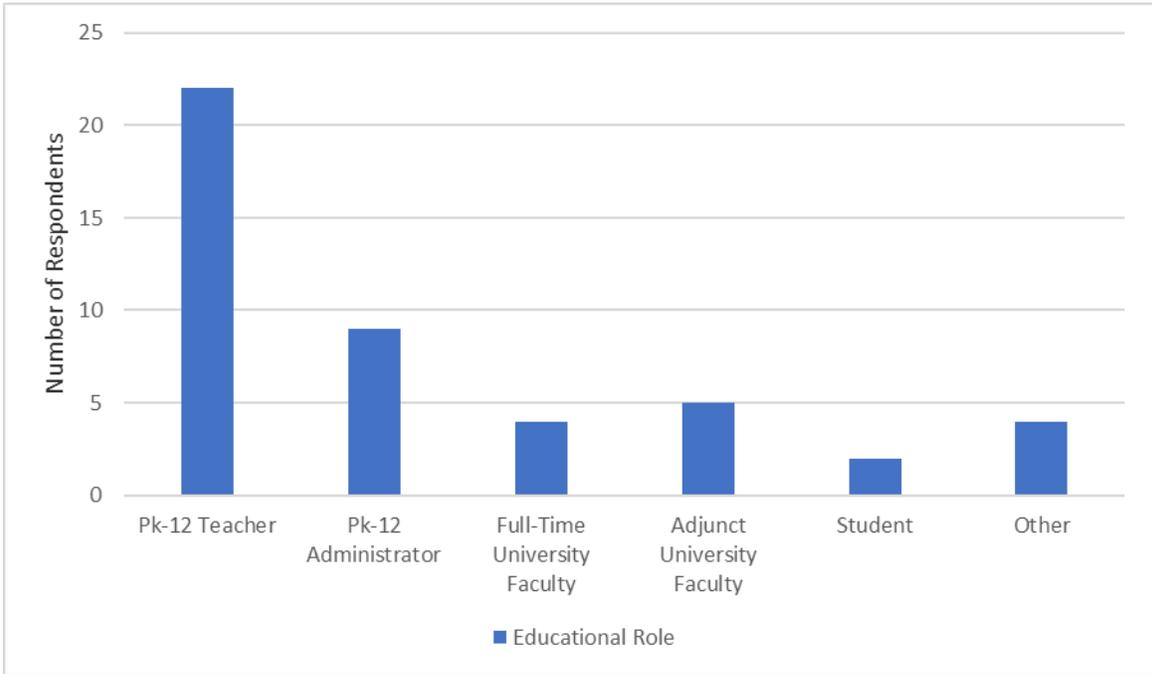


Figure 5. Supervisors' Multiple Careers Prior to Supervising at City University

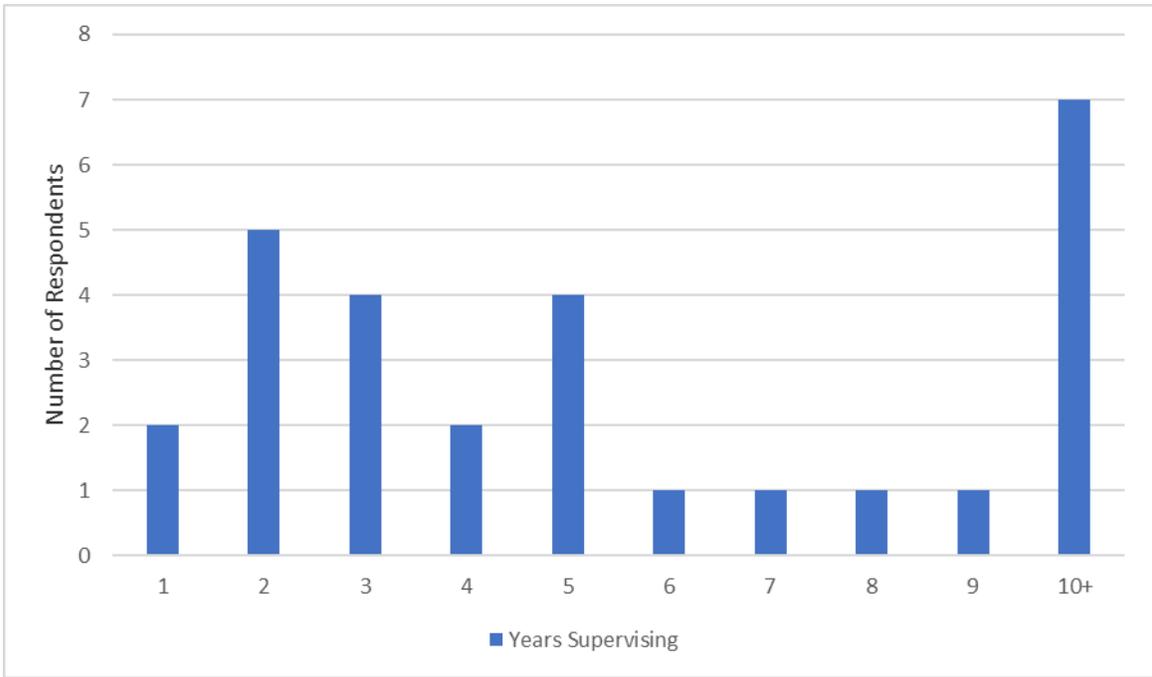


Figure 6. Number of Years Supervising

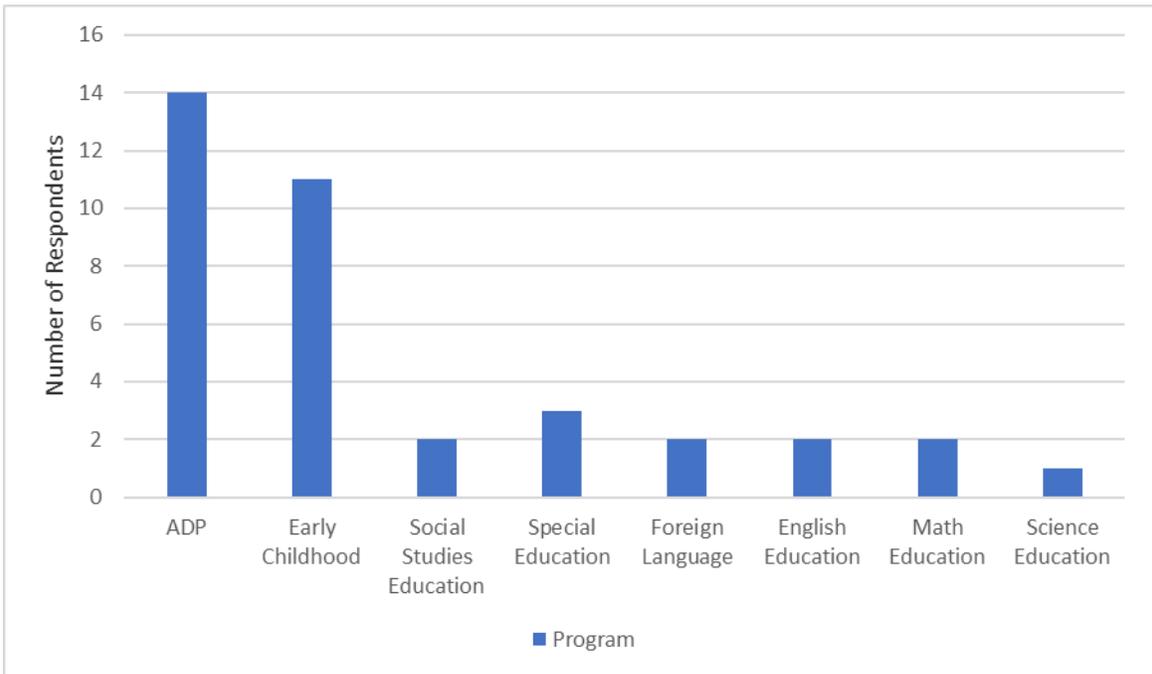


Figure 7. Supervisors' Program(s)

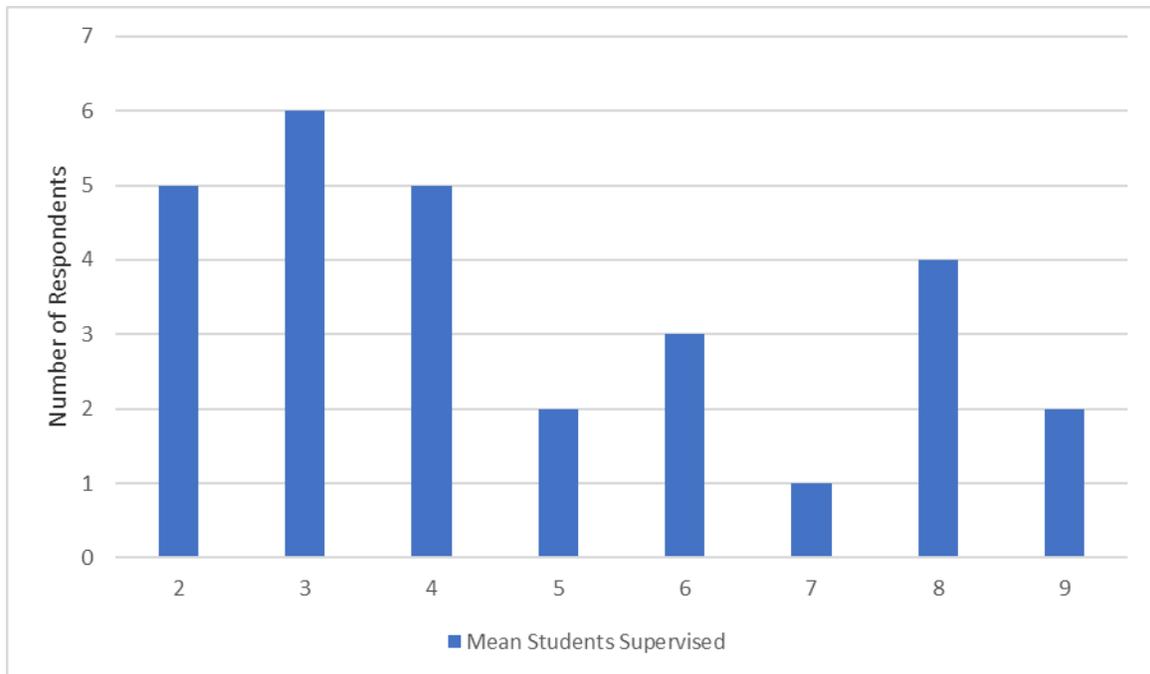


Figure 8. Mean Students Supervised per Year

While the study participants varied in career experience, years of experience supervising, and the programs in which they supervise, there are some similarities across supervisors. The majority of supervisors were retired White females who had been PK-12 teachers. Early childhood education and elementary education supervisors comprised the majority of participants in this study. Again, this is likely because there are more early childhood education and elementary supervisors in the population, and those supervisors supervise across programs, whereas the secondary content supervisors only supervise within their own programs²⁵. Approximately half (n=13) of supervisors responded that they became involved in the teacher education program at City University by invitation from City University faculty and staff. The invitations came from program staff, other supervisors, faculty, program coordinators, and even the department chair. Five of those supervisors specifically noted that they were invited as they were retiring from PK-

²⁵ This includes both the content area program and content area / special education programs.

12 teaching and administrative careers. In addition, five supervisors reported that they became involved in supervising at City University through professional networks. Four supervisors (one staff, one graduate student, and two full-time faculty) explained that supervising was part of their responsibilities as current employees of City University. Interestingly, one supervisor who is also a full-time faculty member, wrote: “When I came to City University in 2013, we had far too many unqualified individuals working with student teachers. I began supervising to correct this.”²⁶ The remaining six supervisors wrote non-descript comments like “applied” and “submitted resume,” so I was unable to determine specifically how those supervisors became involved at City University. Lastly, question 17 asked supervisors why they wanted to become supervisors. The participants reported two major rationales and a few miscellaneous ones. First, almost half (n=12) of the participants responded that they enjoy working with student teachers or novice teachers. Two specifically mentioned being a mentor teacher to student teachers in the past (one had over 25 student teachers), although it is likely that more of them also had student teachers given that they reported they liked working with student teachers and novice teachers. Six participants used some variation of the phrase, “I enjoy working with student teachers,” which indicates that these supervisors also found personal fulfilment in their work. Secondly, nearly one-third (n=9) responded that they were retiring or had recently retired and wanted to remain involved in education. Finally, three each noted that they wanted to “give back” to the teaching profession and wanted to pass on their career knowledge and experience, and two graduate students felt that supervising would provide them with the experiences they would need for their future careers.

²⁶Unfortunately, this participant did not volunteer for a follow-up interview, so I was unable to learn more about his beliefs about supervising student teachers or the state of supervision when he arrived at City University in 2013.

4.1 TWO DISTINCT SUPERVISOR GROUPS

As I considered supervisors' backgrounds, career stage, and general orientation to their work, two distinct supervisor categories became apparent. The first group was second career supervisors—classroom teachers and administrators who had retired from a full career in education. These supervisors appeared to have come to the teacher education program due to positive experiences working with student teachers and new teachers in their PK-12 careers and had a desire to remain active in education in their retirement. They believed they were crucial to the preparation of student teachers because they could share their career experience and knowledge and provide practical, real-world guidance on classroom teaching. For example, Bill commented that the supervisors fit into the work of teacher education “as a practical component” concerned with student teacher growth at the school site. Shannon added, “I see my role as consummate: ‘This is what it's like in the real world.’” Although some supervisors in this group had taught individual classes at City University as adjunct faculty, the majority had not and were disconnected from the university work of teaching student teachers and university faculty and staff.

The second group was doctoral students who were currently enrolled in programs at City University at the time they were supervising. This group was generally younger, had less years of teaching or administrative experience, had less years of supervising experience, and a couple at least had different motives for supervising; they saw it as preparation for a university faculty career rather than a sharing of prior career experience. Lauren commented, “I think [supervising] will be part of my future employment and thus appreciated gaining some experience in it.” However, she also declared that if the funding for her graduate research assistantship had not run out, she would have preferred to continue doing research rather than

supervise student teachers. Other doctoral student supervisors did not express as strong a desire to “give back” to the profession as the second career supervisors. Some of the graduate students were more involved in the teacher education work at the university such as additional teaching or research responsibilities as part of an assistantship or fellowship, and the graduate students would likely have had more contact with university faculty who were teaching their courses than the group of retired practitioners. While I do not analyze all of my findings according to the two participant groups, I do return to this finding throughout the remaining chapters where it helps to interpret supervisors’ experiences and beliefs.

5.0 RQ 1: WHAT FUNCTIONS DO UNIVERSITY SUPERVISORS OF STUDENT TEACHERS REPORT AS CENTRAL TO THEIR OCCUPATIONAL ROLES?

5.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 5 presents the major findings of the first research question on supervisors' roles and role functions. As noted in Chapter 1, I used Biddle's (1979) conceptions of a role and role functions in this study. Roles are representative behaviors of specific groups of people in a given context, whereas role functions are tasks associated with specific roles that can be both prescribed or unwritten by the role group (Biddle, 1979). The data to address this question came from five sources: a supervisor survey, interviews with ten supervisors, interviews with two co-directors of teacher education, program documents, and samples of supervisors' lesson plans. The findings suggest that supervising student teachers is a complex task comprised of a variety of sometimes-competing functions and role embodiments. All supervisors reported acting in more than one role in both the survey data and the interview data. In fact, Co-director Katherine believed a good supervisor would embody more than one role: "If they're really embracing helping this new teacher grow, they've got to be more than one thing because you can be an instructional coach but how can you be an instructional coach if you're not thinking about them socioemotionally?" To a large extent, supervisors' role conceptions as reported in the survey and interviews and as observed in the lesson observation forms aligned with the role typology described in Chapter 2,

as did the university expectations listed in the *Teacher Candidate Handbook* and program-specific handbooks. The study participants conceived of their roles in ways that were similar to the five primary supervisor roles presented in the literature: instructional coach, counselor / mentor, evaluator, manager of the practicum experience, and socializer into the teaching profession, although there was some variation in role embodiment among the data sources. In addition, the participants described three additional roles that were not present in the literature: bridge²⁷, administrator for the university, and service. The supervisors' survey responses, interview comments, and lesson observation forms showed that they were closely enacting two of the roles or role functions the university expected them to, instructional coach and evaluator, but only somewhat acting in the third role, manager of the practicum. In order to discuss the functions supervisors report as central to their roles, I first describe the ways supervisors conceived their roles, and then I list the functions that supervisors reported as central to those roles.

5.2 WHAT ARE THE UNIVERSITY EXPECTATIONS FOR THE SUPERVISOR ROLE?

I derived university expectations for the supervisor role from two sources: program documents and interviews with the two co-directors of teacher education at City University. The *Teacher Candidate Handbook*²⁸ (2017) broadly described supervisors' functions as: knowing City University's policies and communicating them to the mentor teacher and student teacher,

²⁷ This role encapsulates functions of supervisory work where the supervisor negotiates two distinct spaces or parties.

²⁸ Henceforth referred to as the "*Handbook*."

developing the student teacher's instructional capabilities, evaluating the student teacher, supporting the student teacher when there are problems, and notifying appropriate university contacts when problems arise. The *Handbook* provided "recommended guidelines" for supervisors' role enactment that called for a multidimensional role but that primarily emphasized the instructional coaching and evaluator roles. Similar to the *Handbook*, the program documents positioned supervisors primarily as instructional coaches, evaluators, and managers but with a minor role as bridges. Within these documents, supervisors' basic functions were to observe and evaluate teaching, set and clarify expectations, policies, and processes, and arbitrate when problems or discrepancies arose. In terms of specific roles, the program documents required supervisors to complete functions indicative of instructional coaching, evaluating, and managing the practicum experience.

The instructional coaching functions across all programs included: reviewing lesson plans before the lesson observation, observing the lesson, conferring with the student teacher and the mentor teacher following the lesson, providing feedback on the lesson, goal-setting, and providing additional support when the student teacher was not making adequate progress. Evaluator functions included: assessing student teachers' lessons, conducting formative and summative evaluations, and reviewing Taskstream²⁹ artifacts. Finally, managing the practicum functions included: knowing the program's policies and procedures, communicating those to the mentor teacher and student teacher, scheduling an initial meeting with the mentor teacher to discuss forms, roles, and expectations, being available to the mentor teacher and student teacher

²⁹ Taskstream is an online repository and evaluation software program for the completion of the culminating portfolio student teachers complete as part of their state certification. Student teachers upload artifacts and a rationale for each artifact as evidence that they have met specific competencies and indicators that are part of the state teacher education framework. Supervisors review the artifacts, provide comments, and either pass the artifacts or send them back to the student teacher for revision.

when they had questions or concerns about the field experience, acting as a negotiator when problems arose at the field site, monitoring the student teachers' absences, and apprising program coordinators and other faculty of the student teacher's progress.

Although the *Handbook* was the overarching policy document for student teachers, mentor teachers, and supervisors across programs, each program provided their own set of program documents and some programs had multiple sub-programs (e.g. elementary education / K-4 and early education / life skills). When conducting the document analysis, I separated the documents from the programs and sub-programs where possible, because they had different requirements and resources. All the programs placed their lesson observation forms, phase-in schedules, mid-term and final evaluation forms, and evaluation rubrics online. Nine out of twelve programs provided a lesson plan template. Eight programs included a document of the SDE 123³⁰ indicators and elaborated student teacher expectations. Approximately half had a program handbook (n=7) and a document with elaborated supervisor expectations (n=5). Lastly, only a few programs uploaded any document that included an elaboration of the program's mission, vision, and/or educational philosophy (n=4). Table 4 provides a summary of the program documents that were available online for student teachers, mentor teachers, and supervisors at the time of the study.

³⁰ The SDE (State Department of Education) 123 form is a pseudonym for the online portfolio student teachers complete as part of their state teacher certification.

Table 4. Program Documents Available on Teacher Preparation Website

Program	Handbook	Lesson Plan	Lesson Observation Form	Mid-term / Final	SDE 123 Indicators	Phase-In Schedule	Evaluation Rubric	Student Teacher Expectations	Supervisor Expectations	Educational Philosophy
Elem. Ed ³¹ K-4	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			
Elem. Ed / Special Ed	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Elem. Ed / Life Skills			✓	✓		✓	✓	✓		
Elem. Ed / Early Childhood Placement	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓	✓		
Early Childhood	✓	✓	✓	✓			✓			
English Education	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Science Education	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓		✓
Foreign Language Education			✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
Math Education		✓		✓		✓	✓			✓
Special Education PK-8 / ADP ³²	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Special Education 7-12 / ADP*										
Special Education / Content Area		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓			
Social Studies Education		✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	

*Note: There were no program documents available online for this program at the time of the study.

³¹ The name of this program has been changed for confidentiality purposes.

³² Applied developmental psychology.

There was strong agreement of the supervisors' roles between the two co-directors of teacher education. This is likely because they hold similar beliefs about the supervisor's work and they have worked closely with each other and with the supervisors and student teachers for a number of years. Erin and Kathrine both agreed that the supervisors should take on the instructional coach, evaluator, counselor / mentor, administrator, and socializer roles, although neither of them strongly emphasized the socializer role. They also both agreed that the manager of the practicum was not one of the supervisor's roles; rather, they attributed that role to the placement coordinator, a staff member who worked in the department. After talking through the roles supervisors play, the co-directors highlighted the importance of the work supervisors do with the student teachers as instructional coaches, counselors / mentors, etc., but they also noted how important the supervisors were to their own work as administrators. Erin called the supervisors the "eyes and ears" of the program. Katherine elaborated:

As faculty I'm removed. I know my students, but I don't know their kids. I don't know their environment. I don't really know what they're like when they're teaching. If I have a supervisor who can help articulate that to me when I'm trying to support my students, [my work with the student teachers] can be much more meaningful.

Despite the program documents and co-directors representing university expectations, there was some disagreement between the two sources on what the university's expectations for supervisors' roles actually were. The program documents positioned supervisors as instructional coaches, counselors / mentors, and managers of the practicum. In contrast, the co-directors explicitly disagreed with the manager role; they felt that was the placement coordinator's job. Instead, Erin and Katherine added two additional roles: the counselor / mentor and administrator roles. There may be a few reasons for this discrepancy. First, it was not clear who wrote the

Handbook but it was likely a collaboration between program faculty, administrators, and staff in the teacher education department at City University, so the program documents may misrepresent or fail to include the co-directors' individual perspectives on the supervisor's roles. The same rationale is likely applicable for the program-specific handbooks and other program documents. Furthermore, both co-directors have been in their positions for a number of years and their ideas about supervisors' roles may have changed over time to include these supplementary roles as they have interacted with student teachers and supervisors. These changes in beliefs may not be reflected in the program documents, since, again, those appear to be a collaboration among faculty and staff and may not be closely revised every year. The co-directors' adoption of the counselor / mentor and socializer role is interesting. Since these are more interpersonal roles that are somewhat removed from the functional aspects of teaching a student teacher how to teach, it may be difficult to formally document or mandate the counselor / mentor and socializer roles in the formal program documents but easier for the co-directors to informally encourage supervisors to adopt these roles.

Finally, the co-directors were in direct disagreement with the program documents regarding the manager role. The program documents did not use the term, manager of the practicum, to describe this role. Therefore, this dissent may be due to the wording of the role (i.e. "manager" connotes an administrative position) or the unfamiliarity supervisors and administrators had with this term. For example, the supervisors would know what an instructional coach or evaluator was, but a manager of the practicum may have been more nebulous. It also appeared that the co-directors attributed *all* practicum management functions to the placement coordinator and did not consider the functions attributed to supervisors in the program documents to be manager functions. The findings from the co-director interviews

significantly contrasted with the written university expectations for supervisors. The formal, written university expectations required supervisors to complete basic functions, although the co-directors expected more of a holistic and multifaceted role embodiment from their supervisors.

5.3 FINDINGS FROM THE SURVEY DATA

The program documents suggested supervisors enact a multidimensional role with an emphasis on instructional coaching, evaluating, and managing the practicum. The survey and interview data help inform the study by asking if supervisors' role enactments match the university's expectations. Survey question 19 asked: "What do you think is your role as a supervisor? Select all that apply." The survey gave six options, the five role typologies and an "Other" option where participants could write in a response. Nearly all supervisors selected teacher / instructional coach (93%), and a majority also selected counselor / mentor (86%) and evaluator (79%). Half of supervisors also felt that their role encompassed socializing student teachers into the teaching profession (54%) and managing the practicum experience (50%). Five supervisors included additional roles in the "other" option, but none of these closely aligned with the five role typologies, although some aligned with role functions, and I treated them as outliers. Figure 9 shows the distribution of roles supervisors reported enacting.

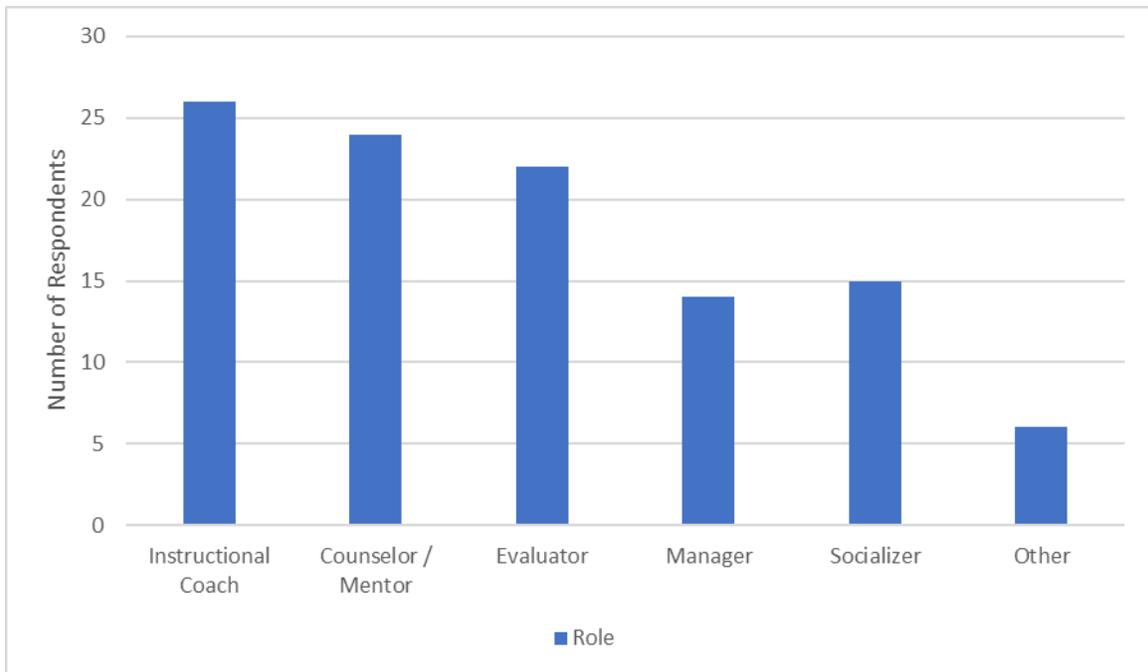


Figure 9. Supervisor Role

Also regarding supervisors' role conception, survey question 20 asked if the supervisors' view of their role had changed over time. If the participant marked "Yes," survey question 21 asked the participant to explain how her view had changed over time. The majority of supervisors indicated that their view of their role had not changed over time ($n=20$), but seven supervisors indicated that it had. Three supervisors wrote that they shifted to more of a mentor role in their supervising, two supervisors wrote that over time they came to realize their role changes based on their student teachers' individual needs and experiences, one supervisor shifted to focus more on professionalism, and one supervisor's role changed because her program demanded more accountability and professionalism on the part of supervisors. Therefore, for the most part, supervisors' roles were static—and about a quarter of supervisors had been working at City University for 10+ years—but when supervisors' roles shift, it appears that some shift toward a counselor / mentor role.

To learn about which functions supervisors felt were central to their occupational roles, I included five scale-choice centrality questions in the survey. Survey questions 22-26 asked the supervisors to rate the centrality of primary supervisor functions that aligned with the five role typologies. The rating scale had five options: not central at all, not central, neutral, somewhat central, and very central. Tables 5-9 below show the frequencies and percentages of supervisor selections for each function.

Table 5. Centrality of Instructional Coaching Functions

Indicator	Not Central At All	Not Central	Neutral	Somewhat Central	Very Central
Lesson planning with the student teacher	0 (0%)	2 (7%)	1 (4%)	16 (59%)	8 (30%)
Observing the student teacher	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (4%)	26 (96%)
Providing feedback on instruction	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	27 (100%)
Developing habits of reflection in the student teacher	0 (0%)	1 (4%)	0 (0%)	3 (11%)	23 (85%)
Improving the quality of instruction of the student teacher	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (4%)	3 (11%)	23 (85%)

Table 5 displays the supervisors' beliefs of the centrality of instructional coaching functions. The findings in Table 5 align with supervisors' responses to survey question 19 in that nearly all supervisors felt that a central part of their work as supervisors entailed instructional coaching. The vast majority of supervisors rated all of the functions in the instructional coaching question as either somewhat central or very central to their practice. What is surprising is that over half (n=16) of respondents (including a program coordinator) felt that lesson planning was only somewhat central, and a small number of supervisors (n=3) felt that lesson planning was not central or they were neutral on its centrality to their practice. Also, a small subset of supervisors (n=4) rated improving the quality of instruction of the student teaching as neutral or only somewhat central to their practice.

Table 6. Centrality of Counselor / Mentor Functions

Indicator	Not Central At All	Not Central	Neutral	Somewhat Central	Very Central
Providing emotional support to the student teacher	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	3 (11%)	8 (30%)	16 (59%)
Listening to the student teacher's worries / anxieties	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (4%)	10 (37%)	16 (59%)
Encouraging the student teacher when s/he is experiencing stress	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	9 (33%)	18 (67%)
Helping the student teacher manage stress	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	3 (12%)	11 (42%)	12 (46%)

Table 6 displays the supervisors' beliefs of the centrality of counselor / mentor functions. The findings in Table 6 show alignment with supervisors' responses to survey question 19 in that in question 19, nearly all supervisors (n=24) reported that a central part of their work as supervisors entailed counseling or mentoring student teachers. Although supervisors did not rate the counselor / mentor functions as central as the instructional coach functions, there was between 88-100% agreement among supervisors that the counselor / mentor functions were somewhat central or very central to their practice. One reason for this finding could be that there were two roles for this category that the literature on supervisors grouped together but that supervisors may have interpreted as two different roles. Thus, when participants answered question 19, they may have aligned themselves more with the mentor role than the counselor role, which comes to light in Table 6 where supervisors did not rate the functions as central.

Table 7. Centrality of Practicum Management Functions

Indicator	Not Central At All	Not Central	Neutral	Somewhat Central	Very Central
Ensuring the student teacher has completed program paperwork and state certification requirements	0 (0%)	2 (7%)	0 (0%)	11 (41%)	14 (52%)
Communicating with faculty and cooperating teacher on student's behalf	0 (0%)	2 (7%)	2 (7%)	9 (33%)	14 (52%)
Communicating with program administrators concerning student teacher's progress	0 (0%)	2 (8%)	3 (12%)	11 (42%)	10 (38%)

Table 7 displays the supervisors' beliefs of the centrality of practicum management functions. The findings in Table 7 show alignment with supervisors' responses to survey question 19 in that half (n=14) indicated that they viewed managing the practicum experience as their role. Table 7 shows a similar finding in that about half reported managing paperwork and communicating with the mentor teacher as very central to their work, and a little over one-third reported communicating with program administrators about the student teacher as very central to their work. However, the majority of supervisors reported these functions as either somewhat central or very central.

Table 8. Centrality of Evaluator Functions

Indicator	Not Central At All	Not Central	Neutral	Somewhat Central	Very Central
Evaluating classroom instruction, classroom management skills, lesson planning, and other core aspects of the practicum experience	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	3 (11%)	24 (89%)
Monitoring student teacher progress in the classroom	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	4 (15%)	23 (85%)
Intervening when a student teacher is not making adequate progress	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	4 (15%)	23 (85%)

Table 8 displays the supervisors' beliefs of the centrality of evaluator functions. The findings in Table 8 show alignment with supervisors' responses to survey question 19, where a large number (n=22) of supervisors indicated that they viewed their role as an evaluator. A majority of supervisors agreed that the evaluator functions were very central to their practice, and all supervisors agreed that the evaluator functions were either very central or somewhat central to their practice. It is somewhat surprising that any supervisors would rate at least the first two functions in Table 8 as anything other than very central given that all programs had lesson observation forms where supervisors had to rate student teachers on prescribed indicators of effective teaching and given that supervisors in all programs had to complete mid-term and final evaluations. This finding might be a reflection of some supervisors who did not view their role as evaluators in theory but who were forced to evaluate due to program requirements. It is important to note that the question was framed as a description of practice and not an ideal. In other words, it specifically asked supervisors about the centrality of the functions "to your practice" not what functions they would ideally carry out in practice.

Table 9. Centrality of Socializing into the Profession Functions

Indicator	Not Central At All	Not Central	Neutral	Somewhat Central	Very Central
Assessing the student teacher's aptitude for teaching	1 (4%)	1 (4%)	2 (7%)	5 (19%)	18 (67%)
Identifying students who are unfit for the teaching profession and notifying program coordinators	1 (4%)	2 (7%)	6 (22%)	6 (22%)	12 (44%)
Acquainting the student with the social and political contexts of teaching	0 (0%)	2 (7%)	6 (22%)	9 (33%)	10 (30%)
Fostering professionalism in student teachers	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (3%)	2 (7%)	24 (89%)
Providing professional recommendation for the student teacher during the job search	0 (0%)	1 (4%)	3 (11%)	8 (30%)	15 (56%)
Assisting the student teacher in obtaining a teaching position	0 (0%)	3 (11%)	12 (44%)	8 (30%)	4 (15%)

Table 9 displays the supervisors' beliefs of the centrality of socializing into the profession functions. The responses to this set of role functions are the most mixed of the five role functions. The findings in Table 9 show some alignment and some disagreement with supervisors' responses to survey question 19 where about half (n=15) of supervisors indicated that they viewed their role as a socializer into the teaching profession. Nearly all supervisors (n=26) reported fostering professionalism, assessing the student teacher's aptitude for teaching (n=23), and providing a professional recommendation (n=23) as very central or somewhat central to their role. There was less agreement on the centrality of identifying and reporting unfit student teachers and acquainting the student teacher to the social and political contexts of teaching with only 18 and 19 supervisors indicating those functions as very central or somewhat central to their role, respectively. Supervisors overall did not report a strong conviction that it was their role to assist the student teacher in obtaining a teaching position with only 12 indicating those functions as very central or somewhat central to their role. While this might seem a disparate finding from the finding on providing a professional recommendation, the *Handbook* includes writing a letter of recommendation as one of the recommended guidelines for supervisors, so while writing a letter of recommendation was encouraged by the university, other job search supports were not.

The final two survey questions on the section about supervisor functions and role definitions were open-ended items that asked how supervisors fit into the larger efforts of teacher education and what goals supervisors had for themselves. In response to the first question, supervisors reported functions that aligned with the instructional coach, bridge, and counselor / mentor roles. Seven respondents listed functions that were related to the instructional coaching role such as improving teaching through feedback and monitoring student teachers' instructional

growth. Six respondents listed functions that were related to the bridge role such as connecting theory to practice and the university to the school site. Lastly, five respondents listed functions that were related to the counselor / mentor role such as mentoring and guiding the student teacher. It is interesting to note that six respondents specifically noted in their response to this question that they viewed their role as practitioners or that they felt they were a valuable asset to the teacher education program because of their practitioner experience. In response to survey question 28 about supervisors' goals, the survey participants primarily conceived of their goals in terms of developing the student teachers' teaching competencies, but some did include comments about developing mentoring relationships with student teachers, supporting content areas, and improving their own supervisory skills and knowledge.

5.3.1 Conclusion

Within the survey data, supervisors consistently reported enacting the instructional coaching, counselor / mentor, and evaluator roles and functions. There were some discrepancies among the centrality of the manager and socializer roles and role functions. About half of the supervisors reported enacting these roles, but supervisors rated the functions of these roles differently. For example, supervisors believed fostering professionalism was highly central to their work but that assisting in the student teacher's job search was not.

The survey data showed that supervisors primarily viewed themselves as instructional coaches, counselor / mentors, and evaluators, and performed functions central to those roles including: observing and giving feedback on teaching, developing the student teacher's instructional competencies, building positive relationships with student teachers, advising student teachers, supporting socioemotional responses to the field experience, and evaluating the

student teacher's progress. The supervisors selected high centrality ratings for instructional coaching functions, and there was strong consensus that supervisors viewed themselves in the instructional coaching role. The supervisors selected medium to high centrality ratings for counselor / mentor functions, and there was strong consensus that supervisors viewed themselves in the counselor / mentor role. The discrepancy between the functions and role ratings is an interesting finding that suggests supervisors may be willing to carry out functions of their roles that they do not internalize as central to their roles³³. The supervisors selected high centrality ratings for the evaluator functions, and there was strong consensus that supervisors viewed themselves in the evaluator role. The supervisors selected medium to low centrality ratings for the manager of the practicum role, although there was medium consensus that supervisors viewed themselves in the manager role. Finally, the supervisors selected high to low centrality ratings of the socializer into the profession role, and there was medium consensus that supervisors viewed themselves in the socializer role. It is noteworthy that seven supervisors reported that their role conception had changed over time, and two explicitly stated that they adjusted their role according to student teachers' needs, which they could not have anticipated before they began supervising or from year-to-year. However, the majority of supervisors (n=20) reported that their role conception had not changed over time (over half (n=15) had been supervising for five or more years), so it appears that some supervisors enter supervising with whatever role conceptions they bring with them and carry those through their tenure as supervisors.

The open-ended survey items did reveal that supervisors also perform the functions of bridging the PK-12 site and university, theory and practice, and student teacher and mentor

³³It is also possible that this discrepancy may have been due to the functions listed on the survey not capturing supervisors' conceptions of that role well.

teacher and serve as administrators for the university who report back to program administrators on the mentor teacher and placement site. Since those two roles were outside the findings of the literature on supervisors' role conceptions presented in Chapter 2, I was not aware of them at the start of this research and did not include them on the survey. Therefore, it is impossible to know if more of the survey respondents would have selected the bridge and administrator roles. It is also interesting to note that, although supervisors rated the evaluation functions as very central to their practice and strongly aligned themselves in that role, no one listed evaluation as part of supervisors' "fit" in teacher education or provided comments about evaluation being one of their goals as a supervisor³⁴ (e.g. improving one's evaluations). This disparate finding may be due to supervisors acknowledging that evaluation is a central function of their work so they embody the role, but it is not as important to them as instructional coaching or counseling / mentoring.

When compared to the findings from the program documents and co-director interviews, the survey findings show that supervisors are largely embodying the roles that the university sets for them. The survey indicated that supervisors primarily act in the instructional coaching and the evaluator roles that the program documents and co-directors highlighted. Furthermore, the program documents placed a minor emphasis on managing the practicum, which is also reflected in the survey data. However, the survey showed low centrality rankings for the manager role, so it may be that supervisors somewhat acknowledge their position as managing the field site experience but do not feel those functions are central to their practice. This finding contrasts the university's expectations for the manager role. Lastly, the program documents required some instances of the bridge role, and, although it was not an option on the survey question about

³⁴The supervisors did mention providing feedback to student teachers, but that was in relation to feedback on instruction and within the instructional coaching role, which I interpreted as being different than formal evaluations.

supervisors' roles, the open-ended survey comments conveyed that some survey respondents do view their role as bridges.

The most significant difference in the university's expectations as evidenced by the program documents and the survey results was the supervisors' adoption of the counselor / mentor role. The majority of supervisors indicated embodying this role, but there was scant evidence of the counselor / mentor role or functions of the role in the program documents. However, the co-directors both noted, and Katherine emphasized, the importance of the counselor / mentor role for supervisors. As noted earlier in this chapter, there may be a few explanations for the inconsistency in the program documents and co-directors' role expectations for supervisors. A second disparity was that half of survey respondents reported acting in the socializer role, but there was practically no evidence of the socializer role in the program documents³⁵, and, although the co-directors mentioned it as a role for supervisors, they did not strongly emphasize it. The analysis of the findings from the first two data sources revealed that the role of the supervisor is more complex than what is prescribed in the program documents. The supervisors embodied a third major role, counselor / mentor, and a minor role, socializer, that were not formally required by the university.

5.4 FINDINGS FROM THE INTERVIEW DATA

The ten supervisor interviewees were asked to discuss the central functions of their work and did so according to eight major roles: instructional coach, counselor / mentor, manager of the

³⁵ The only evidence was the recommendation for the supervisors to write a letter of recommendation at the end of the field experience in the *Teacher Candidate Handbook*.

practicum, socializer into the profession, evaluator, bridge, administrator for the university, and service. The roles were not mutually exclusive; rather, the nature and extent of their discussion of their own work revealed their role emphases. The interview process revealed that four of the roles were preeminent to supervisors. The interviewees unanimously viewed themselves as instructional coaches, six viewed themselves as counselor / mentors, and five viewed themselves as socializers into the profession and in the service role. The central functions associated with those roles were improving the student teacher's instructional ability in the context of the school site and grade level, mentoring and supporting student teachers' socioemotional needs, preparing student teachers for the realities of PK-12 settings and inducting them into the teaching profession, and giving back to the field of education.

There was little to no consensus on enacting the other four roles. Two interviewees viewed themselves as administrators for the university and bridges, one viewed herself as an evaluator (although all supervisors spoke about evaluation as a function of their work), and no one viewed themselves as a manager for the practicum experience. The central function of the administrator role was being the "eyes and ears for City University" (reporting on mentor teachers, school sites, program forms, etc.). The central functions for the bridge role were: connecting the school site with the university site, theory with practice, and the mentor teacher with the student teacher, evaluating students, communicating university expectations, and completing paperwork. In this chapter, to elucidate supervisors' role emphases and beliefs, I draw from examples and quotes from the supervisor and co-director interviews. I also include negative cases (i.e. examples when supervisors clearly did not embody a particular role or think a function was central to their work) when pertinent to show contrast and variety in supervisors' and sometimes administrators' perspectives.

5.4.1 Instructional coach

All supervisors aligned themselves with the instructional coach role. This role encapsulates functions of supervisory work directed at the improvement of teaching including: lesson planning with the student teacher, observing lessons, giving feedback on teaching, conferencing, focusing on practice, supporting classroom management, diagnosing the student teacher's developmental stage, monitoring instructional growth, fostering reflection on teaching, developing instructional strategies, reinforcing child development theory, and helping student teachers implement university learning at the PK-12 site.

Jeanne contended that good teaching and especially classroom management were more significant than content knowledge. For example, she told a student teacher, "I don't care how much Mandarin you know...It does you no good if you can't share that with your students. You have to be able to communicate." She also said other teachers will care more about instruction and management than content: "[Other teachers] don't care how much French I know. They care how I manage my class, and [they] judge you on how well you manage your class." She has found that sometimes student teachers complete their coursework and academic requirements and then enter a classroom and realize they cannot manage a class and that half of first-year teachers leave the profession because they cannot manage a class. Jeanne so vigorously promoted the importance of good instruction and classroom management that, if her students do not score high enough on a particular lesson observation in those categories, she makes them redo it. "And, yes I have made people do their lesson again. Seriously." For Jeanne, the heavy emphasis on instruction and classroom management stems from a desire to ensure the children in the classroom have the best possible teacher, not simply someone who knows their content area well. Jeanne also embodies a gatekeeper role, which I discuss in section 5.4.4.

Lauren, Shannon, Bill, and Paul pointed to fostering growth as one of their primary goals as an instructional coach. Lauren explained,

I do think my role is to, not to say who can be a teacher and who can't, but more to say, "This is where you are. Let me help you get better so that when you go out into the field, you're equipped to do this teaching thing."

As part of her role, Lauren points out aspects of teaching for her student teachers to work on and gives them strategies to help them accomplish those goals. She explicitly draws her student teachers' attention to aspects of teaching that are difficult, and she wants to help them develop their weakest competencies. Lauren told me that the pedagogy her department adheres to is hard for the student teachers to implement, but she wants to see the student teachers trying to do this when she observes. In addition, Lauren noted that a bigger problem is when her student teachers are not growing in their instruction. When this happens, her role changes. She reaches out to the program coordinator to say there is a problem and moves into a more hands-on role until the instruction is where it needs to be.

Shannon spoke about orienting her student teachers to the "arc" of the year, which is all about the growth the student teachers make during their year-long field experience. What she looks for is growth over time across a variety of variables, most of which were closely related to instruction. She also used an interesting metaphor to describe her relationship to the student teacher's growth. The mentor teacher sees a longform movie, while the supervisor sees a snapshot. The mentor teacher sees the details and nuances of everyday teaching, while the supervisor sees a clear image of one lesson. Shannon explained how the two roles complement each other: "When you see someone teach every day, you do not notice the minor changes. However, when you view the snapshots, you are able to see the growth over time." Fostering

this instructional growth over time is what Shannon views as her primary role as a supervisor. Bill also focused his attention on monitoring student teachers' instructional growth over time, but he did so according to a specific model, the concerns-based adoption model³⁶. Bill said he viewed his student teachers' progress through this model, diagnosed what stages they were in, and determined how he should coach each student teacher based on their particular stage of development. His purpose as a supervisor was to support the student teacher according to their stage and help them progress to the next stage. Paul viewed himself as an instructional coach, but he also put forth an intriguing claim that being an instructional coach in an early childhood classroom was significantly different than being one in an elementary or secondary classroom. One of the tensions in his work that Paul mentioned was the lesson observation form. He argued, "The whole idea of instruction is different when you're dealing with a three or four-year-old" and that observing a lesson "is not a pre-school thing." Paul described what he focused on during his observations:

[He watches the student teachers do all kinds of activities—open milk cartons, get children lined up to go to the bathroom, help them wash their hands.] That's pre-school teaching. That's what I think is important. What are you like during free play? Do you sit and watch? Do you get down on the floor with them? Can you settle a fight if it comes up? Can you find somebody something to do when they're a little bit at loose ends? You know, all of that matters to me much more than how well they sit in front of a group of kids and explain an activity and make it happen. That's all good stuff, but that's only a tiny piece of what a good pre-school teacher does. And so I realized...I had to be there to watch [the student teacher's] lesson or they were upset. "You weren't here, you didn't see

³⁶ Bill was the only participant, including the administrators, to mention and use a specific model to measure student teacher growth.

me do my lesson.” I make a point of explaining early and often that everything they do is important, everything, and I’m watching everything they do.

To Paul, instructional coaching was less about developing instructional strategies or lesson planning and more about helping student teachers pay attention to children and their needs, “fostering an empathic response” to the children in the student teacher, and helping the student teacher build relationships with the children. He felt the curriculum should be relevant to the children’s lives and integrate content subjects. He also spoke about his work as guiding the student teacher to self-actualizing and recognizing their “true teacher-self.”

Lastly, Maria, Diane, Caroline, and Courtney all described the key elements of their work in terms that aligned with the instructional coaching role. Maria spoke about supervisors as facilitators:

I do think that there’s a part of supervision that is really being a facilitator. You know, you’re not just going to be telling them exactly what to do or you’re making decisions for them. You’re really facilitating their learning as a supervisor as well. You know, you kind of have to stand back a little bit and let them make some mistakes that aren’t harmful or whatever. And you can come in and help, but you are facilitating their learning, you know.

Her examples of facilitating were around instruction, and when asked about the supervisors’ primary functions, Maria listed: observing the lesson and providing excellent feedback on the lesson and on the student teacher’s Taskstream artifacts. Diane highlighted the importance of being upfront with the student teacher about aspects of their instruction that need to be addressed as soon as they arise while there is the opportunity for improvement. However, like Paul in early childhood education, Diane questioned the reality of structured lessons and lesson plans in

special education classrooms. She contended that the “hallmark of special education is flexibility,” and the pre-determined lesson plans and discrete lessons City University has the student teachers utilize are “so far from the real world” of special education they were not always useful to her student teachers. Therefore, Diane’s enactment of her instructional coaching role was less focused on instructional strategies and teaching methods and more centered around being organized to support flexibility and working with individual students. Caroline, who supervised elementary education student teachers, highlighted “methods, materials, style,” instructional strategies, and providing feedback on lessons as functions central to her role. She gave an example of correcting a student teacher who called on a student and then asked the student a question. Caroline asserted the student teacher should have asked the question first and then called on the student. She summarized her role: “I think that our role should be to get them [the student teachers] to a certain place” in their teaching. Finally, Courtney saw her work as an instructional coach through the lens of child development theory and emphasized aligning her student teachers’ lessons, instruction, and classroom management through that lens.

Although the conception of an instructional coach appears to vary based on program with early childhood education and special education programs possibly being less centered on traditional instructional techniques, the basic concept of developing a student teacher’s teaching, whatever that might resemble, was a central role definition among the supervisors and the functions of observing teaching, providing feedback on teaching, lesson planning, and fostering growth were undeniably central to the supervisors’ roles.

5.4.2 Counselor / mentor

The counselor / mentor role was another popular role with the interview participants. This role encapsulates functions where the supervisor provides socioemotional support, encouragement, and assistance for the student teacher (counselor) or acts as a professional guide who shares advice based on career experience or knowledge (mentor). The functions of this dual role are: affirm the student teacher, build a relationship with student teacher, listen to the student teacher, provide socioemotional support, guide, advise, be a non-authority, non-judgmental figure, and advocate for the student teacher. Six of the ten supervisors reported acting in ways and performing functions that are resonant with this role, although one did so reluctantly.

Maria asserted the supervisor is “definitely a mentor,” and Courtney said the first thing supervisors are is a mentor; they align themselves as partners, peers, colleagues, and not “this ivory tower, gifted thing.” She described this role as a safety-net underneath the student teacher. Courtney recognized that student teachers are new to teaching and still learning, so she sees the supervisors’ role as a support if any problems arise and for “socioemotional responses to student teaching.” Paul clearly aligned himself with the counselor / mentor role. He described his supervisory style as “not authoritarian...non-judgmental” and creating the sense that everyone is on the same team (student teacher, mentor teacher, supervisor, classroom students). Paul remembered having to work to build trust with his student teachers so that they were not intimidated by him: “It’s kind of inherent in the model is a certain amount of judgment. Or at least the feeling of being judged or potentially being judged. That’s what they expect, I think.” He pats them on the back and affirms them and the importance of the work that the student teachers are doing, and he tries to be empathetic with student teachers who are working with 15-20 three and four-year-olds for the first time. He gave an example of a time when his student

teachers were gossiping about a mentor teacher. Instead of choosing sides, Paul told his student teachers: “‘Let’s talk about this. If what you’re saying is true, there’s real room for concern.’ My role at that point was to say, ‘Yeah, you’re right. Your judgment is correct in this case.’” Paul addressed this situation by affirming the student teachers’ experience and worked through the situation with non-judgmental dialogue. He also asked the student what he felt about the situation and what he wanted to do about it. Paul noted that one of the advantages to being a supervisor was to “be on their side” against some of the university requirements like the observation form and other hoops the student teachers have to jump through:

I’m not one of the hoops, I’m on their side. I’m like, “Yeah, that’s a real pain isn’t it? I really get that. I understand how frustrating that must be for you. It is the way it is. It’s the bureaucracy, it’s the school. It’s how you get from point A to point B.” I feel like sometimes it can be refreshing for them to have somebody else who’s in an authority role of some sort to be able to say, “I get it. I understand that that really seems silly right now, and it probably is silly.” I try to not do too much of that, I don’t want to undermine, but I think there’s a way to be sympathetic and empathetic to that sense of frustration.

Paul wanted to help his student teacher get through the “hoops” of the teacher education program so that he could get to the real work of developing the student teacher in the classroom. He tells his student teachers, “‘Let’s get through this [e.g. evaluations] so we can talk about what’s important.’”

However, not all supervisors started out viewing themselves in the counselor / mentor role. Both Caroline and Gracie began supervising thinking about their work in different ways. Caroline primarily saw herself as an instructional coach, and Gracie acted as an evaluator. However, as the semester progressed, they both noted that their role shifted. After Caroline’s

interns gave her feedback at the end of the term about what they needed from her, Caroline believed that her role had shifted to the counselor / mentor role. Moving forward, she plans to try to get to know her student teachers better, learn about their future plans, and discover how she can support them better in both their career goals and during the field experience. Similarly, after Gracie noticed how stressed out her student teachers were during the field experience, she felt that she needed to provide socioemotional support and adopt more of a counselor role when the student teachers were nervous leading a small group or activity for the first time, for example, and later on when they became frustrated with the mentor teacher or various other aspects of the field experience. In addition, the counselor side of this role came to light unexpectedly for Lauren, who did not see herself as a counselor / mentor. She explained that she had to enact that role less, but when she did it was in response to student teacher emotional breakdowns. Lauren was confused about why her student teachers saw her as a counselor / mentor, and, I perceived, was somewhat indignant at having to provide emotional support: “I don’t know why they come to me about that. But it’s something I feel I’m obligated to deal with, like, try to support them. I don’t know who else they would go to.” As indicated, Lauren guessed that her student teachers sought a counseling relationship from her due to a few factors: the lack of another non-peer support, the one-on-one nature of the supervisor-student teacher relationship, the fact that Lauren was not really an authority figure over them, and because Lauren had told her interns previously that she was there to support them, although Lauren meant instructional support. I perceived Lauren to be a reluctant counselor / mentor. She did not turn her student teachers away or insist that consoling them was not her job, but she seemed to neither care for that function nor think it was central to her work. Interestingly, Maria clarified outright that supervisors were not counselors “about personal things” such as emotional responses to

student teaching but about career-related concerns, for example if a student teacher entered the program and did not know if he wanted to be a teacher. Perhaps Lauren struggled to see herself as a counselor / mentor because she was in a different stage of her career than most of the other supervisors and was not invested in the same way. While many of the retired teachers and administrators alleged that they wanted to supervise to “give back to the profession” or because they “love to mentor,” Lauren “had to find an alternate funding source to finish [her] degree.” She was a doctoral student at City University who said she came to City University to learn to do research. Lauren was clear that if the research grant funding that provided an assistantship for her first years at City University had not run out, she would not have wanted to supervise student teachers. For her, supervising was a responsibility she took on in order to fund her doctoral studies and to prepare her for her future work as university faculty, not work she took on to “remain involved in education” like some of the retired practitioners. Due to her situation, Lauren may have not been as interested in mentoring or, as a student in the mathematics education program herself, may not have felt as sympathetic to her student teachers. It is important to note that Lauren did take her work seriously and wanted to do well as a supervisor. In general, the central functions of the counselor / mentoring role were focused on guiding and advising the student teachers in non-instructional aspects of teaching and providing socioemotional support to student teachers as they progressed through the sometimes frustrating and stressful field experience.

5.4.3 Manager of the practicum

The supervisors, overall, did not strongly view their role as managers of the practicum or field experience. This role encapsulates functions of supervisory work directed at overseeing the field

experience including: managing paperwork, helping the student teacher have a positive field experience, communicating with the mentor teacher on behalf of the university and being the university's representative, and enforcing university policies at the field site. Despite supervisors not viewing themselves in this role, functions of this role permeated supervisors' work. For example, supervisors frequently listed communicating and meeting with the mentor teachers, clarifying expectations and policies for the student teacher and mentor teacher, and overseeing student teachers' completion of the culminating state evaluation form (SDE 123) that was mandatory for their teacher certification. In addition, supervisors reported any problems or issues they were seeing to their respective program coordinators and sought guidance when necessary.

Two supervisors, Paul and Gracie, explicitly stated they did not feel that managing the practicum experience was part of their job. Paul trusted his student teachers to tell him when and what forms he needed to complete, and he would talk to a mentor teacher about one of his student teachers if he needed to, which, it appeared, had not happened in Paul's three years of supervising. When I explained the role to Gracie, she immediately conveyed that she felt that the manager role was the responsibility of the program coordinators. Interestingly, Maria, one of the program coordinators, said this was the supervisors' job, both the co-directors believed it was the placement coordinator's job, but the program documents positioned supervisors as managers to some extent. Therefore, there was quite an amount of confusion regarding this role. Some of this confusion may have stemmed from the title of this role. "Manager" connotes an administrative position, which the supervisors and co-directors may have assumed pertained more to City University administrators or faculty. Supervisors may have thought managing the practicum included placing the student teacher at a school site, selecting student teachers for admission to

the program, and reviewing supervisors' evaluation documents (observation forms, mid-term, and final evaluations, etc.) to ensure the student teacher was in good standing. It is also possible that supervisors did recognize that some of their functions pertained to overseeing the field site (e.g. communicating with mentor teachers), but that those functions were less central to other role functions and thus they did not embody the role. The discrepancy between the program documents and co-directors may be due to multiple parties having a hand in writing the *Handbook*. Overall, the responsibility for the manager role and role functions was the most misaligned finding in terms of university expectations and supervisor embodiments.

5.4.4 Socializer into the profession

Socializing student teachers into the profession of teaching was another one of the most frequently described roles for the supervisors by the interviewees. This role encapsulates functions of supervisory work that guide the intern in accepted educational practices and behaviors of the field and provide background knowledge to the work. The socializer role also included gatekeeping, where the supervisor protects the integrity of PK-12 education by weeding out unqualified candidates. Functions of this role included: model appropriate behaviors, model community / parent outreach, model life-long learning, share expertise, share background knowledge, support professionalism, support job search, and gatekeeping. Five supervisors described their work in terms in the socializer role.

Courtney strongly aligned herself with the socializer role. She felt her work entailed modeling appropriate behaviors like self-discipline and respecting the mentor teacher as the authority in the classroom and actions like relationship-building with children, partnering with parents, life-long learning, and teacher leadership. Courtney saw herself as an “experienced

educator” who could give the student teachers a “deepened, background knowledge” that they did not have. Similarly, Shannon thrived in the socializer role. She viewed her work as in the classroom, not the university and focusing on practice, not theory. “I see my role as consummate: ‘This is what it’s like in the real world’...My job was to be the real-world exemplar. City University can take care of the research, and the theory, and the technical,” but her wheelhouse was in the classroom. She works with the mentor teacher to show her student teachers how teaching can be and to be a guide to the “real world” of teaching. Shannon was adamant that her job has “nothing to do with what goes on on campus;” she felt confident and had efficacy in drawing her student teachers’ attention to the practice of teaching and what she considered to be the “real world” of teaching. These beliefs obviously position Shannon as a practitioner and separate from the university where she sees the influence of theory and research on coursework abounding. Shannon did not believe these are unnecessary foci but rather complementary to her work with student teachers at the school site. However, she clearly defined her work as practice-based and site-based. This is a contrasting view from other supervisors who viewed themselves as a bridge between the PK-12 site and the university, which I discuss in section 5.4.6. Like Shannon, Paul strongly aligned himself in the socializer role in two ways. First, he saw a large part of his work as advocating for children and early childhood education by encouraging his student teachers to “see the children as human beings,” by fostering an “empathic response” to children in his student teachers, and by emphasizing the importance of early childhood education. For example, Paul remarked there is something to be said for the student teachers remembering when they could not do something (e.g. tying one’s shoes), and then remembering that their students are learning to do things that they could not do once. He wants them to have an “empathic response” to this. Additionally, he stresses the

importance of the learning that occurs in children 3-4 years of age in an attempt to bolster early childhood education and rescue it from the public's perception as babysitting. Secondly, Paul has had a 50-year career in early childhood education in the city where City University is located, remarked that the city has been a "hotbed" for early childhood education for decades, and would like to share some of that history and context of the field with his student teachers, because he does not think they learn that information in their coursework or from the mentor teacher. Student teachers having this contextual and local knowledge of the city's history in early childhood education may have helped Paul validate his contribution to that work over five decades or made him feel that this legacy would be remembered.

Bill, Caroline, and Gracie saw themselves in the socializer role but not as strongly as Shannon and Paul. Bill called himself a "critical friend" whose major functions aside from fostering instructional growth were to help the student teacher navigate and understand school culture and mentor teacher expectations. Bill helped his student teachers understand how the site expectations related to school and class routines and classroom management. Bill mentioned that he felt these aspects of teaching were part of his job, because he did not think the student teachers had these conversations in their university courses. He also suspected the mentor teachers might miss this piece of socializing student teachers, too, unless they were experienced mentors. Caroline described some of her major duties as being someone who shares their experience and guides a person more deeply than just imparting technical aspects of creating a lesson plan, for example. In addition, she tried to help her student teachers with their future plans, career goals, and networking. Like Bill, Gracie pointed out that she spent time talking to her student teachers about adapting to the school culture, especially when the mentor teacher or school site has a different teaching philosophy than the student teacher or City University. She

told her student teachers that they had to follow the rules and norms of the school while they were student teachers, and then when they acquired their own classrooms they could set their own rules and norms. Although she did not begin viewing her role as a socializer, Gracie came to see this as her role toward the end of her first term supervising. She would send extra readings to her students, recommendations for saving artifacts of teaching, preparing for the job search, preparing for a teaching career, giving feedback on writing, and thinking about what career and teaching style they wanted. Part of Gracie's late adoption of the socializer role likely had to do with the fact that she was learning to supervise as she went along in her first year and did not anticipate that her student teachers would need this kind of support. When she did recognize this need, she immediately transitioned her role.

One unexpected function of the socializer role was gatekeeping. Part of the socializer role that centered around preparing student teachers for the teaching profession also centered around keeping unqualified or unfit student teachers out of the teaching profession. Gatekeeping includes functions where the supervisor feels he is protecting the integrity of PK-12 school sites and the children in them by weeding out, what he perceives to be, unworthy candidates. Two veteran supervisors with 10+ years of experience, Jeanne and Shannon, viewed their role in this way, and they were adamant that it was a central task of their work. Jeanne told me that her first priority in teaching and in supervising has always been the children in the classrooms, thus part of her job is to protect those children from poor teachers. "[The kids] are so vulnerable... so, when we get somebody bad, God help them if you they're in the City University program, we're going to get rid of you...we don't need any more rejects." She told me that she has had unfit student teachers in the past and gave an example of one from the previous year. She described her interactions with this student teacher:

He was out 'til all hours of the night. I'm on the phone with this kid constantly saying, "Did you do this?" I felt like his mother for God's sake. "Did you do your plan? Did you send this to [the mentor teacher]?...What is wrong? What *is* wrong?" I said, "You're never going to last in this program if you don't get your act together, do your work, go to classes, and get that work done. What are you doing?" He was gone in early December. It was a long four months.

Jeanne was harsh with this student teacher because she felt that he was not exhibiting the behaviors and completing the work that he needed to in order to be a successful student teacher. If he was failing to do this during his field experience, Jeanne was convinced that the student teacher would not make a successful transition to full-time teaching or be a successful teacher: "People like that don't belong in classrooms." Therefore, it was her job to report this student teacher's actions and behaviors along with her recommendation that he not continue in the program to her program coordinator.

Shannon has had similar student teachers to the one Jeanne described and provided her own example of an unfit student teacher: "He needed tough love, and he needed parameters, and he needed deadlines...He was a nightmare from the first time I saw him. He meant well, but he had [emotional problems], some he was dealing with, some he wasn't." One of this student teacher's noticeable physical features was his brightly-colored, dyed hair. Shannon was shocked that neither the district in which he was student teaching nor the university addressed his appearance: "I'm the only one who spoke up to him about it." In addition to his physical appearance, which Shannon perceived as "off-putting," she described a litany of unprofessional behaviors and failures to meet basic deadlines and requirements. Despite Shannon's belief that his physical appearance was unprofessional and her frustration with his work ethic, Shannon met

with her program coordinator almost weekly to do everything they could to retain him in the program. Speaking of her work with the program coordinator, Shannon reflected: “We were more, I think, devoted to tamping down fires and keeping him where he was, because we knew there was nobody else [i.e. another school district] who would take him.” One of the problems, which I discuss in detail in the next section, was that the evaluation forms she used to complete her observations, mid-term evaluation, and final evaluation were not specific enough to enable Shannon to give this student teacher the failing grades she believed his performance merited. Although she strongly disagreed with this student teacher graduating with a degree and a state teaching certificate, and, her program coordinator knew about her feelings, Shannon consented to pass him:

[It was a] really difficult, really difficult decision to keep him on. I mean, I feel like we dragged him across the finish line...If I had to do it again knowing what I do now, I would have insisted that he be removed [from the program]...or I don't know if I can do that, but I would have strongly recommended [it].

Shannon remarked that she has had unfit student teachers before, but they all dropped out of the program before she had to take further action. As part of her responsibilities as a supervisor, Shannon had to write a letter of recommendation for the student teacher. She conveyed to the student teacher that she could not write a positive letter. Like Jeanne, Shannon spoke about her gatekeeping role as important, because unqualified or unprofessional teachers hurt students. The problem is: “some of these people end up getting jobs.”

Both Jeanne and Shannon share similarities that may have contributed to their gatekeeping functions. First, they were both full-career (35+ years) teachers and had not been administrators in their districts. Second, they were both veteran supervisors with 10+ years of

experience. Their long tenure working with children and youth in schools may have instilled in them a desire to advocate for quality teachers to ensure that students have the best possible future. It is also likely that during their careers Jeanne and Shannon encountered what they considered to be low quality teachers and may have seen first-hand how students suffer under the tutelage of poor educators. Furthermore, both Jeanne and Shannon had strong relationships with their program coordinators and have built trust with them, so it is likely that they felt comfortable having difficult, yet honest, conversations and believed their administrators would take their recommendations seriously. In addition, they both reporting having very poor interns in the past, so they may have less patience with unprofessionalism or failure to complete tasks and meet deadlines or more confidence in their recommendations because they have dealt with the same type of student teachers before.

Conversely to Jeanne and Shannon, Lauren specifically stated that she did not believe gatekeeping was a central function of her role. She tells her student teachers at the beginning of the year that she is not there to say they cannot be a teacher, she is there to support their growth:

I do think my role is to, not to say who can be a teacher and who can't. But more to say, "This is where you are. Let me help you get better so that when you go out into the field, you're equipped to do this teaching thing."

Interestingly, Lauren has the opposite characteristics from Jeanne and Shannon; Lauren taught for five years and was in her second year of supervising when I interviewed her. She was a doctoral student and did not report encounters with unfit student teachers in the past. With this small sample size, I am unable to draw significant conclusions about gatekeeping being related to years of teaching, supervising experience, or second career / graduate student status, but, nevertheless, I find this contrast interesting to report here.

5.4.5 Evaluator

The evaluator role is similar to the gatekeeping role in that both roles are concerned with assessing the student teachers' aptitudes and skills for teaching, professionalism, content knowledge, etc.. The major difference is that the evaluator role functions have to do with formal, program-specific processes based on approved protocols intended to measure specific aspects of teaching. The evaluator intends to provide an accurate assessment of the student teacher's progress to document current progress and foster growth. In contrast, gatekeeping is largely an informal assessment comprised of supervisors' personal and professional beliefs or impressions about the fitness of a student teacher for the profession and usually based on career and supervisory experience. Supervisors enacted the gatekeeping role when they believe there are no longer indications that the student teacher will make adequate progress to successfully complete the program or when they believe the student teacher is generally unfit for the teaching profession due to personality traits, a lack of professionalism, or other qualities or behaviors that often cannot be or are not documented on the evaluation forms.

Only one supervisor, Gracie, reported viewing her role as an evaluator in the interview data. As I will show in this section, the notion and act of evaluation is a central function to all supervisors' work. This role encapsulates functions of supervisory work where the supervisor assesses the student teacher's work or progress in a formal, documented capacity and includes: completing lesson observation forms, mid-term and final evaluations and reviewing Taskstream artifacts for the completion of the SDE 123. Supervisors use evaluation to: assess the student teacher's teaching, growth, and stage, get the student teacher's attention, motivate the student teacher to improve, fulfill program requirements, and build confidence in the student teachers. However, having to evaluate student teachers can cause tensions, which I touch on here and

describe more fully in Chapter 6. Gracie related that, when she first began supervising, she only saw herself as an evaluator, because she thought that was what a supervisor's work entailed. (Chapter 7 details Gracie's lack of training for her role.) She purposefully gave her student teachers lower scores at the beginning of the term and then gradually increased them, because she felt that would increase their confidence and it was what another supervisor suggested she do. (Paul confided that he used the same technique.)

The other supervisors engaged in the functions of evaluation but did not embody the role. Bill, as described in section 5.4.1, utilized the lesson observation forms to assess the stages his student teachers were in according to the concerns-based adoption model and used those determinations to move them forward to the next stage in the model. Courtney felt that giving authentic feedback without sounding evaluative resulted in more successful coaching. She spends considerable time giving feedback to her students; her conversations with her student teachers are "lengthy but also pointed." Jeanne used her lesson observation forms to get her student teacher's attention; she does her best to help the student teachers, but they have to be willing to listen to her. Jeanne said a previous student "spent a semester fighting me." He would not listen to Jeanne and, in her opinion, he felt that he already knew everything about teaching. She told me:

I failed him a lot of times. That's what it took [to get his attention]...You have to say, "This was a lousy, lousy lesson, and you know it." It's not easy for someone like me, because that's not how I usually operate.

However, Jeanne contended: "Part of your job as a supervisor is to tell the truth...I tried not to be harsh, but you have to tell the truth." Courtney also acknowledged that supervisors sometimes have to be straightforward with the student teachers for the student teacher's benefit and to

maintain her own integrity. Speaking of a student teacher who did not make adequate progress, Courtney emphasized:

It would be unconscionable for me to send my student on to this term with special education students without the record showing that she still had some achievement to gain just around the more typical education...Sometimes it's that harsh way of learning [that student teachers need].

In this case, Courtney used the evaluation forms to both document the student teacher's lack of expected progress and to motivate the student teacher to improve during the next semester. Paul, as noted in section 5.4.2, works hard to position himself as a non-evaluator. He felt he can have a uncomplicated relationship with the student teacher, because he is not providing judgement academically. He is giving a grade, but that is not his main function. He does not want to be a demanding, judgmental supervisor: "That doesn't seem to be the point of this." Instead, Paul tries to make it clear that he is not there to judge the student teacher: "I'll give you an A, but you don't have to worry about me." In doing so, Paul also portrays a sense that the evaluation grade does not matter to him, but he knows that it is important to the student teacher and the enterprise as a whole so he concedes to the process.

The evaluation functions and evaluator role caused a significant amount of tension for the supervisors, which I describe in detail in Chapter 6 but mention here briefly to show reasons why supervisors may not have embodied this role. Gracie struggled with evaluating her student teachers' lessons and mid-term and final evaluations because the grading criteria was confusing. Furthermore, the language in the forms caused disagreements between herself and some of the mentor teachers, which Gracie had to cautiously clarify. Similarly, as described in the previous section, Shannon felt restrained by the evaluation forms that would not allow her to portray, with

accuracy, the quality of the student teacher who she did not think should have passed the program. Paul described evaluating students as a “hoop to jump through” and considered evaluating his student teachers not at all central to his work; however, he consented to do it because it was essential for the student teachers’ certification. Furthermore, Courtney and Diane mentioned that their student teachers have, in the past, completed their Taskstream requirements late, which gives the supervisor much less time to evaluate and return or approve the artifacts.

When compared to the survey findings on the evaluator role, the interview findings provide a sharp contrast. Only one interviewee viewed her role as an evaluator (and then shifted her role in her first semester supervising), but a large majority of the survey respondents did view their role as evaluator (n=24) and rated the functions of the evaluator role as highly central to their practice. Although just one interviewee embodied the evaluator role, most of the interviewees talked about the functions of evaluation. This may signify that the interview participants see evaluation more as a function of supervising than a role and that many of them think of it as a necessary component to get through so that they can get down to the real work of instructional coaching or socializing into the profession. This finding echoes the findings from the survey data that supervisors may be willing to complete supervisory tasks that they have not internalized as central to their roles. The interview data are crucial here in explaining what roles were truly embraced by the supervisors compared to the functions that they performed as part of their work.

5.4.6 Bridge

Four supervisors described their role as a bridge. This role encapsulates functions of supervisory work where the supervisor negotiates two spaces or navigates parties including: theory and

practice, the mentor teacher and the student teacher, or the PK-12 site and the university. Specific bridging functions included: communicating with the student teacher and mentor teacher, being a negotiator between the mentor teacher and student teacher and, connecting university learning to practice at the school site. Courtney, Diane, and Gracie brought up issues of bridging in their interviews. They all talked about being the liaison between the mentor teacher and the student teacher. Courtney, Diane, and Gracie felt it was important to communicate with the mentor teacher, especially when problems arose. When that occurred, Courtney and Diane saw their role as mediating those breakdowns in communication or misunderstandings. Courtney said, “That’s when my role comes into play” as a bridge. It was important for her to model a positive relationship with the mentor teacher for the student teacher and to build a bridge between the two so that there is optimal collaboration. Courtney felt it was appropriate to show respect to the mentor teacher as the authority in the classroom and model that in her negotiations with the student teacher. Diane related two examples where she had to be the mediator between the student teacher and the mentor teacher. In one case, the mentor teacher had the student teacher functioning as a classroom aide rather than a co-teacher. Since the student teacher could not rectify the situation on her own, Diane stepped in to clarify the appropriate roles for the student teacher in the classroom to the mentor teacher. In another similar case, a mentor teacher wanted the student teacher to write an individualized learning plan (IEP) for a student. Diane again had to step in to explain that the student teacher was not allowed to take on that task and that it was against university policy. It took Gracie a little longer to learn how to approach the mentor teacher when an issue arose, perhaps because it was her first year supervising. She had only a few years of teacher experience (a contrast to Courtney and Diane), she did not have much preparation, and her program’s handbook was not clear about

roles and expectations. Gracie knew that she was a bridge, but she was not sure if she should stand with the student teacher or the mentor teacher when problems arose. After consulting other supervisors in her program, Gracie realized that, in general, it was her place to stand with the student teacher and set up a meeting with all three parties where she could advocate for the student teacher. This particular situation was in regard to the mid-term evaluation, but Gracie also remembered bridging the school site and university when her student teacher complained about the rules at her placement site. Gracie advised her student to follow the culture and norms of the school, regardless of what she was learning at City University. She told the student teacher that there would be norms and rules she disagreed with at nearly every school site, so the student teacher had to consider what she was learning at the university but also respect that student teachers are guests in another school and in someone else's classroom. Lastly, Lauren described her role as bridging primarily the university and PK-12 site. She is willing to negotiate with mentor teachers around whatever they needed, because she has a high respect for the challenges of their classroom and their schedules. Furthermore, because she was a doctoral student in the same program as her student teachers, Lauren knew the content of the coursework the students were learning at the university and could connect her feedback to articles the student teachers read or discussions they had in their courses. Lauren believed a large part of her role was to help the student teachers bridge what they were learning at City University with what they were seeing at the PK-12 site. However, she also had to act as a bridge for one of her four student teachers who was at a placement site that used different methods for teaching mathematics (traditional teaching methods) than the one to which City University ascribed (reform-oriented teaching). In this case, Lauren was unable to connect the university learning with implementation at the placement site due to the different educational methods and

philosophies. Therefore, Lauren believed her supervisor role included bridging this experiential gap for that particular student teacher.

Shannon is an interesting exception to the bridge role. On one hand, she mentioned communicating and meeting with mentor teachers as functions that were part of her practice; however, she ardently defended the position that her contribution to the English education program was expertise at the school site, in classrooms, and guiding student teachers in the “real world” practice of teaching. Shannon wanted nothing to do with the university in terms of teaching, research, or theory writ large, which she associated with the university and saw as disconnected from actual teaching. In this light, Shannon functioned as a bridge for the mentor teacher at the school site but actively choose not to bridge the university coursework and the school site. Moreover, unlike Lauren, Shannon did not feel obligated to connect what the student teachers were learning at the university with what they were seeing or implementing at the school site. In fact, she felt the academic learning about English education was “light years away” from the “real world of teaching” that occurs in classrooms. Finally, Shannon pointed out that, occasionally, she has student teachers who excel in their academics at City University but who truly struggle as teachers in the classroom. She believed the two aptitudes can be mutually exclusive and appeared to favor teaching ability over content knowledge, although she did not specifically state this. In general, the supervisors who acted in the bridge role reported central functions of communicating, connecting, clarifying, and negotiating. Most of the bridging supervisors undertook was between the university and the mentor teacher, although supervisors reported instances of bridging the mentor teacher and student teacher and program vision and content knowledge with the placement site. There was not strong agreement regarding this role among interviewees.

5.4.7 Administrator for the university

While only two supervisors thought about their work in terms of the administrator for the university role, most of the supervisors reported completing functions related to it. This role encapsulates functions of supervisory work where the supervisors provide input to City University administrators on non-student-teacher-related facets of their work including: giving feedback on and improving program documents and evaluation forms, knowing the university program vision, knowing the program curriculum, giving input on mentor teachers and placement sites, mentoring other supervisors, and being the eyes and ears for the program coordinator.

Bill, Courtney, and Shannon mentioned mentoring other supervisors as part of their informal responsibilities as supervisors. Bill, who had been an administrator in his district, positioned himself alongside the science education faculty and administrators as actors who were knowledgeable about and qualified for training other supervisors in the program. In fact, he related that he had begun to train supervisors with a lead faculty member in his department before that faculty member left City University and the supervisor training initiative stalled. Courtney and Shannon, who had been an administrator and a career teacher, respectively, aligned themselves with the supervisors in terms of their administrative work. Courtney called herself a “supervisor leader” (an extension of her role as a teacher leader) and spoke about the importance of mentoring and reciprocal learning from other supervisors. Shannon had a long history of both being mentored and mentoring other supervisors in her program. (I describe this in more detail in Chapter 6.) In addition to mentoring supervisors, Shannon had also recruited at least one supervisor to work in the English education program (a former mentor teacher who was retiring with whom she worked previously). She wrote a letter to Erin, her program coordinator, and

other administrators in the department stating her belief that this mentor teacher would be a strong addition to the English education supervising corps. The program hired this mentor teacher, and she is now in her second year of supervising at City University. Shannon also believed one of her responsibilities was to report back to the program administrators on the quality and fit of the mentor teachers for continued use in the program, and she related that from time to time over her twelve years of supervising she has written blurbs, taken surveys, and given other forms of feedback to her program coordinator on the mentor teachers and placement sites. Diane also reported that part of her job entailed making recommendations about using mentor teachers. She gave an example of one mentor teacher in a life skills classroom who, in Diane's opinion, was not giving her life skills students age-appropriate activities. She recommended that the university not rehire this mentor teacher, because she did not want her student teachers to adopt this mentor teacher's practices. Furthermore, Diane also made recommendations to her program coordinator about using certain placement sites.

Other administrative work included knowledge about City University's programs and curriculum. Bill highlighted the importance of the supervisor knowing the program vision (although at the same time, he acknowledged there really was not one of the teacher education program writ large or the science education program because they did not have a program coordinator³⁷) so that they could carry that through their work. Diane and Lauren both felt it was important that they know their respective program's curricula so that they could help their student teachers implement what they were learning at the university with what they were seeing and doing at the placement site. Administrators, Maria, Katherine, and Erin, also asserted this was necessary knowledge for supervisors.

³⁷ To clarify, the science education program had a program coordinator from another program filling in as the temporary science education program coordinator at the time of the study.

In addition to preparing other supervisors for their work and knowing the program vision and curriculum, a few supervisors felt it was an important function of their work to provide feedback on program documents, especially evaluation documents, to best fit the needs and requirements of the program and, when there were revisions, to share how those revisions were working. Courtney told me that a few years ago she and a handful of other supervisors in her program went to their new program coordinator to suggest changes in the program documents. She explained two changes to the program stemming from their input. First, the program coordinator and faculty revised the lesson observation form to allow for more “outside-of-checklist-type items,” for example, anecdotes that portray a “holistic picture” of the lesson. Before this revision to the form, Courtney wrote out her own anecdotal narrative for each lesson observation but now no longer needs to do this in a separate document. The second revision was to the Taskstream policy. Courtney and other supervisors had complained that student teachers would wait until the end of the term to submit their artifacts, which meant that the supervisors had to review and approve or send back for revision approximately 30 artifacts per student teacher in a short amount of time. The revised policy now stated that student teachers had to complete at least half of their Taskstream competencies before the mid-term evaluation, or they could not earn an Honors grade for the field experience. Courtney felt efficacy to bring about change in the program documents by sharing her ideas with her program coordinator, and she continued to believe that offering these kinds of suggestions were her duty as a supervisor.

Like Courtney, Shannon encountered a problem with the program documents. As I detailed in section 5.4.5, Shannon felt that the evaluation documents (lesson observation form, mid-term, and final evaluation) were not explicit enough in explaining what scores a student teacher had to earn to pass the practicum. Thankfully, in Shannon’s opinion, the program

coordinators and faculty took her input seriously and revised all three forms so that the criteria for earning the different practicum grades was explicit. Shannon clarified that she did not feel it was her job to change the forms—that was up to the program coordinator and faculty—but she strongly believed it was her job to share her opinion on the documents. When I met with Shannon the next year, she was mostly pleased with the revisions to the evaluation documents and, like Courtney, this experience left her feeling a strong sense of efficacy, which would likely affirm her enactment of the administrator role.

Those who embodied the administrator role were all retired practitioners and most had five or more years of experience supervising. Diane is a newer supervisor, but she had a full career as a teacher and administrator. It is possible that longer careers in education and more experience in supervision gave the supervisors confidence and led some supervisors to believe it was their responsibility to observe and report what they were seeing at the placement site. It may also be that second career supervisors were more willing to take on additional administrative tasks that were not required of them for reasons that are proposed in the following section. In general, the functions associated with the work of the administrator role were centered around improving the program through feedback on mentor teachers, placement sites, and program evaluation documents and knowing the program’s vision and curricula so as to carry it through to the placement site and work with student teachers.

5.4.8 Service

A final, unexpected role that supervisors adopted was that of service to the education profession. This role encapsulates functions of supervisory work that supervisors undertake *pro bono* or with a volunteer or “giving back” mindset including: spending time with student teachers in addition

to required observations and meetings, accepting low pay, consulting and meeting with other supervisors, and mentoring other supervisors and previous student teachers. Many of the supervisors, especially those who had had full careers as teachers or administrators used phrases like “giving back to the profession” and “It is rewarding” when I asked them what had brought them to supervision of student teachers. There appeared to be a sense that supervising was more than a job and that the work the supervisors were doing was more important than the money they were getting paid to do the work. Courtney gave examples of the work she does *pro bono* (mentor past student teachers and current teachers, consult with local teachers, schools, and programs) and claimed, “There’s a bit of a sense of integrity and ethics that just say this is kind of a responsibility that you have in an altruistic way, too.” Diane also noted that, in her experience, special education teachers generally work very hard and have low salaries. When speaking about the extra work she puts into supervising student teachers (extra meetings, mileage, mentoring new supervisors), Shannon reflected:

With those human career paths, I think that there is, I don’t know if it’s spoken or unspoken, a definite contract that we’re supposed to make that says we’re all in this together and it’s our job to do whatever we can to help the next generation of teachers. I absolutely do think that.

Shannon asserted if the supervisors were in it for the money, they should not be supervising. She was supervising because teaching was the one thing she likes to talk about and feels like she has something to offer. Bill agreed that the majority of supervisors were not in it for the money: “They’re in it to learn.” He used a revealing metaphor to describe how he sees his work in the service role:

How I see my role as a supervisor is almost as a volunteer in which I'm giving back to the profession. Something similar that I would do for my church, not expecting to get compensated to a high degree...Education was good to me, so giving back to the profession, meeting new people, staying involved was something that you did all your life.

Similarly, Paul told me that he forgot to turn in his mileage to be reimbursed by the university for the prior semester. He commented, "I'll save them some money," which indicates something like a financial donation or benevolence to the university that did not pay him highly in the first place. On the same note, Courtney mentioned that after four years of supervising, she found out that the university would reimburse her for mileage, which amounted to about \$400 per semester. Once Courtney learned this, she did submit her mileage, but for four years she was willing to spend hundreds of dollars on gasoline to conduct her observations and meet with student teachers outside of the classroom.

Program coordinator, Maria, felt differently: "It's not the highest stipend or salary you're getting, but it's not low either. And so, for the time you're putting into it, you're getting paid pretty nicely. And you should put time into it." After years of working with supervisors, Maria has observed two groups of supervisors: those who recently retired and wanted to remain involved in education and those who taught for a while, left to have children, and wanted to get back into education. Maria noticed that the second group was not always as enthusiastic about supervising. She perceived that they approached it as a job while the retired practitioners wanted to "give back to the career" and "mold the next generation of teachers." She commented, "I really like working with that person [the retired teacher] a lot. They seem vested in a different way." However, Maria did note that she wished she had more funding to support training efforts

for supervisors. She joked that if she did not have money to provide breakfast or lunch for the supervisors at a particular training, they would show up with a potluck dish and smiles on their faces.

A few of the supervisors and all three program administrators noted downsides to the service role. Courtney remarked that educators would not flock to supervising because of the low pay, and Bill added, “You can’t demand too much from [the supervisors]” for the same reason. Maria, Katherine, and Erin all admitted that they were reluctant to ask too much of the supervisors (like mentoring new supervisors or coming to trainings), again, due to low pay and supervisors’ part-time status. The administrators wanted to be respectful of the supervisors and not take advantage of their generosity of time and resources. I discuss how this tension interacts with supervisor training in further detail in Chapter 6.

Interestingly, neither of the graduate students, Lauren or Gracie, described their role in terms of service. This might be because they both had relatively shorter teaching careers (five years or less) and they may not have developed a sense of giving back to the profession. Furthermore, because they were supervising as part of their graduate student funding, their salary was much higher than the non-graduate student supervisors and their department offered them tuition remission. Therefore, Lauren and Gracie may have felt fairly compensated for their work and not as if they were supervising out of a duty or unwritten contract of obligation to the education field. The second career supervisors were likely more financially secure than the graduate students, which may help to explain their willingness to spend their own money on travel and meetings outside of the observations. Finally, it is also likely that the second career supervisors had more time to spend with the student teachers than the graduate students since the first group was retired and the second group was taking classes and completing milestone

requirements (e.g. a dissertation). While not all supervisors perceived that one of their main functions as supervisors was to give back to education in a service role, the vast majority of them did and this finding may not be specific to City University supervisors. Kathleen noted that the system of using part-time, adjunct workers to supervise only functions because there have always been people who are willing to do the job despite a lack of financial incentives.

5.4.9 Conclusion

When compared to the findings from the program documents, the interview findings show significant discrepancies between the university's expectations for the supervisor's roles and supervisors' actual enactment of those roles. First, the interviews revealed that supervisors only embodied one of the two major roles that the university sets for them. The interviewees indicated that they primarily acted in the instructional coaching role but not the evaluator role. Supervisors expressly refuted embodying the evaluator role, although they conceded to performing the functions of the role. This is a major discrepancy with the program documents that position the evaluator role as significant for supervisors. In place of the evaluator role, the interviewees adopted three other roles not present in the program documents. Six interviewees indicated embodying the counselor / mentor role, but there was scant evidence of the role or role functions in the program documents. Similarly, half of the interviewees indicated embodying the socializer and service roles, but, again, there was no evidence of these roles or role functions in the program documents. Finally, the program documents placed a less significant yet still important emphasis on managing the practicum, but none of the interviewees embodied this

role³⁸. In fact, two supervisors and both co-directors specifically argued that the manager role was not part of supervisors' work, which is incongruent with the university's portrayal of the supervisor's roles in the program documents. Interestingly, the co-directors agreed that the supervisors should take on the instructional coach, evaluator, counselor / mentor, and socializer roles, so they also added two roles to the supervisors' work that were not included in the program documents (counselor / mentor and socializer).

Therefore, the findings from the supervisor interviews significantly contrast with the written university expectations for supervisors, but they appear to be somewhat in alignment with the expectations of the co-directors of teacher education. Table 10 presents the interviewees' role conceptions across the eight roles that emerged from the supervisor interviews. All supervisors reported embodying at least two roles, and Courtney embodied the most roles (n=5). The mean number of roles the interviewees embodied was approximately three. The modal role was instructional coach (n=10) followed by counselor / mentor (n=6) and then socializer and service roles (n=5). No supervisors enacted the manager role, and there was weak support for the evaluator, bridge, and administrator roles.

³⁸ Interestingly, Maria, a program coordinator and supervisor, commented that she felt managing the practicum was part of the supervisors' role, but she did not embody the role herself.

Table 10. Interviewees' Role Conceptions

Supervisor	Instructional Coach	Counselor / Mentor	Manager Of the Practicum	Socializer into the Profession	Evaluator	Bridge	Administrator for University	Service
Courtney	✓	✓		✓		✓		✓
Shannon	✓			✓			✓	✓
Jeanne	✓			✓				
Diane	✓			✓				
Caroline	✓	✓						✓
Maria	✓	✓						
Bill	✓						✓	✓
Paul	✓	✓		✓				✓
Lauren	✓	✓				✓		
Gracie	✓	✓			✓			

5.5 FINDINGS FROM THE LESSON OBSERVATION FORMS

The analysis of the lesson observation forms consisted of 11 lesson observation forms from five supervisors (Paul, Maria, Diane, Jeanne, and Bill) across five teacher education programs: early childhood education, elementary education, special education / content area, foreign language education, and science education. The structure and content of these forms varied widely across programs and over time³⁹. The different structures of the lesson observation forms and indicators listed on the forms led to natural variation in supervisors' comments. Furthermore, I realized the content of supervisors' comments would vary by individual student teacher and student teacher progress. Despite this expected variation, there was strong consistency across the supervisors' role functions evidenced in their lesson observation forms in terms of the evaluator and instructional coaching roles. First, supervisors all performed functions of evaluating student teachers, namely scoring student teachers on a variety of indicators deemed important by their programs and state requirements using a predetermined rating scale that intended to capture the student teachers' progress on each particular item and providing additional, supplementary comments to either expand on individual indicators or to add indicators of good teaching that did not appear on the observation forms. Secondly, all supervisors left comments that were functions of instructional coaching including: lesson planning and preparation, instructional moves (e.g. questioning, fostering discussion, circulating around to individual students), analyzing components of the lesson (e.g. objectives, instructions, formative assessments), student

³⁹ Bill wanted me to see the variation in the lesson observation forms over time, so he sent me two current examples of his observation forms and one from six years ago.

engagement, and giving suggestions for instructional improvement moving forward. Thirdly, all supervisors except Jeanne engaged in a few functions of the socializer role, specifically commenting on professionalism and the student teachers' teaching presence. There was no evidence in the lesson observation forms of functions of the counselor / mentor, manager of the practicum, bridge, administrator, or service roles, but that is very likely because the observation forms were not a space for supervisors to enact those roles.

The lesson observation forms showed that supervisors were indeed enacting the instructional coach and evaluator roles in practice, not just in their descriptions of their practice, as required by the university's program documents. Despite performing the required functions of evaluation, the lesson observation forms did not demonstrate that the interviewees embodied the evaluator role, which corroborates what they claimed in the interviews. The lesson observation forms all contained scores on prescribed indicators, but the open-ended notes and comments where supervisors could have embodied the evaluator role were more aligned with the instructional coach and other secondary roles. In fact, the presence of supplementary notes and comments on the lesson observation forms to some extent shows that the supervisors were not embodying the evaluator role; it seems that an evaluator would be more likely to simply provide grades and stop at that. The lesson observation forms showed that supervisors were meeting the co-directors' expectations that they socialize student teachers into the profession. However, the lesson observation forms did not show evidence of the manager role, which the program documents espoused. Not surprisingly, the lesson observation form data were in alignment with the findings from the interviewees, but they also echoed the findings in the survey data as well.

5.6 CONCLUSIONS

5.6.1 What are supervisors' primary roles, and is there alignment with university expectations and among data sources?

City University expectations for supervisors' primary roles came from the program documents like the *Handbook* and from my interviews with the co-directors of teacher education. Program documents showed that the university expected supervisors to act primarily in the instructional coach, evaluator, and manager roles. There were a few instances of the bridge role and functions but no real precedence for the socializer, counselor / mentor, administrator, or service roles or role functions in the program documents. The co-directors agreed that the supervisors should carry out the instructional coach and evaluator roles, but they added the counselor / mentor and socializer roles to supervisors' work, although they did not strongly emphasize the socializer role. Interestingly, both co-directors disagreed with the program documents that managing the practicum was not the supervisor's responsibility. Lastly, although the co-directors did not expect supervisors to enact the service role, they were both aware that supervisors framed their work in this way and were grateful for supervisors' dedication to their programs.

When taken together, survey, interviews, program documents and lesson observation forms showed some congruence regarding supervisors' primary roles, namely instructional coaching. The survey conveyed that respondents conceived of their roles primarily as: instructional coach, counselor / mentor, evaluator, and they somewhat conceived of their roles as managers of the practicum and socializers into the profession. The emphasis on instructional coaching is not surprising given that the foundational work of supervising is to teach student teachers to teach and is consistent with the literature that positions supervisors as instructional

coaches (Akcan & Tatar, 2010; Baecher et al., 2014; Bailey, 2006; Fayne, 2007; Lutovac et al., 2014; Stones, 2003). The literature also affirmed that supervisors often adopt counseling or mentoring roles (Bailey, 2006; Caires & Almeida, 2007; Fayne, 2007, Nonis & Jernice, 2011; Smith & Lev-Ari, 2005) but there was less evidence from the literature demonstrating supervisors' enactment of the manager and socializer roles and describing supervisors' work in those roles. The primary roles the interviewees embodied were: instructional coach, counselor / mentor, socializer into the profession, and service roles. In other words, supervisors believed that these four roles comprised and guided their work and were essential for defining their contribution to teacher education. In contrast, other roles, specifically evaluator, were perfunctory and simply carried out due to program and state requirements. The interviewees especially implied that they would prefer not to have to formally assess student teachers and would have preferred to provide in-depth, constructive feedback instead. Lastly, the lesson observation forms positioned supervisors primarily as instructional coaches and evaluators with some evidence of socializing. Table 11 portrays the agreement on the centrality of supervisors' primary roles by data source.

Table 11. Agreement on Centrality of Supervisors' Primary Roles by Data Source

	<u>Institutional Expectations</u>		<u>Embodiment and Enactment</u>		
	Program Documents	Co-Director Interviews	Survey	Supervisor Interviews	Lesson Observation Forms
Instructional Coach	H	H	H	H	H
Evaluator	H	H	H		H
Counselor / mentor		H	H	H	
Manager	H		M		
Socializer		H	M	M	H
Service				M	
Bridge	M				

Note: "H" indicates the source rated the role with high centrality. "M" indicates the source rated the role with moderate centrality.

Although there was consensus on the instructional coaching role, there were some major disagreements between the data sources on the centrality of the roles and disagreements among university expectations and supervisor enactments. The most disagreement was around the evaluator role. It was the third most popular role in the survey, and the functions were highly central to supervisors' work, which echoes the findings in the literature (Baecher et al., 2014; Bailey, 2006; Conderman et al., 2005; Hamel, 2012; Mudavanhu, 2015). Supervisors heavily relied on evaluator functions in practice on their lesson observation forms; all observation and mid-term and final evaluation forms, of course, required the supervisors to evaluate student teachers. However, only one of the interviewees (a first-year supervisor) aligned herself with the evaluator role, and she remarked that her role shifted more to the counselor / mentor role as she became more aware of her student teachers' needs. Interestingly, while the interviewees reported functions of evaluation as central to their work, they then distanced themselves from evaluation when describing their overall role. It appeared that the interviewees in general felt that evaluation was a necessary part of their work, but they did not want to position themselves

as evaluators. The interviewees related that evaluation of student teachers led to discrepancies with the mentor teacher and student teacher and interfered with the real work of supervising— instructional coaching, mentoring, and socializing student teachers into the profession. I describe these tensions in more detail in the next chapter. The nature of the interview data may have led to this finding, because it gave space for supervisors to explicate what roles were important to them and to explain nuances in their beliefs that the survey instrument was not designed to do. The program documents could have clarified some questions the interviewees had concerning evaluation, but the supervisors either were unaware of the *Handbook* and other program documents, or they did not refer to them when they had questions.

Thus, the findings around the centrality of evaluation to supervisors' work is complex; it was one of the most disliked functions and one of the least-embodied roles yet one of the most central functions and a required role by the university. The discrepancy between the university's expectations for supervisors to enact the evaluator role and the practice of the supervisors engaging in the functions but not embodying the role is a significant tension illuminated in the data sources but was not present in the literature I reviewed, although some sources noted general tensions related to evaluation (e.g. Holland, 1988; Ong'ondo & Borg, 2011; Talvitie et al., 2000).

There was a similar discrepancy among university expectations and supervisors' conceptions in regard to the manager of the practicum role. Half of the survey respondents listed manager of the practicum as one of their supervisory roles, but none of the interview participants did. The interview participants did mention functions of the manager role as central to their work but did not report it as a role they adopted. There was also some disagreement between the program administrators regarding the centrality of this role. Maria felt it was the supervisors'

job, but Katherine and Erin believed managing the practicum was the placement coordinator's job. However, the program documents listed some supervisor functions that pertained to the manager role, so there was actually disagreement between the administrators and the program documents. It appears that half of the supervisors followed the university's expectations that they enact this role, and half did not.

The data sources highlighted a similar difference in university expectation and supervisor enactment regarding the centrality of the counselor / mentor role. The co-directors, survey respondents and interviewees embraced the counselor / mentor role although it was absent from the program documents. In fact, a desire to mentor and guide student teachers was one of the supervisors' primary motivations for wanting to supervise, especially second career supervisors, and probably also influenced supervisors' decisions to adopt this supplementary role. It is also interesting that supervisors seemingly replaced the university-required evaluator role with the non-required counselor / mentor role, where the authority gradient is less obvious. The program documents did not portray the supervisors as harsh, uncaring evaluators, but they did expect supervisors to candidly assess student teachers' work, which implies the supervisors may have to be forthright at times in their evaluations and potentially be the source of academic, philosophical, or socioemotional conflict with the student teacher or mentor teacher. However, it appears that the supervisors, especially the second career supervisors, may abstain from embodying strict evaluator roles, because they genuinely enjoy working with students (as evidenced by full teaching or administrative careers and motivations for supervising) and feel that being supportive and caring is more central to their work than evaluating.

Thirdly, there was a discrepancy among the expectations of the university and the enactments of the supervisors regarding the socializer role. The survey, interviews, and lesson

observation forms conveyed that about half of supervisors viewed themselves in the socializer role. Again, additional role adoption by the supervisors may be related to their motivations for supervising, especially the second career supervisors. Some open-ended survey responses indicated that the second-career supervisors wanted to share their career experience with student teachers and prepare them for their future careers in education. The graduate student supervisors did not convey a desire to perform this role, possibly because they had less years of teaching or administrative experience.

Lastly, there was strong agreement among the second career supervisor interviewees and survey respondents for the service role; the graduate students in both the survey and interviews did not adopt this role. This is not surprising given the motivations that supervisors reported in their surveys for wanting to become a supervisor. However, the service role did not appear in the program documents or co-director interviews. This is also expected, because the nature of the service role prevents it from being mandated. However, the co-directors were aware of and did acknowledge the extra time and effort contributed by the supervisors in light of their low pay and part-time status. Therefore, the supervisors exceeded university expectations of them as employees in regard to the supervisor role.

In general, a comparison of the centrality of roles across data sources portrays strong agreement for the instructional coach role, so supervisors met that university expectation. The findings are mixed on whether the supervisors adopt an authentic evaluator role as mandated by the university, or if they simply perform the functions of the evaluator role without truly embodying it because those functions are so central to supervisors' practice. It is clear that the interviewees do not meet the university's expectations for them to *embrace* the evaluator role. Excluding the evaluator role, the supervisors tended to exceed university expectations by taking

on additional roles that the university did not prescribe in the program documents and that the co-directors did not espouse. In addition to the formal, written university expectations, supervisors adopted the counselor / mentor, socializer, administrator, bridge, and service roles. There may be two reasons for this role expansion. First, the relationship between the supervisor and the students is significantly more complex and multifaceted than what is described in the program documents. In their interviews, the co-directors led me to believe that they are aware of the complexity of supervisors' work, but it may be that department administrators feel the instructional coach, evaluator, and manager roles are most important and the other roles are secondary or optional (e.g. administrator or service roles) and, therefore, only include the most central ones in the program documents. Second, there is evidence from the survey, interviews, and lesson observation forms that suggests supervisors want to be more involved in teacher training efforts and, thus, may be creating additional pathways for themselves to be more involved (e.g. counselor / mentor, socializer, or administrator roles). In addition, supervisor autonomy and lack of oversight from the university would also allow supervisors to craft their role identities as they liked and differentiate them for individual student teachers, which would lead to additional roles.

5.6.2 What are supervisors' central functions?

Examining the supervisors' central functions is useful for a few reasons. First, this analysis helps researchers and administrators "see" supervisors' work, which often occurs in isolation with only the student teacher or mentor teacher present and with minimal oversight from program coordinators or faculty. Secondly, it helps to understand supervisors' roles more clearly (i.e. Which functions, when combined, create a role?). Thirdly, separating functions from roles

allowed me to make inferences about supervisors' perceptions of their work (e.g. As noted in this chapter, supervisors perform evaluative functions because they are mandated by state and program requirements, but they do not view themselves as evaluators.). Finally, learning about which functions supervisors believed were central to their practice allowed me to: (1) Compare supervisors' beliefs about central functions to City University's expectations; (2) Discover supervisors' practitioner identities and, in some cases, their reluctance to adopt university-based teacher educator identities (which I discuss further in Chapters 6 and 7); and (3) Make recommendations for training opportunities and organizational supports for supervisors (which I discuss in Chapters 8 and 9).

There was, for the most part, consistency among the centrality ratings of specific functions stemming from the data sources. Supervisors reported engaging in functions of the eight roles described in the previous sections of this chapter, although to differing extents. All data sources highlighted the centrality of instructional coaching functions such as: observing lessons, conferencing, giving feedback on teaching, classroom management, and developing the student teacher's instructional competencies. All data sources also highlighted the centrality of evaluator functions such as: assessing student teachers' lessons, conducting the formative mid-term evaluation, conducting the summative final evaluation, and reviewing artifacts for the completion of the SDE 123 portfolio. Since the program documents highlighted instructional coaching and evaluator functions, the supervisors met the formal, written expectations of the university in terms of their role functions. Furthermore, the survey respondents, interviewees, and co-directors pointed to the counselor / mentor functions as being central to supervisors' work such as: building positive relationships with student teachers, guiding, advising, and providing socioemotional support. However, the counselor / mentor functions of supervising were not

evident in the program documents or lesson observation forms. These functions appear to be supplementary to the requirements of supervisors' work and functions they take on mostly voluntarily. The co-directors did have expectations that the supervisors complete tasks related to the counselor / mentor and socializer roles, and there is strong evidence of that in the interview data but mixed results in the survey and lesson observation forms. Other role functions did not have strong consensus across the data sources, and the program documents did not mandate those functions (i.e. manager of the practicum, socializer into the profession, bridge, administrator for the university, and service). In general, the second career supervisors were more likely to display the socializing functions than the graduate student supervisors, but both groups appeared likely to carry out the counselor / mentor functions. Therefore, in terms of role functions, the supervisors met the formal, written university expectations, and some supervisors met the expectations of the co-directors. For the most part, supervisors exceeded university expectations by acting out role functions from a variety of additional roles not prescribed by the university.

5.6.3 Where do supervisors disagree about their central functions?

Supervisors disagreed on the centrality of functions related to lesson planning, managing the practicum, and socializing student teachers into the profession—specifically professionalism and providing a recommendation during the job search. To provide context for these various disagreements, I first review the university expectations for these functions stemming from the program documents and co-director interviews and then describe how the supervisors disagreed with those expectations in practice.

First, City University expected supervisors to engage student teachers in their lesson planning. Co-director Katherine held a strong stance that the process of lesson planning was central to supervisors' work. Some of the programs required supervisors to co-plan the first formally observed lesson with the student teacher. Others expected the supervisor to be involved in the lesson planning of every formally observed lesson. The *Handbook* provided guidelines for student teachers to submit lesson plans, but it stopped short of requiring that the supervisors must provide feedback on the lesson plans as do the majority of the program documents. The *Handbook* stated the student teacher is responsible for submitting the lesson plan to the mentor teacher and supervisor before the lesson, and "Ideally, feedback and suggestions on the planning should be given to the candidate prior to the implementation of the lesson." This language is not clear as to who, the mentor teacher or the supervisor or both, should be giving the student teacher feedback, and it prefaces this requirement with a caveat, "Ideally," perhaps purposefully to show the university's preference but to allow programs, supervisors, and mentor teachers autonomy around lesson planning guidance.

Secondly, the program documents listed managing the practicum as central functions. Some of these functions included general communication with the mentor teacher and informing him of policies, City University expectations, forms, and deadlines, communicating similar information to the student teacher, managing the student teacher's completion of the SDE 123, and contacting the program coordinators when problems arise. Thirdly, there was less emphasis on the socializer functions from City University, but professionalism was strongly highlighted within the program documents. The *Handbook* clearly states that student teachers may need to learn professionalism through the practicum experience and that developing this professionalism is one of the supervisor's main responsibilities. Furthermore, the framework the State

Department of Education uses to assess student teachers includes professionalism as one of the four major domains, and professionalism appears on most of the lesson observation forms and on all of the mid-term and final evaluations and the SDE 123. Lastly, the *Handbook* requires that supervisors provide a professional recommendation for student teachers at the end of the practicum experience.

Despite the broad agreement on the centrality or not of role functions reported in the previous section, there were a few examples of centrality ratings where the supervisors disagreed with either the interviewees or program documents. For example, on survey question 22, 19 supervisors rated lesson planning as somewhat central or less, which is a significant departure from Katherine's beliefs about the importance of the supervisor lesson planning with the student teacher from the beginning of the field experience and the requirement that supervisors be involved in lesson planning in the *Handbook*. Furthermore, two of the supervisors did not believe the lesson planning City University espoused was relevant to their fields, and only a few of the interviewees strongly emphasized lesson planning with their student teachers. Therefore, the data show definite disagreement among some survey respondents and university expectations as to the centrality of lesson planning.

A second function that supervisors disagreed with the university expectations was on manager functions. The survey participants rated communicating with program coordinators concerning student teacher's progress as low centrality. Twenty percent of supervisors ranked this function as neutral or not central. However, the *Handbook* stated that this was one of the supervisors' main responsibilities. Neither the survey participants nor the interviewees provided any clues as to why some supervisors felt that function was not central to their work. In fact, whenever the supervisors mentioned program coordinators and program faculty, it was always in

a positive light, so it appears that they have productive relationships with the program coordinators. Perhaps the supervisors may not want to bother the busy administrators and attempt to handle situations themselves. The only interviewees who reported communicating with the program coordinator concerning the student teachers' progress were those who also embodied the gatekeeping role⁴⁰.

Two final disagreements about the centrality of functions are related to the socializer role. Overall, the respondents rated the functions of this role as less central than other roles. One interesting outlier in the socializer functions is fostering professionalism in the student teacher. Survey participants rated this significantly higher than the other functions in the socializer role. This is likely because the State Department of Education student teacher assessment framework includes professionalism as one of the four major domains, and professionalism is a primary component of lesson observations and formative and summative assessments. A second interesting finding regarding this role's functions is that twelve supervisors rated providing professional recommendation for the student teacher during the job search as somewhat central or less. However, the *Handbook* clearly states that this is one of the supervisors' main responsibilities. Neither the survey participants nor the interviewees provided any clues as to why some supervisors felt that this function was not central to their work. It may be that some programs do not enforce this requirement, or it may be similar to the evaluator functions where supervisors complete this task but do not internalize the role. It appears that supervisors, for the most part met university expectations in their actual enactments of their role functions; however,

⁴⁰ Shannon is the one exception here who emailed her program coordinators to say the revised evaluation forms were working well. However, she also noted that if her program had held meetings, she would not have to email them regarding the forms, which I discuss in the next chapter.

there may be instances where supervisors were unaware of particular role functions or unwilling to complete them.

6.0 RQ 2: WHAT TENSIONS EXIST BETWEEN SUPERVISORS' ROLE DEFINITIONS AND THEIR EFFICACY IN CARRYING OUT THOSE FUNCTIONS, AND WHAT ARE THE SOURCES OF THOSE TENSIONS?

Supervisors strive to fulfill multiple roles from counseling and mentoring student teachers to evaluating them, but how well are supervisors able to enact those roles during the notoriously hectic semester of student teaching? Do tensions arise as supervisors navigate multiple roles and complete seemingly contradictory functions like counseling and evaluating? When tension arise, what are the underlying sources of problems of supervisor efficacy? This study found that a multitude of tensions do exist in supervisors' work; however, I only report here the tensions that exist between supervisors' role definitions, how those tensions affect supervisor efficacy, and the sources of these tensions in this chapter.

Overall, supervisors reported very high efficacy to perform their roles and role functions across data sources. The primary tensions that supervisors reported arose when they had to enact the evaluator role, when there was a lack of time to spend with the student teacher, and when supervisors reverted to practitioner identities and beliefs that differed from the university. The sources of these tensions are: the inherent, conflicting goals between evaluating and other roles, unclear expectations, different supervisor beliefs from the university about instructional coaching, a lack of organizational supports, the structure of the programs, and second career supervisors failing to transition from practitioners to teacher educators. I present the findings

from the survey data first and then the findings from the interviews organized by tension. Because the interviews were a better instrument than the survey for understanding the nuances of tensions in role enactment, the data I used to address this question primarily came from the supervisor interviews. Furthermore, since the program documents and lesson observation forms did not provide much data to address this question, I intersperse them with the survey and interview data as appropriate rather than include a standalone section.

6.1 FINDINGS FROM THE SURVEY DATA

Survey questions 29-37 solicited tensions in supervisors' role efficacy. The survey results first revealed that supervisors have very high efficacy to enact their roles; only one supervisor indicated moderate efficacy and one low efficacy. The majority of supervisors (n=18) reported that they participated in program meetings to discuss their student teachers. In contrast, few supervisors (n=8) reported that they participated in program meetings to discuss the program mission, vision, goals, or curriculum. Attending program meetings would likely lead to higher efficacy because those are a space for supervisors to show their work (i.e. report what they are seeing or doing in the field) and to ask questions of program coordinators and faculty that would support their work. In addition, not being invited to meetings to discuss the program's mission, vision, goals, or curriculum appears not to have affected their role efficacy. This may be because supervisors overwhelmingly saw themselves as practitioners whose work was at the school site not the university.

The second major finding from the survey was that supervisors have few organizational or policy critiques of their work. There was no consensus from the survey data regarding which

organizational aspects of their work hinder supervisors' efficacy. When asked what organizational aspects of the school or university site impeded supervisors' best work, the modal response (n=9⁴¹) was time constraints in working with the student teacher and completing the evaluations. Six respondents said there were no impediments to their work, and the other organizational aspects listed in the question all received one or two counts. Similarly, there was not strong consensus on policy aspects of supervisors' work that impeded supervisors' efficacy; in fact, the modal response was none (n=6). Many of the policy aspects listed on the survey question did not elicit a response. Finally, there was not strong agreement among supervisors when asked what they would change if they were in charge of teacher education at City University. The modal response (n=12) was more meetings with program faculty and supervisors, specifically opportunities to learn from other supervisors.

When compiled together, the modal tensions from this section of the survey were: a lack of time to spend with the student teacher, an overall lack of training and program-specific meetings, and a lack of opportunities to share with and learn from colleagues. The sources of these tensions are the organization of the practicum experience and supervisors' roles within in, the retention and privileging of a practitioner identity, and a lack of organizational supports for supervisors. Despite these tensions, the survey conveyed that the supervisors are able to carry out their roles with high efficacy. This appears to be due to their participation in activities related student teachers' work at the PK-12 site—a place where the supervisors feel they are experts—and minor organizational or policy aspects that impede supervisors' work.

⁴¹ This count includes both variables related to a lack of time: a general lack of time to spend with students and a lack of time due to the number of student teachers one supervises.

6.2 FINDINGS FROM THE INTERVIEW DATA

In contrast to the survey data, significant tensions *did* arise in the course of the in-depth interviews with supervisors. Due to the volume of interview data, I combed through each role for tensions and only report major findings here. The most salient tensions interviewees reported were related to evaluation in general and the functions of evaluating interacting with conflicting roles like instructional coach and counselor / mentor that the supervisors felt were paramount to evaluating student teachers. However, secondary tensions arose when supervisors could not enact their instructional coaching role, when they had a lack of time to spend with student teachers, and due to their non-teacher educator practitioner identities. As noted in the introduction to this chapter, I organized this section by tensions that arose in the interview data and intersperse evidence from the program documents where pertinent.

6.2.1 Instructional coaching

In addition to evaluation, supervisors reported tensions when they were unable to enact their instructional coaching roles. This occurred when they had different beliefs about effective teaching than the mentor teacher or the school site, when the supervisors had what they perceived to be poor student teachers, when the student teachers displayed inappropriate or unprofessional behaviors, and when student teachers did not have teaching aptitudes.

Lauren gave a relevant example of the philosophy of the school site interfering with her instructional coaching role. Three of Lauren's student teachers were apprenticing in a school district that shared the same mathematics education philosophy as City University, but one of her student teachers was in a district that used more traditional pedagogy. Lauren remarked that

since this school site did not use the reform-oriented pedagogy, her student teacher obviously could not gain practice implementing these techniques, thus Lauren could not coach her student teacher in the mathematics education philosophy that she and City University espoused. In addition, ignorance of a school district's educational philosophy or difficulty finding mentor teachers may have led to Lauren's student teacher's placement in a school whose mathematics education philosophy does not align with City University.

A second tension came from having what supervisors considered to be poor quality student teachers. This included both student teachers who excelled academically but did not have teaching aptitudes and student teachers who did not exhibit appropriate professionalism and behaviors that are characteristic of teachers. Shannon recently had a student teacher who, she felt, did not display appropriate behaviors or make adequate progress in his teaching. However, when she shared this information with her program coordinator and faculty they showed surprise, because he was excelling academically. Shannon thought that the program should not have admitted him for teacher candidacy, but he may have "slipped through" because it is easier to demonstrate qualification for program admission on paper through academic scores than it is by aptitude for teaching. Therefore, having to coach student teachers who lack the basic skills and predispositions for teaching creates a tension. Jeanne related another example. She perceived that a student teacher she recently had did not grow in his instructional capabilities, because: "When he enrolled at City University, he already thought he knew everything" and would not listen to Jeanne's coaching. Although Jeanne admitted that this student teacher was an excellent foreign language speaker, she told him that his content knowledge did not matter; what mattered to her was his ability to teach that content knowledge. In this situation, Jeanne did not feel that she had less efficacy to enact her role as an instructional coach, but the student teacher

diminished her effectiveness as an instructional coach because he would not accept her feedback. She finally relented: “There’s only so much you can do...You’re working with adults.” In addition to having academically strong but instructionally weak student teachers, the instructional coach supervisors reported having student teachers who, they deemed, were unfit for the teaching profession. The supervisors reported that they had worked with student teachers who: showed up late to their placement sites, failed to complete lesson plans or consistently submitted them late, submitted their Taskstream artifacts at the last minute or late, had mental health challenges they were not dealing with, did not listen to the supervisor, did not listen to the mentor teacher, were unprofessional in their behavior or dress, were unteachable, and made a slew of other missteps. Thus, the student teachers’ behaviors and actions prevented supervisors from coaching, diminished the effectiveness of their coaching, and took time away from their coaching because they had to address other non-instructional issues.

Finally, Paul believed, at least in early childhood education, teaching was an innate ability; a person is either a good teacher or not. In fact, he asserted that when he was an administrator hiring teachers and staff he would look for character traits rather than experience or credentials, because he felt that the ability to work with small children is somewhat instinctual. Paul claimed that some of the best early childhood educators—people he worked with for years and would leave his own children with in a heartbeat—never had formal early childhood education. They just had a natural, innate ability. It follows that Paul would be able to be more effective of an instructional coach with the student teachers who had teaching aptitudes, because they would naturally start out further ahead and be able to grow more than those without them.

The sources of these tensions came from a variety of places. Shannon felt the admissions process failed, perhaps because there is no accurate way of measuring potential teaching ability

on the admission forms. It seems like Paul's tension, in a roundabout way, stemmed from the same problem—an inability to measure innate teaching ability or determine those candidates who would benefit the most from the program and be teachable at the placement site. At the outset, it appears that the student teacher may also be a source of tension for the supervisors; however, there also could be challenges in the student teacher's personal life (e.g. Erin noted the increase in mental health challenges her student teachers face.) that contribute to the student teacher's struggles at the placement site of which the supervisors may be unaware or to which they may be unsympathetic. It may be the case that education is not a good fit for some student teachers. At City University, the majority of teacher education programs are graduate programs, which means that most student teachers complete a bachelor's degree in a content area or another subject and then return for a master's degree in teaching. Therefore, the majority of student teachers come to their programs with little to no educational content knowledge and little to no experience observing or working in classrooms, so it is likely that student teachers do not know what teaching entails before they enter their program, which could lead to disconnects and tensions.

6.2.2 Evaluation

Only one supervisor, Gracie, felt that her role was an evaluator. However, she reflected that her role shifted from an evaluator to other roles as the semester progressed, she gained experience, and she discovered her student teachers' needs. Despite the low prevalence of interviewees enacting the evaluator role, the functions of evaluation caused major tensions for the supervisors, especially those who embodied the instructional coach and counselor / mentor roles. By far the most frequent tension the instructional coaches reported was that the work of evaluating student

teachers is in direct conflict with instructional coaching. Courtney bluntly stated, “You’re never meant to be an evaluator when you’re a coach.” Co-director Katherine attempted to steer away supervisors away from evaluation:

I really try to avoid, especially in the beginning of the relationship, the whole notion of evaluation. I am not here to evaluate you, to tell you, “You were good or bad. It’s about growth, and this is where you are and how can we make steady progress to grow.”

Paul commented that he feels there is a certain sense of being judged inherent in evaluation, and he works hard to help his student teachers get past that feeling with him. He appeared to consent to doing whatever the student teacher needed him to do, within reason, in terms of completing observation and evaluation forms so that they could get through the paperwork and move on to talking about teaching kids. Like Katherine, the supervisors for the most part tried to focus on instructional growth and downplay the evaluations by inflating scores so that the student teachers would not worry and care more about growing as a teacher than earning particular grades. Despite Katherine’s endorsement of the instructional coaching role over the evaluator role and the supervisors’ general dislike for and avoidance of evaluation, it was a central function of their work and caused significant tensions for supervisors in enacting the instructional coaching role.

The supervisors enacting the counselor / mentor role reported a similar tension; the counselor / mentor supervisors wanted to build trust, cultivate mentoring relationships, and support the socioemotional well-being of their student teachers, but having to evaluate the student teachers had the potential to undermine those goals. The source of this tension for Gracie was the dual role of the supervisor to be an unbiased, accurate evaluator of the student teacher’s progress according to the university’s evaluation documents and to acknowledge and support the student teacher’s socioemotional responses to teaching and being evaluated. Because

the student teachers had to be evaluated on their teaching performance, there was always the potential that they would earn low scores and be upset. In addition, as their evaluator, Gracie was in a position to give her student teachers low scores and upset them. Thus, the evaluation requirement and the likelihood that student teachers would make mistakes and need to grow as teachers forced Gracie to feel as though she were responsible for upsetting the student teachers, which contradicted her role as a counselor / mentor. Paul noted that he attempts to position himself as a colleague with the student teachers rather than an authority over them, but having to evaluate student teachers positioned him as an authority figure. Both Paul and Gracie took steps in their evaluations to downplay the scores and retain the counselor / mentor relationship. First, Paul tells his student teachers that he will give them A-equivalent grades in hopes that the student teachers will disregard the evaluations and focus on their actual teaching. Gracie gerrymandered her student teachers' scores on the lesson observation form so they would not get too many low scores at the beginning of the term, because Gracie was afraid "it would crush them." She progressively gave them higher scores so that the student teachers would feel that they were improving steadily and gain confidence. Furthermore, as a counselor / mentor, Gracie worried about the scores the mentor teachers were giving to her student teachers and wanted to "protect" them from what she perceived to be harsh evaluations. In fact, Gracie joked: "[I want to tell the mentor teachers], 'Just don't be too hard on our babies.'" Gracie and Paul's actions show that their duty to evaluate the student teachers restrained their ability to support and encourage their student teachers, which they desperately wanted to do.

Paul appeared to work within the tensions of the two roles by superficially evaluating student teachers and emphasizing other role functions, but Gracie conveyed frequent anxiety over having to accurately evaluate her student teachers and being forced into a judgmental role

that she found uncomfortable. Their individual responses may be due to participant demographics. Paul was a second career supervisor who had three years of supervisory experience at City University. He explained that he was initially concerned with evaluating when he began supervising, but he realized no one would review his evaluations so he eventually fell back on his career experience and allowed his counselor / mentor and instructional coach roles to prevail over the required evaluator functions. Paul was not dependent on City University financially or academically and had come to believe that he could tailor his supervisory practice however he wanted and retire at any time. In contrast, Gracie only had a few years of teaching experience in another country and was a first-year supervisor and graduate student. She was dependent on the university for her tuition remission and stipend and had to be in good standing with the department to continue in her degree program. Unlike Paul, Gracie deeply struggled with providing authentic evaluations while retaining positive and supportive relationships with her student teachers and felt much more constrained by her evaluation duties than Paul did.

Aside from functional differences⁴² between evaluation and the instructional coach and counselor / mentor roles, the first problem for instructional coaches having to evaluate student teachers was that, although the supervisors were confident in their role as instructional coaches, they did not have clear expectations for giving feedback on instruction. Caroline, Paul, and Shannon claimed that, when they first began, they thought they knew what good teaching was from their career experience, but they were unaware of what was important to the university. Further complicating this tension was that the majority of the supervisors did not receive

⁴² I use the term, functional differences, here to distinguish between the competing functions of the roles. For example, evaluating a student teacher includes being objective and realistic about a student teacher's current performance and has the potential to upset student teachers socioemotionally by recording that performance officially. In contrast, counseling or mentoring a student teacher can entail avoiding harsh realities of a student teacher's weaknesses and rather focusing on strengths or future possibilities of what a student teacher can be. It can also entail comforting the student teacher socioemotionally and helping the student teacher look past current weaknesses to future skills and abilities.

feedback on their lesson observation forms from the program coordinators or other program faculty. In the absence of feedback on their work and approach to supervising, the supervisors continued in what they believed to be the best instructional coaching, counseling / mentoring, bridging, managing, and socializing practices, provided what they thought was appropriate feedback, and continued to direct their attention toward the elements of teaching they felt were most important. While the program documents were helpful in providing some guidance on assessment expectations (e.g. the rubric for evaluation scores), for the most part the documents did not specify what aspects of instruction supervisors should focus on, what format their feedback should take, or how critical they should be in their comments. Furthermore, the newer supervisors especially admitted confusion over what the student teacher should be able to do and at what point in the semester he should be able to do it, so when the mentor teacher asked for clarification the supervisors were sometimes unsure themselves. This problem was exacerbated for Gracie, Paul, Caroline, Courtney, and Lauren when it was time for the mid-term and final evaluations; they all reported working with mentor teachers who had different expectations of what the student teacher should be doing or able to do than the supervisor. However, all of the programs included phase-in schedules for student teachers on the teacher preparation website, so this tension may have been avoided for some triads. Not knowing City University's expectations for evaluating student teachers hindered supervisors' efficacy in the manager and bridge roles, because they were not confident sharing university expectations with the PK-12 site and mentor teachers and did not know if their opinions or the mentor teacher's opinions on the student teacher's progress were correct.

The second tension regarding evaluation for instructional coaches was the evaluation forms. When they began supervising, the interviewees wondered how long their comments

should be on the evaluation documents, what format they should be in (e.g. bullet points, narrative, etc.), how critical they should be when giving feedback, and, for Gracie specifically, what the scores on the evaluation forms meant. Only one program, English education, provided a sample of a completed lesson observation form for supervisors to follow, which Erin explained was a new addition to the program documents. Paul and Diane both contended that the nature of instruction was different in their fields (early childhood education and special education, respectively) than in other content areas, but the lesson observation form they used was nearly identical to the form for elementary education programs. In addition to arguing that instruction was different in their fields, Paul and Diane also felt that lesson planning was fundamentally different in practice than what their programs represented in student teachers' coursework and in the program documents. Diane commented that the lessons and lesson plans her student teachers had to complete were "so far from the real world" of classroom practice. Paul also disliked the lesson observation form: "I don't expect that that form is particularly helpful [to his student teachers]. That's been my experience. It's really a box to check." Shannon remarked that she actually changes the lesson observation form and the mid-term and evaluation forms when she evaluates, because she does not like parts of the observation form and feels that other parts of the mid-term and evaluation forms did not highlight areas of teaching on which she thought appropriate to give feedback. As mentioned previously, Shannon felt one of her prior student teacher's behaviors and actions within and outside of his placement disqualified him from earning a degree and state teacher certification. However, the program lesson observation and evaluation forms were not specific enough to allow her to have documented evidence of this student teacher's inadequacy, so she had no formal recourse to justify the student teacher failing the practicum. Interestingly, Shannon reflected that she had had poor student teachers in the

past, but they all dropped out of the program or transferred to another degree program so the evaluation forms were never an issue until recently. Many of the interviewees found the lesson observation forms to be incongruent with practice or too constricting with not enough room for thorough, anecdotal data, which the supervisors in general believed was more important than blanket assessments (e.g. satisfactory/unsatisfactory) of perhaps arbitrary or meaningless indicators.

A third tension arose when supervisors and mentor teachers disagreed on the evaluation scores, which was not a rare occurrence; nearly all of the supervisors told at least one anecdote of disagreement with the mentor teacher over evaluation. Gracie related a particularly applicable example of this tension. During the mid-term evaluation, one of Gracie's mentor teachers wanted to give lower scores to the student teacher than what Gracie recommended; the mentor teacher thought that the student teacher should have progressed further on the competencies on the evaluation form than she felt the student teacher had. Gracie disagreed, and she reminded the mentor teacher that the student teacher was only part-time. Gracie believed the mentor teacher had forgotten that the student teacher was not in the classroom as much as other student teachers, so she had unrealistically high expectations for what the student teacher should be able to do at that point. She also deduced that the mentor teacher had misinterpreted the evaluation scores by taking them at face value, which was both due to a lack of communication, Gracie's own struggle to interpret the evaluation grades correctly, and confusing score nomenclature. The disagreements in evaluation scores led to difficult conversations and emails between the mentor teacher and herself, and, as Gracie noted, if a supervisor has a difficult conversation with the mentor teacher, he still has to go back and continue working with the mentor teacher. The difficult conversations with the mentor teacher over evaluation hindered Gracie's enactment of

the counselor / mentor role, because she wanted to maintain a good working relationship with the mentor teacher for the benefit of the student teacher.

The tensions between evaluation and supervisors' other important roles may arise from specific sources. First, supervisors seemed to treat instructional coaching and evaluating as mutually exclusive, even opposing endeavors. The supervisors did not like acting in the evaluator role because they so strongly identified as instructional coaches, felt that the evaluation forms were limited, felt that evaluating took away time and effort from their real work and had the potential to create conflict between the student teacher and supervisor and the student teacher and mentor teacher. Secondly, the supervisors did not have clear expectations for evaluating student teachers and held different beliefs about the evaluations than City University and mentor teachers. The lack of explicit training and organizational supports for evaluation may have contributed to both the lack of understanding around evaluation expectations and City University's stance on evaluation and program documents. In addition, weak training and a lack of supports may have also allowed supervisors to retain their teacher identities rather than adopt teacher education identities, which likely led to the disparate beliefs. This was especially clear when Diane, Paul, and Shannon made critical comments about the university activities of learning to teach (evaluation forms, student teachers' lessons, and lesson planning) being divorced from the "real world" of classroom teaching.

Although the supervisors reported high efficacy to carry out their roles, evaluation and the functions of it caused significant tensions in supervisors' work and in some cases reduced their effectiveness or inhibited them from enacting their instructional coaching role. In other cases, evaluation was a "hoop to jump through" or an annoyance that got in the way of what was considered by most to be the real work of supervising (i.e. instructional coaching). The

supervisors were generally confident in their ability to supervise because of their career experience, but the majority of them did not have a clear understanding of the instructional coaching expectations before they began supervising because they had not been trained and the program documents did not provide guidance in this role. The lack of training on City University's expectations combined with a lack of feedback on their instructional coaching had a short-term effect of the supervisors feeling wary about their practice and falling back on their career knowledge and experience. Over time, the lack of feedback led the supervisors to feel ignored and as if they were not important. While the supervisors expressed a clear desire for training and attention from the university, Maria, Katherine, and Erin were all reluctant to hold trainings or ask too much of the supervisors due to the low pay, part-time status, and lack of incentives to attend training (e.g. parking validation). Therefore, it appears the dearth of training and feedback tension was also related to a hesitancy on the part of administrators to require training and a lack of resources the department allocated to the training and oversight of supervisors.

6.2.3 Instructional coaching and mentoring requires time

Aside from evaluation, the interviewees noted a lack of time as the second most significant tension that affected their role efficacy. Maria believed that some supervisors take on too many student teachers, which limits their ability to enact their roles⁴³. Both Paul and Courtney mentioned that they limit the number of student teachers they take on so that they can spend

⁴³ Aside from the doctoral student supervisors who were required to supervise a preset number of student teachers per their assistantship requirements, the supervisors had the flexibility to supervise as many or as few student teachers as they wanted, and the number of student teachers they took on varied per year by program need.

enough time coaching their student teachers. They and Gracie schedule extra observations and meetings with the student teachers and mentor teachers to “go deep” in their instructional coaching and complete all of the necessary evaluations. Furthermore, the structure of the school site did not always allow the supervisors to debrief the lessons with the student teacher and mentor teacher after the lesson. Not being able to debrief the lesson immediately with the student teacher and mentor teacher inhibited supervisors’ instructional coaching, because when they had to confer later the lesson was not fresh in everyone’s memory and when they had to confer without the mentor teacher the student teacher lost valuable input. Similarly, a few of the interviewees noted little time for the formative and summative evaluations. This lack of time for honest and productive conversations around the student teachers’ mid-term and final assessments inhibited the instructional coaches’ ability to discuss the student teachers’ progress with the mentor teacher and set goals for the next term or future endeavors. To the extent that formal evaluation contributes to instructional coaching, when supervisors, mentor teachers, and student teachers had to rush through the formal evaluations, the evaluations became a “box to check off” or a duty for supervisors to complete rather than an opportunity to foster growth. Furthermore, Jeanne complained that the spring mid-term evaluation came too soon after the final fall evaluation and did not allow her student teachers enough time to reflect on their fall final evaluation feedback, work on weak areas, grow, display their growth, and have Jeanne observe that growth.

As with the instructional coach role, supervisors who also saw themselves as counselors / mentors noted the lack of time to build relationships with student teachers as inhibiting them from enacting their role. Again, both Paul and Courtney limit the number of student teachers they take on so that they can spend enough time with the student teachers, and they along with

Jeanne and Gracie meet with their student teachers outside the classroom to support and affirm them and the work they are doing. For example, it was important to Paul to “build a strong connection” with his student teachers, but their busy schedules teaching and taking courses did not leave much time for what Paul called “informal relationship building” opportunities. Furthermore, Paul was insistent that part of his work was to foster “empathic responses” to children in his student teachers and to help the student teachers trust their emotional responses, so when he had less time to spend with the student teachers, that affected his ability to counsel his student teachers and model appropriate responses to teaching.

The source of this tension is the structure of the program, which mandates the student teachers take a preset number of courses and spend so much time in the placement site each week. The structure of the placement site also impedes supervisors from spending time individually with the student teachers and mentor teachers. In addition, program policies (in compliance with state policies) mandate the number of observations and evaluations per term and when the evaluations occur. Lastly, while Paul and Courtney could limit the number of student teachers they take on per year, Gracie could not. The department policy mandated that graduate assistants supervise eight student teachers, which she felt to be too many to be able to engage in quality coaching, especially since she was taking her own courses concurrently. The program documents did not require supervisors to enact the counselor / mentor role, although both co-directors supported it, so it is not surprising that supervisors reported tensions in finding enough time to enact this role. The counselor / mentor role appears to be an extracurricular role that some interviewees (n=6) felt deserves precedence in their work, so they attempted to find time or make time to enact this role function.

6.2.4 Practitioner identity

A final tension the interviewees reported in discussing their role enactments was a tension of supervisors' identity at the university site and the PK-12 site. With Bill as the exception⁴⁴, all of the second career supervisors emphatically positioned themselves as former teachers and administrators. These supervisors noted frequent tensions stemming from their expectations for the field experience that often clashed with university expectations. Often, they described the university's expectations for student teachers and their students as out of touch with the "real world" of teaching. This tension primarily affected the supervisors who were enacting the bridge role, because they wanted to support the work of the university, but their career experience led them to believe that the work student teachers undertook was not always relevant to actual classroom teaching. As noted in section 6.2.2 of this chapter, Paul and Diane both felt the lessons their student teachers taught and the lesson plans they completed were not particularly relevant to the practice of current teachers. They explain to their student teachers the need for completing the lesson plans and the lessons but also point out the practical limitations of those activities. Jeanne highlighted a specific assignment her student teachers had to complete that she knew was not going to work in an actual classroom:

I remember getting that thing on reading. And I just cringed. Seriously. I knew it was going to be bad. I knew [the student teacher] and I knew she was going to have a problem with the kids, with what they could do and what this rubric wanted her to do. It was so boring, it wasn't even funny. She did everything she should have done [but the lesson failed].

⁴⁴ Bill clearly identified as a former teacher and administrator, but he also positioned himself as a researcher and aligned himself with science education faculty at City University.

In these cases, the supervisors were in an awkward position between supporting the work prescribed by the university, with which they disagreed, and preparing the student teachers for typical classroom activities and practices, which they felt were more appropriate. As Paul said, the supervisors tried not to “undermine” what the student teachers were learning at City University, but the interviewees did appear to be biased toward the everyday practice of the PK-12 site. This may be because Jeanne, Paul, and Diane all retired after full careers in education and continued to view themselves as practitioners aligned with the school site rather than teacher educators aligned with the university. Having a practitioner identity did not inhibit supervisors’ ability to bridge the university and PK-12 site, but supervisors appeared to do this inauthentically at times when they disagreed with the university coursework.

It is important to note that it seems unlikely that teacher education faculty at a Research I institution known for its strong school of education would assign tasks for student teachers and create forms for supervisors that were not useful for developing student teachers at the placement site.⁴⁵ Supervisors’ assessments of the utility of the university’s tasks and forms may reflect some specific biases against university assignments and evaluations and is probably linked to: a lack of knowledge about current research in teacher education generally, in the content areas specifically, an unwillingness to attempt to bridge the university and PK-12 site, and their own teacher education programs and career experiences. The bias against university tasks and forms may be due to personal experience; the supervisors may have felt that their education did not prepare them to teach or that they learned to teach by actually doing it rather than through university coursework, thus they did not value City University’s teacher education coursework. Interestingly, the graduate student supervisors did not strongly identify as PK-12 practitioners,

⁴⁵ Many of the indicators on the lesson observation form are designed to meet state teacher certification requirements.

and they did not overtly favor the placement site. This could be because they had less practitioner experience to draw from and because they were studying teacher education, which aligned them with the university and faculty and provided them with research, including theory, for understanding City University's motives for various tasks and activities.

When tensions arose between supervisors' beliefs and university activities, the supervisors worked within the tension by empathizing with and supporting the student teacher in the assignment or activity, but they also tried to talk with the student teachers about what they believed the reality of the classroom to be. The source of this tension on the surface is different beliefs among the supervisors and the university. However, it is also likely that supervisors do not understand the goals or purposes of the assignments, tasks, or activities that may be very relevant to the preparation of student teachers, because the supervisors are not familiar with current research on teacher education and may not know the university's or program's vision for teacher education or educational philosophy, especially if no one from the university has explained it to them. This tension is also likely a result of second career supervisors continuing to identify as practitioners and with the PK-12 site, thus leading them to favor practice over theory or prefer "tried and true" practice over new instructional strategies.

6.3 CONCLUSIONS

Despite encountering tensions in carrying out their roles, supervisors across the data sources reported very high efficacy, which differed from the findings in the literature (e.g. Guillaume & Rudney, 1993; McNamara, 1995; Slick, 1997; Zeichner, 2010). This may be a new development as most of the literature on supervisor efficacy is quite dated. The majority of supervisors in this

study participated in program meetings to discuss their student teachers, which appears to be central to their efficacy. Interestingly, supervisors' lack of involvement in program meetings to discuss program vision, goals, and curriculum did not decrease their efficacy. The laissez-faire relationship between supervisors and program coordinators may have also contributed to high efficacy. The program administrators trusted the supervisors and respected their experience. There was not heavy oversight, regulation, or professional development trainings, so supervisors had autonomy to individualize their own supervisory style and differentiate their supervision for each student teacher and placement site. No one was reviewing their observation or evaluation forms, so supervisors could and did downplay formal evaluations to focus on instructional coaching or inflate scores to preserve a positive, encouraging relationship with the student teacher. This absence of feedback on their work led supervisors to assume they were meeting or exceeding university expectations. Furthermore, a lack of training for the university's conception of the supervisor role allowed supervisors to rely on career experience and knowledge (where they had been successful in the past).

From the supervisors' viewpoint, the most salient tensions occurred when evaluating student teachers interfered with instructional coaching, when they did not have enough time to spend with their student teachers, and when they held different beliefs from the university. When the interviewees encountered these tensions, they appeared to downplay evaluation in favor of other roles and identify with the PK-12 site rather than the university, which is consistent with the findings in the literature (Williams et al., 2012). Supervisors were able to work within the tensions and fall back on career experience, because there was little administrative oversight and no training to help supervisors understand the university's vision for teacher education, course assignments, or to encourage supervisors' transition from teacher /

administrator identities to teacher educator identities. In fact, the second career supervisors appeared to want to pass on what they believed to be true about teaching and education rather than endorse what the university believed about teaching and education. These tensions show that the supervisors strongly viewed their roles as instructional coaches who believed the student teachers needed time and attention to develop into classroom teachers and that instructional coaching was a more effective way to foster that growth than evaluation. The supervisors believed they could and should coach from their career experience, and their frustration and, at times outright disagreement with university policies, practices, and assignments, revealed that they steadfastly clung to their practitioner knowledge.

It is interesting that, when given the hypothetical opportunity to change anything about the teacher education program, the supervisors did not focus on organizational reform or policy initiatives, but they suggested opportunities to improve practice via interactions with their colleagues and their own supervisors (i.e. program coordinators and faculty). Program meetings could help supervisors realize the psychic rewards (Lortie, 1975) of supervising via affirmation of their work by program faculty. Interactions with other supervisors would promote positive relationships with colleagues and networks with other supervisors, both of which have been shown to reduce teacher turnover and support teacher professionalization (Gamoran et al., 2005; Hofman & Dijkstra, 2010; Kraft et al., 2016; Simon & Johnson, 2015). Furthermore, the emphasis on their own professional development indicates that supervisors desire additional organizational supports and have retained a practitioner identity rather than a teacher educator identity, which is congruent with existing studies (Cuenca, 2010; Williams et al., 2012).

In contrast, I speculate that, from City University's perspective, the most salient tensions around supervisors' work occurred when supervisors held different beliefs from the university

due to a prevailing practitioner identity. (Katherine's comments support this claim.) Having supervisors who overtly or covertly disagree with university policies, practices, and assignments has the potential to undermine university and program goals (although the supervisors appeared to be conscious of avoiding this), impede student teacher growth (e.g. if supervisors are not reinforcing coursework learning at the placement site), and reinforce the binary between theory and practice. These findings concur with prior research that shows evaluation can hinder the goals of instructional coaching and mentoring (Ong'ondo & Borg, 2011), supervisors need for additional time to spend with student teachers (Gelfuso et al., 2015; Ong'ondo & Borg, 2011), and supervisors' struggles to transition from school-site-based identities to university-based identities (Bullock, 2012). However, this study contributes to the existing literature in that it reveals contrasting views between supervisors and university expectations for supervisors. A major finding from Chapter 5 was that the university expects supervisors to be instructional coaches and evaluators—the two most contentious roles according to the interview data—so it appears that the university has actually structured supervisors' work to involve tension. However, City University did not provide specific training or guidance on navigating those tensions. If we include the co-directors' expectations that supervisors enact the instructional coach, evaluator, counselor / mentor, and socializer roles, then the picture of multifaceted, complex role enactments with inherent tensions between roles embedded in the supervisor role expected by the university becomes even more clear.

7.0 RQ 3: WHAT FORMAL AND INFORMAL TRAINING OPPORTUNITIES SUPPORT UNIVERSITY SUPERVISORS' WORK?

Chapter 6 established that, while supervisors report high levels of efficacy, that efficacy is limited to functions emphasized by the supervisors themselves, not necessarily the role as conceived by the university. Thus, this chapter closely examines the formal and informal training opportunities for supervisors. What training is available for supervisors, and in what ways is it limited? Using survey, interview, and program document data, I will argue that nearly non-existent supervisor training, coupled with limited professionalization initiatives and a high degree of supervisor autonomy, resulted in supervisors not feeling knowledgeable about supervision and thus relying on their professional experience as educators to inform their work. The lack of training and professionalization may also have contributed to supervisors' failure to adopt a university-based teacher educator identity.

7.1 FORMAL AND INFORMAL ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORTS

For this study I defined formal training opportunities as training provided to all university supervisors by program administrators, university faculty, or other qualified individuals in an intentional, professional development-type setting. Formal training could be an orientation, training meetings centered on a particular skill or issue, disseminated literature or training

materials, online modules, guided problem-solving discussions, or technology training. Formal training is likely to occur between a supervisor and department faculty or a program administrator. Approximately two-thirds of supervisors (65%) responded that they engaged in formal training in the practice of supervision at City University, but only 23% responded that they engaged in formal training in the theory of supervision at City University. The formal training in the practice of supervision occurred during the large group supervisor orientation⁴⁶ and various program meetings⁴⁷. The interviewees reported that the orientation offered supervisors the opportunity to network, be apprised of new policies or procedures, learn about supervising in general terms, and meet the program coordinators, co-directors of teacher education, supervisor colleagues, and their student teachers. The interviewees also viewed program meetings favorably; they felt that the program-specific meetings were a fruitful space to: discuss student teachers' progress, give updates from the field site, calibrate thinking about and evaluation of teaching, set expectations, develop professionally, interact with and get to know other supervisors, program faculty, and the student teachers, and create a sense of belonging and importance for the supervisors. For some supervisors, program meetings also created a sense that everyone was on the same team working toward the same goal.

During her interview, Shannon engaged in a lengthy discussion about the varied history of program-specific meetings at City University that illuminated both the benefits of holding regularly scheduled program meetings and the consequences of not having them. For her, the

⁴⁶ The co-directors of teacher education offer a supervisor orientation for all current supervisors across programs at the beginning of the fall term. This orientation lasts about an hour and includes a review of the technical aspects of supervising (e.g. supervisor contracts, required number of observations) and a discussion of an actual, complex case from the prior year.

⁴⁷ Many program coordinators hold program-specific meetings for their supervisors. The frequency and activities of these meetings differ somewhat by program and they appear to vary across time, but in general they are spaces for supervisors to discuss their student teachers' progress with the program coordinator and/or faculty, learn about City University coursework so they can support the student teachers in that work at the field site work, review program documents and expectations, socialize with other supervisors and program faculty, and ask questions.

program-specific meetings were a key factor in her efficacy and had the potential to be a fertile space for deep learning, planning, and involvement in the program for supervisors. The final formal training the teacher education program offered was an optional training on Taskstream, an online repository and evaluation software program for the completion of the SDE 123 portfolio. A staff member in the department facilitated this training. Aside from these offerings, supervisors did not report large group supervisor meetings, professional development offerings to support their growth, new supervisor induction, or specific training for new supervisors. Only Lauren commented that her program coordinator held a meeting for her and another new supervisor to go over paperwork and a separate meeting to calibrate instructional coaching and evaluation practices.

Despite all survey respondents claiming to be currently engaged in learning about the theory and practice of supervision, City University did not appear to offer structured organizational supports aside from a one-hour orientation and intermittent program meetings and trainings that, at least in the year in which I conducted the study, did not appear to be happening regularly. Thus, supervisors engaged in very little purposeful, formal preparation to supervise in City University's teacher education program, and they engaged in very little purposeful professional development or formal training after they began supervising. Furthermore, although the *Handbook*, program-specific handbooks, and various other supplementary program documents were available on the teacher preparation website to support supervisors' work, only one interviewee referenced using the *Handbook* in her work, and that was because she was a first-year supervisor and needed clarification on evaluation. Even then, she noted that the *Handbook* did not give guidance to supervisors on all possible scenarios. None of the survey participants referenced the *Handbook* or any other program documents as being a source of their

knowledge, learning, or preparation. Therefore, it is likely that the vast majority of participants in this study: did not know the *Handbook* and other program documents existed, did not reference these documents when they faced tensions or problems, or did reference these documents but did not find them useful enough to report as legitimate sources of organizational support when I inquired about training. Interestingly, neither of the co-directors nor program coordinator, Maria, referenced the program documents when I asked them about supervisor preparation and supports.

Secondly, I define informal training as mentoring or coaching that occurs between supervisors individually outside of the university setting, individual supervisor consultations with a program coordinator to address specific questions or concerns, or individual learning about supervision. Informal training could be in-person, phone, or email conversations around specific questions or problems, individual research on the theory and practice of supervision, socialization into the role by experienced supervisors, or self-study of one's own practice. Informal training is likely to occur between more experienced supervisors and novice supervisors, although it can occur among equally-experienced supervisors or supervisors and program coordinators or faculty. The majority of supervisors (n=22) responded in the survey that they engaged in informal training in the practice of supervision at City University, while about half (n=15) reported engaging in informal training in theories of supervision.

Supervisors reported four sources of engagement in informal training to prepare them for their practice: other supervisors, program coordinators or faculty, other colleagues in education outside of City University, and self-learning. In the survey data, sixty percent of supervisors indicated that they learn about the theory and practice of supervision from another supervisor. The interview data was rich with descriptions and instances of supervisors relying on other

supervisors for advice and clarification on their work. Six of the ten interviewees reported relying on, learning from, and consulting with other supervisors at City University. Structurally, one program, English education, had a supervisor mentoring network that had been in place for over ten years and affected at least five English education supervisors.

As expected, the first-year supervisors both relied on other supervisors, although to different extents. Gracie already knew some of the other supervisors in her program because they had taught her during her master's program at City University. She claimed that she learned "everything" about supervising from her fellow supervisors and the program coordinator through individual meetings, emails, and phone conversations. Gracie consulted with other program coordinators on the technical aspects of supervising such as the scores she gave on lesson observations and mid-term and final observations, scheduling observations, communicating with the mentor teachers, expectations, observing, and supporting her student teachers and when individual, difficult situations arose. Caroline did not report relying on other supervisors as much, but she did have a chance encounter with another supervisor at the orientation that informed her practice as she began her first year.

The more experienced supervisors also continued to reach out to their colleagues after they surpassed the initial learning curve and tended to convene more for advice in difficult situations or to share experiences and ideas than for advice on the technical aspects such as how long to stay for an observation or when to complete a particular form. Courtney gave a general example of calling a supervisor she trusts to say: "I'm having this issue and I don't know who else to reach out to about this. I don't know if I'm handling it the right way." She communicated the importance of a supervisor network even for veteran supervisors: "You're never the expert, until maybe you are more of the expert. Even when you are the expert, you're still going to face

brand new scenarios that you would never, ever, ever expect to face.” Therefore, she felt that having others in the same position available to talk through those scenarios was invaluable. Program coordinator, Maria, and co-directors, Katherine and Erin, were aware that some of their supervisors met with each other outside of formal trainings and that some of them mentored new supervisors. Maria commented that some of her supervisors are very invested in the program and want to meet like a “cohort.” She is grateful for that from an administrator perspective. Katherine also likes that her supervisors mentor each other, because it makes her job more effective: “I don’t have time to process all these across the board cases,” and she trusts veteran supervisors to provide sound advice in her stead. In fact, Katherine has asked one of her very strong supervisors to talk with new supervisors, give examples of the technical aspects, and shadow new supervisors’ first visits. She noted that there is a career ladder in supervision, as in teaching, and it is recognizing and modeling excellence in supervising. There have been supervisors Katherine has not rehired, so she could be confident in her supervisors and in the advice they gave to other supervisors. Although the supervisors varied in their reliance on other supervisors, the ones who listed other supervisors as a source of informal support all commented that feedback from other supervisors was beneficial and supported their own work. In the absence of formal organizational supports, the informal supervisor networks likely heavily support the work of supervisors and administrators at City University.

Secondly, supervisors’ informal training was largely dependent on individual consultations and email and phone communications with their program administrators. All interview participants, especially the new supervisors, noted a heavy reliance on program administrators for clarification and guidance, and some supervisors remarked in the open-ended survey items on the supportiveness and helpfulness of the program coordinators. The survey

respondents who engaged in the theory of supervision noted that this learning occurred via individual discussions with the program coordinators. The largest group (n=18) of survey respondents reported that individual consultations with a program coordinator or faculty member were their source of current learning about the theory and practice of supervision. Approximately one-third (n=9) of supervisors reported informal support through performance evaluations or reviews of their lesson observation forms by a program coordinator or faculty member. Of those respondents, all remarked that they had received verbal feedback during discussions with program coordinators, although a few skirted the question by stating the absence of negative feedback was positive feedback. Of the four respondents who had a program administrator or faculty member review their lesson observation forms, all said it was helpful in improving their knowledge, practice, and growth as a supervisor.

The third informal support for supervisors was colleagues in education outside of City University. Although this finding is not supported by the survey data, three interviewees reported that other educational colleagues outside of the City University supervisors informally supported their work. Diane relied on her colleagues who were still practitioners for the most current information, regulations, and requirements for special education from the State Department of Education. It was important to her that she was up-to-date on what was happening at the state level so that she was not passing along incorrect or outdated information to her student teachers, especially since there are legal issues involved in special education that are not applicable to other content areas and because policy and legislation around special education can and do change at the state level frequently. The other two supervisors who rely on colleagues outside of education, Courtney and Paul, tended to describe this source of support less in terms of knowing new policy, regulations, and legislation but rather in terms of consulting

with trusted and experienced former colleagues. Like support from City University supervisors, outside-of-City-University colleagues offered guidance on difficult situations and “professional conversations” with those studying the field.

Lastly, supervisors relied on self-learning as part of their informal training and ongoing professional development. Supervisors conducted research through Internet searches (n=15), educational websites, podcasts, or other online resources as sources of learning (n=13), and the library (n=5). Sixty-eight percent researched ideas 0-5 times per semester on average, and 18% researched ideas 6-10 times per semester. Presumably here again, the more experienced supervisors would have to research ideas to support their work less often as they gained experience and confidence. There is scant evidence in the interview data that supervisors engaged in self-learning to support their growth. Instead, the interviewees reported seeking advice from other supervisors and program coordinators and falling back on their instincts and beliefs stemming from their career experience when they encountered tensions. The amount of self-learning that occurred among the supervisors appeared to vary to a large extent, and there is some measurement uncertainty in this analysis regarding the extent of self-learning among the supervisors.

7.2 LIMITATIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORTS

Within the organizational supports that do exist at City University, there are important limitations including: a lack of time that leads to a cursory review of problems supervisors face, infrequent program meetings centered on student teacher progress that do not give space for supervisor professionalization, the reliance on potentially uninformed colleagues, non-credible

Internet or educational resources, or non-university personal as sources of advice for supervisory problems. Supervisors agreed that university-run trainings were beneficial, but the trainings did not occur regularly, or they were not an appropriate format to provide meaningful learning and professional development opportunities. First, the supervisor orientation occurred once a year and lasted approximately one hour. Given this time limitation, the co-directors would likely be unable to provide any new in-depth professional development since they also had to cover housekeeping items such as introductions, contracts, and general updates from the previous year.

At the orientation, the supervisors reviewed a real-life case from the prior year and discussed steps and strategies for addressing the situation at the orientation, but, again, there was not enough time to closely analyze the context of the situation, frame the problem in light of the teacher education program's vision, or deliberate the effects of suggested steps and strategies. Furthermore, the group only examined one case, which could certainly be helpful but would not be representative of all problems supervisors may face. Katherine explained that the goals of this activity were to get supervisors talking to one another and to help them think about how to approach problems when they arose. These are noteworthy goals, but they are not comprehensive in orienting the supervisors, especially newer supervisors, to the teacher education program at City University or preparing them for the semester or year's work. Furthermore, as Katherine explained, the case study activity did not result in a prescriptive process for how to approach problems when they arose; rather it only elicited individual supervisors' and group responses. As I note in the introduction to this section, this approach also did not preempt and prepare supervisors for common problems they will face. Although any professional development session or series could not prepare supervisors for every problem they may face given the complexity and multiple role embodiments of supervising, the survey and

interview data confirmed that supervisors do face similar problems across programs that could be the focus of professional development trainings.

The program-specific meetings appear to be better suited for in-depth professional development than the supervisor orientation, but they were not occurring regularly at the time of the study. Erin noted that program-specific meetings should happen at least once per semester according to departmental policy, and two of the program handbooks specify that supervisors meet to discuss student teachers' progress, although they stop short of describing the frequency of these meetings. Meeting to discuss student teachers' progress could be beneficial to supervisors, especially those who embody the manager of the practicum and administrator roles or the gatekeeping sub-role, but these were, for the most part, secondary or tertiary roles that supervisors adopted and those program meetings would not necessarily provide training in those roles so much as allow efficacy for supervisors in those roles to enact them. With the exception of the calibration exercise in the mathematics education program, none of the supervisors reported training on the modal role embodiments (e.g. instructional coach, evaluator, counselor / mentor, or manager of the practicum) or functions of the model roles during their program-specific meetings (e.g. observation, evaluation, coaching). Lastly, despite Shannon's plea for more program-specific meetings, she did admit that her part-time status affected how she had participated in past meetings. Shannon explained that previous department administrators and faculty⁴⁸ had intimidated her in program meetings and made her feel that her opinion was irrelevant or "stupid." Therefore, she had not been confident sharing her ideas and generally kept to herself during those meetings. Her confidence and participation in program meetings has

⁴⁸Shannon noted that these individuals were no longer employed by City University.

changed with new administrators and faculty. Another veteran supervisor, Courtney, had a similar experience interacting with City University faculty as a “low-ranking...pion:”

I’ve talked to people about the pecking order in higher ed, too. Where there are times when people really need you and then they’re really, very friendly. And, there are times when you feel as though someone would walk past you in the hallway and literally not say, “Hello.”

Unfortunately, there is some evidence from the interview data that City University faculty themselves can hinder supervisors’ efficacy by making them feel devalued or as outsiders in group gatherings⁴⁹. While these examples highlight the limitations of having the program-specific meetings, there are also limitations to having the program-specific meetings inconsistently; supervisors felt ignored or like outsiders, not part of the university work, and they were unable to ask questions or give feedback as they believed they were expected to do. For some of the interviewees, it seemed as though they would prefer to not have program-specific meetings at all rather than have the promise of program meetings but not actually have them. That made them feel devalued or as if the program only needed a “warm body” to complete their tasks.

In lieu of university-led trainings, the supervisors depended on other supervisors, colleagues outside of City University, and independent research to address and solve problems they faced. The obvious limitation to these informal supports is that the information gleaned via those sources may not have followed City University’s policies or procedures, may not have aligned with City University’s vision for teacher education, or may have been poor advice from non-credible sources or even well-meaning credible sources. Furthermore, in order to reach out

⁴⁹ However, there was unanimous agreement across data sources that the program coordinators were helpful and available.

to another supervisor, one must know other supervisors, which could be a challenge for new supervisors. Caroline, for example, had recently moved to the city where City University is located from another state, had not attended or taught at City University prior to supervising, did not know any supervisors or faculty at City University, and the only chance she had to meet other supervisors was at the supervisor orientation since her program did not have a fall meeting.⁵⁰

7.2.1 Program coordinators as informal supports

To what extent were relationships and interactions with program coordinators a meaningful source of informal support for supervisors? Supervisors in both the survey and interviews reported relying on program coordinators for informal support through individual meetings, emails, and phone conversations, and these interactions were the only university-sanctioned informal supports available to supervisors. While they certainly would provide correct information and appropriate guidance, the supervisors overall did not contact program coordinators that frequently, and a few interviewees noted they did not want to bother the program coordinators because they knew they were busy. Indeed, the co-directors also noted limited time to spend with individual supervisors. Interestingly, though, the survey respondents pointed to program coordinators as both the *primary* source of their learning about the theory of supervision and the sources of their *current* informal learning about the theory and practice. Since supervisors contacted program coordinators infrequently and program coordinators reported having limited time to spend with individual supervisors, I question how much teaching

⁵⁰ Caroline only supervised in the fall.

and learning was actually occurring between the program coordinators and supervisors. Certainly, learning about the theory and practice of anything would take a significant amount of time that program coordinators do not appear to have unless the program coordinators referred supervisors to online or other resources and materials. None of the interviewees reported this type of in-depth, content learning from program coordinators, though. It appears that the survey participants' claims of learning from program coordinators may be due to social desirability bias. Furthermore, although the majority of survey respondents reported they had not had a performance evaluation or a review of their lesson observation forms, some did. Of those who did, all pointed to the program coordinators as the source of those reviews, which appeared to be informal, verbal confirmations that supervisors were meeting or exceeding expectations. The interview participants did not report a substantive performance evaluation or review of their lesson observation forms, and the program coordinators did not report conducting such assessments. Furthermore, a review of the program documents did not uncover a supervisor performance evaluation document or rubric. Therefore, again, I question how much informal learning or growth was actually occurring through administrators' review of supervisors' observation and evaluation forms. It appears, rather, that the program coordinators contributed to supervisors' effectiveness by answering questions about policy and practice and providing guidance when challenging situations arose.

7.2.2 Summary

In summary, of the formal or informal organizational supports that existed at the time of the study that I uncovered, only informal supervisor networks provided space to address the specific needs and concerns of new (or newer) supervisors. Many of the interviewees reported other

supervisors were a critical or even primary source of support when they first began, but the absence of large group and small group meetings prevented new supervisors from meeting and networking with experienced or veteran supervisors on whom they might rely when they have questions. New supervisors did not receive formal induction on the mission, vision, educational philosophy, policies, procedures, technical aspects, and general work of supervision, aside from the supervisor orientation and optional Taskstream training. Furthermore, they may have been unaware of program documents that provide some clarification around these issues, although those are not comprehensive. Program coordinators were a source of support, but the supervisors did not appear to contact them frequently and expressed a reluctance to reach out to the busy administrators with questions or issues that they perceived may be bothersome to the administrators.

7.3 THE ROLE OF PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

In lieu of organizational training supports and clear expectations for their work, the interview data indicate that supervisors resorted to their professional experiences to develop and understand their role(s) and carry out their role functions. Because they had not received university-run induction into or preparation for their roles, Caroline, Shannon, Paul, Diane, Jeanne, Bill, and Gracie relied on their best judgement, what they had done as teachers and administrators, and what they had seen others do in their schools to complete their required observations and evaluations. The lack of feedback or evaluation of supervisors' work led to an overall sense of unease among the interviewees as to how well they were doing as supervisors. To address this wariness, supervisors relied on their instincts and beliefs from their professional

experiences, in which they were confident because they had all been successful practitioners. For example, Caroline admitted, “The best way to sum up my experience as a supervisor was I had no idea *how* I was doing” [my italics]. Speaking of her SDE 123 comments, she said:

Most of the time, I just said, ‘I guess [the student teacher] passed’...Without any feedback on how critical to be, I was kind of winging it. I mean, I have my own experiences and my own values to base it on, but is it enough? Is it too much?

Career experience was the central foundation on which supervisors built their supervisory practice. The survey showed that the majority of supervisors did not view their role differently over time, which indicates that supervisors came to their work with supervisory roles based on their experiences and beliefs as practitioners and did not reprise those roles as they gained experience. All interviewees had experience teaching in PK-12 settings except for Gracie who had taught young children at a school in her home country⁵¹. Nine out of the ten supervisors I interviewed identified their own teaching career as preparation for the supervision⁵² of student teachers. The supervisors reported that simply being a classroom teacher helped them understand the work student teachers do, the classroom environment, and the position student teachers are in. As a teacher, Gracie learned approaches teachers use for instruction, how they interact with kids, teaching strategies, and the language they use to talk with children that she was then able to share with her student teachers. Caroline reported that supervision was a “natural extension” of her teaching career and the transition from classroom teaching to supervising was “very natural.” She reflected:

⁵¹ The organization of grades in her home country is different than that in U. S. schools, but she taught children 3-6 years of age, which Gracie said was roughly the equivalent to kindergarten.

⁵² The supervisor who did not speak about her teaching career as preparing her to supervise spoke about how her administrative career as prepared her to supervise.

Most of [supervising] had to do with teaching methods, and delivery, and obviously lesson planning [which she was familiar with from teaching]...I felt totally natural observing their voice, their demeanor, their delivery style, their presentation skills, their articulation, their volume, their clarity.

Maria agreed that having 15 years of teaching experience helped make a “pretty decent transition” from teaching to supervising and included supervision of student teachers as part of the “full educational career,” which aligns with Caroline’s comment about supervision being an extension of teaching rather than a separate professional endeavor. Lauren added that having been a teacher helped her relate to her student teachers when they spoke about dealing with student behaviors or a failed lesson.

Aside from general teaching experience, some supervisors had experience mentoring new teachers and serving as mentor teachers to student teachers. The supervisors reported that this experience was similar to supervising student teachers, and they felt that it prepared them to do so. Shannon was a mentor teacher to many student teachers, and she, Courtney, and Jeanne mentored new teachers in their schools, which they mentioned when I asked them about their preparation to supervise. Furthermore, supervisors cited professional development they received or administered as practitioners as being impactful on their current supervisory practices. Courtney had explicit training in coaching teachers and later led professional development sessions for teachers at her school. Maria’s school district was centered on collegial coaching, and the teachers at her school went through professional development training on teacher leadership, organizational leadership, critical thinking, and going beyond classroom teaching to seeing the career holistically as an educator, which she credited as impacting her supervision.

In addition to teaching experience, some supervisors also highlighted their administrative experience as being influential in preparing them to supervise student teachers. Diane, Bill, and Paul oversaw, evaluated, and mentored teachers in their respective educational sites. Diane felt there were natural similarities between her administrative work and her work as a supervisor: “They sort of overlap. Supervision of student teachers is like supervision of my own teachers” when she was an administrator. Diane pointed out that she wanted to be friendly with her teachers but also knew that she would be evaluating them, so early on in her career she learned to build trust with her teachers and supported them when they needed it but was also firm and truthful when she needed to be. Diane carried this skill over to supervising student teachers where the same tension exists for other supervisors (as reported in the previous chapter), and she emphasized the importance of the student teacher trusting her supervisor. Diane did not feel that there were any major differences in supervising student teachers and in-service teachers: “It’s an extension of what I’ve done on a smaller scale.” In fact, when she began supervising at City University, Diane “did what [she] always did” when she was an administrator observing teachers.

Paul, who supervised 15-20 early childhood classrooms prior to becoming a supervisor, worked with student teachers at the early childhood centers he ran and saw how they struggled and what supports they needed. He also supervised the classroom teachers, spoke with the teachers about what was going on in the classrooms, and visited their sites as often as he could. Furthermore, Paul’s own supervisor mentored him in best practices for overseeing teachers, observing, instructional coaching, and conferencing. During the time he worked for this particular mentor, Paul got “on the job training” and developed his own supervisory style under the guidance of his mentor. Like Diane, when Paul began to supervise student teachers for City

University, he followed the same protocol he used when he was an early childcare center administrator.

Lastly, Bill engaged in years of cutting-edge, grant-funded research in science education as an administrator in his district. As part of that work, he was immersed in the most current research on science education, led professional development sessions for teachers, and even partnered with science education faculty at City University to support classroom teachers. He worked with in-service teachers in his district and gave feedback to the district's instructional coaches on ways of improving their instructional coaching and observation skills. Bill used the concerns-based adoption model for one of the district's research projects to show the grant funders how their teachers had grown through the study. Later, when he became a supervisor at City University, Bill implemented that same model to measure his student teachers' growth and adjust his feedback accordingly.

Not only did the supervisors believe that their teaching and administrative experience prepared them to supervise student teachers, three felt that it should be a prerequisite to supervising or it helped them get hired. Paul believed that his administrative experience mentoring, coaching, and supervising in-service and student teachers, in some way, qualified him to supervise student teachers at the university level. Caroline also believed she had been hired due to her teaching background and professional success. She stated that all supervisors mentor from first-hand experience and hoped that all supervisors have experience teaching at the level at which they are supervising. Maria somewhat confirmed that teaching experience was necessary for the job when she said, "We [program coordinators] have to be respectful and appreciative of their experience."

All the supervisors I interviewed pointed to various aspects of their teaching or administrative practice that they felt prepared them to supervise student teachers. Most of this preparation had to do with the daily activities of teaching, working with new teachers, and observing, and evaluating in-service teachers. Bill's engagement in research on science education was a unique experience among the supervisors, and he was the only second career supervisor who aligned himself with the university.

A few supervisors, unprompted, did admit that teaching or administrative experience alone did not prepare them to supervise. Lauren, who taught for five years, commented that she did not have experience mentoring teachers, so that was something she had to learn as a supervisor. In addition, being a teacher did not prepare her to support the student teachers' growth into teachers. Maria concurred broadly, "I don't think that just teaching prepares you for supervision all the time, because sometimes I think you could be a really good teacher, but that doesn't mean you're ready to supervise twenty-two-year-olds." Furthermore, Paul, speaking of early childhood center administrators, asserted: "They're the people who have risen through the ranks, get to be directors, and no one's taught them how to supervise employees." He added that in early childhood centers, the drive to management positions is likely more of a financial appeal than anything else, since teachers in the field are woefully underpaid. In addition, Katherine acknowledged the problem of career experience from a co-director perspective. She highlighted the importance of systematic observation and deep instructional coaching that includes very specific, objective, and data-based feedback. She does not think supervisors at City University know how to do that because they never learned to as teachers.

For schools of education, while it is clear that teaching and administrative experience are valuable preparation for pre-service teacher supervision, there is an apparent paradox in relying

on veteran teachers as supervisors. The program benefits from university supervisors who have years of experience, because they know the programs, the administrators, and faculty, are confident in their work, and have become skilled at what they do. At the same time, though, each year they supervise is another year that they have been out of the classroom. A supervisor who has been supervising for City University for ten years (and this is the largest group of supervisors) is at least ten years removed from the classroom and the daily experience of the teacher and student teacher. Administrators are even further distanced from actual classroom teaching. Katherine pointed out that even though administrators do have experience observing and instructional coaching, they are likely to have done it in a more evaluative way than in a way that is growth-minded, which is what is required for the student teachers. Furthermore, while Bill felt prepared to supervise in science education due to his involvement in research and grants and as a teacher and administrator, he also felt other supervisors in his program were not. They did not have a sense or vision of how to support the student teachers. Bill partnered with a program coordinator in science education to develop training for supervisors and commented on that experience: “We quickly learned that just because you are successful at being a practitioner in the classroom doesn’t necessarily translate to being a successful [instructional] coach.”

7.4 EFFECTS OF THE LACK OF SUPPORTS ON IDENTITY AND ROLE DEVELOPMENT

The sustained absence of organizational supports for supervisor professionalization over time resulted in several adverse effects on supervisor identity and role development. First, it allowed supervisors to continue acting in the practitioner role identity that they adopted from their career

experience and fail to transition to a teacher educator role. The survey showed that the majority of supervisors did not report a change over time in the way they viewed their role, and over half of the supervisors had been at City University for five years or more. Thus, supervisors came to their work viewing themselves as practitioners and, for the most part, continued to view themselves as practitioners. The supervisors retained their identities as veteran teachers who were coaching newer teachers by sharing what they had learned through their careers rather than reinforcing at the placement site what City University was teaching the student teachers in their coursework. In fact, some supervisors were unaware of the content student teachers learned in their coursework and did not think it was their job to support the student teacher in incorporating that knowledge at the placement site.

In addition, because they had not completed degrees in teacher education, the supervisors did not know much about teacher education, supervising student teachers, or deep instructional coaching. The survey respondents indicated current research on teacher education and supervision as the top two choices for training topics, which supports the finding that supervisors are not overly knowledgeable about the supervision of student teachers. Furthermore, although their title was formally “university supervisor,” the participants in this study did not identify with the university; they remain aligned with the PK-12 site and saw their contribution to the endeavor of teacher education as offering expertise there⁵³. Ritter (2007) and Williams (2014) also noted a tendency for supervisors to revert back to teacher practices when they supervise student teachers. Supervisors’ alignment with the PK-12 site was evidenced by the questions they asked, the problems they described, and the kinds of training they wanted; the study

⁵³ This may also be an effect of supervisors not being physically present on campus. The majority of them did not have offices on campus or opportunities to interact with program faculty, coordinators, other supervisors, or student teachers in person. Physical isolation from the university in addition to a low-status ranking at the university led some supervisors to feel like outsiders there.

participants broadly faced problems and wanted training around the practitioner aspects of their work. No one mentioned difficulty implementing supervision theory into practice, finding or implementing an appropriate model of supervision⁵⁴, or enacting the supervisor role that they had adopted from the university in either the survey or interviews.

The embeddedness of the practitioner positionality can be seen via supervisors' engagement at the university. Jeanne, Courtney, and Shannon had all taught courses in the teacher education program at City University in various capacities, Gracie had been a teaching assistant in a course, and Bill had worked with City University faculty on research grants for years prior to supervising, so many of the supervisors also had content knowledge of the programs in which they were supervising. Although these supervisors were somewhat involved in the activities at City University in addition to supervising, most still credited their career experience and not their teaching experience at City University as preparing them to supervise, and they still fell back on that career experience when supervising. It does not appear that being involved at the university in a capacity other than supervising contributed to a university-aligned supervisor identity⁵⁵.

Finally, it is likely that the failure of City University supervisors to develop a distinct supervisor identity led to some of the disparate beliefs between supervisors and City University and the tensions detailed in Chapter 6. Because they did not know City University's vision for teacher education or their program's vision or educational philosophy, what their roles should be, or how they should enact those roles, supervisors resorted to their career experience, knowledge, and beliefs, which at times appeared to differ from the vision of City University and cause

⁵⁴ Bill is the one exception here.

⁵⁵ Lauren is the one exception to this. She credited her research experience at City University as preparing her to supervise. However, she also only had five years of teaching experience and was a doctoral student who aspired to work in teacher education, so she likely had a different orientation to supervising than the second career supervisors.

tensions. Furthermore, the supervisors did not report attempts to resolve those conflicting beliefs with program administrators or other supervisors and program administrators did not report attempts to resolve the conflicting beliefs with supervisors, so it may be that both parties have accepted the tensions that stem from supervisors' practitioner identities. Williams (2014) found that engaging in specific reflection around identity resulted in former teachers shifting their perspectives to be more aligned with the university rather than the school site. Other scholars noted that supervisors have to be intentional about not imposing their own career beliefs or solutions when their student teachers encounter problems (Bullock, 2012; Cuenca, 2010).

Secondly, the lack of organizational support for supervisors over time meant that the tensions supervisors encountered in enacting their roles remained, and the supervisors had to develop ways of mediating those tensions. The modal tension was evaluation interacting with the instructional coaching and counselor / mentor roles. Again, the teacher education program did not offer training on City University's beliefs about or goals for the evaluation of student teachers or on specific evaluation functions, so the supervisors: did not know how to complete the evaluation forms, did not know how to align their evaluations with the university's expectations of student teacher evaluations, some disagreed with the evaluation forms in one respect or another, did not know why the university was asking student teachers to complete particular activities and assignments, or had different expectations for the field site. Many of the tensions detailed in the previous chapter arose due to supervisors' lack of preparation for and understanding of the evaluation functions expected of them by the university. To mediate these tensions, the second career interviewees, especially, fell back on their career experience and downplayed the evaluations by inflating scores to encourage the student teacher or going through

superficially to “check off” a duty in order to get to the real work of supervising (i.e. instructional coaching or counseling / mentoring).

7.5 CONCLUSION

The data sources agreed that there were not significant formal and informal opportunities to support supervisors’ work at City University at the time of the study. Formal training consisted of a supervisor orientation, program meetings, and Taskstream training. Informal training included meetings and consultations with colleagues and administrators within and outside of City University and some self-learning. The lack of formal training for supervisors at City University is consistent with the findings from a decades-long body of scholarship that supervisors are not prepared for their work (Dangel & Tanguay, 2014; Danielowich & McCarthy, 2013; Gelfuso et al., 2015; Goldhammer, 1969; Mudavanhu, 2015; O’Reilly & Renzaglia, 1994; Stone, 1984, 2003). Stone (1984, 2003) suggested the lack of training was because of an assumption that supervising was not difficult; this does not appear to be the case as City University supervisors pointed to multiple, complex roles and significant tensions in their work. While there may not be much content learning occurring informally, supervisors do benefit from engagement in supervisor networks, which is consistent with some studies of supervisors (e.g. Fayne, 2007) and the literature on teacher retention and professionalism (Boyle, Lamprianou & Boyle, 2005; Gamoran et al., 2005; Hofman & Dijkstra 2010; Johnson & Birkeland, 2003; Kraft et al., 2016; Lieberman, 2000; Simon & Johnson, 2015). However, the formal and informal training opportunities have significant limitations that downplay supervisor learning and have contributed to supervisors’ reliance on career and experiential knowledge and

prevented supervisors' adoption of a teacher educator identity. Supervisors also appeared to connect training opportunities with appreciation so that the less training supervisors received, the more ignored and overlooked they felt. Unfortunately, the co-directors' reluctance to impose upon the poorly paid and part-time supervisors resulted in less formal training opportunities for the supervisors, who, for the most part, wanted to be more involved in teacher education at the university. Finally, neither the administrators nor the supervisors reported attempts to: induct supervisors into a new, university-based role identity, prepare them for expected roles, or train them in the specific functions of those roles. Without this support, the supervisors did not know the expectations of their work or what the new identity of university supervisor was, so they relied on what they had done as teachers or administrators. Their high efficacy and confidence in their work likely stems from supervisors' comfort in relying on their career knowledge and experiences and applying that knowledge to do the work of supervising student teachers.

8.0 RQ 4: WHAT TRAINING OPPORTUNITIES, ORGANIZATIONAL REFORMS, OR POLICY INITIATIVES DO UNIVERSITY SUPERVISORS OF STUDENT TEACHERS BELIEVE WOULD IMPROVE THEIR EFFECTIVENESS?

The final research question builds on the previous three research questions by asking supervisors to consider what organizational supports and reforms would increase their effectiveness as supervisors given their stated roles, role functions, tensions, and preparedness to supervise student teachers. Generally, the supervisors desired more university-led training and meeting opportunities to resolve issues related to their practice and program-specific issues. Supervisors across data sources had few suggestions for organizational reforms or policy initiatives to support their work. This may be due to the finding that supervisors have high efficacy in their work and do not feel that they need organizational reforms or policy initiatives to improve their effectiveness. A secondary hypothesis is that many of the supervisors were classroom teachers who had not been administrators and perhaps were not accustomed to thinking about organizational reforms or policy initiatives, so when asked about ways of improving their effectiveness, they fell back on problems of practice. In this chapter, I review supervisors' responses to the fourth research question drawing from integrated interview and survey data.

8.1 WHAT TRAINING OPPORTUNITIES DO SUPERVISORS FEEL WOULD IMPROVE THEIR EFFECTIVENESS?

Although the survey results showed that supervisors for the most part felt confident in their practice and the previous chapter detailed formal and informal training available for supervisors, the study participants highlighted an overall lack of training and tensions in the evaluator role as sites for improving their effectiveness. Shannon remembered when she began supervising she did not know what she was supposed to be looking for, not looking for, or what mattered did not matter to City University. Caroline added:

I think that our role should be to get [the student teachers] to a certain place. And maybe we all need to agree on what that place is, which, again, is part of the training or lack thereof. There's a certain leap of faith here that the university is expecting that I'm going to know where that is, and I really don't. I mean, I have my own experiences and my own values to base it on, but is it enough? Is it too much?

Gracie felt she was learning to supervise as she went along rather than having learned how to supervise before she began the work. Paul also noted that "People don't get very well-prepared for the day-to-day efforts of supervising." Courtney, Shannon, and Maria related that they had not had any program-specific meetings that year. Maria admitted she should have had meetings, especially because supervisors in her program were asking for them, "It's one of the things I feel like I'm not doing well as a program coordinator, because I should have them in at least twice a term...I haven't done that yet in the fall." Maria, Katherine, and Erin shed some light on the difficulties of providing training to the supervisors. Maria noted that she has about 30 supervisors, and it can be difficult to get that many people together for meetings. She, Katherine, and Erin also spoke about not asking too much of the supervisors because they are part-time

employees with low salaries. Erin commented that the co-directors and program coordinators have attempted to hold trainings in the past, but some participants did not like driving to the city where City University is located, which still appears to be the case for some supervisors. (Bill and Diane mentioned this as a barrier to supervisor training.) The program administrators agreed that a lack of time impeded them from addressing supervisors' training needs, and that they would need additional support and resources to provide in-depth supervisor training and professional development.

To make up for the current lack of training that appeared widespread in the teacher education programs at City University⁵⁶ at the time of the study, both survey respondents and interview participants called for university-led training including large-group supervisor professional developments and program-specific meetings, feedback on their work, and interactions with other supervisors. Supervisors' opinions varied on what the topics of the large-group supervisor professional development and program-specific meetings should be, but the suggestions generally centered around practical elements of supervising and problems supervisors faced.

8.1.1 University-led training

Across the survey and interviews, supervisors listed various large-group, program-specific meetings, and a first-year supervisor orientation as trainings to improve their effectiveness.

⁵⁶ The mathematics education program appeared to be the exception. The program coordinator held a meeting for new supervisors and prepared them for their first formal observations. In addition, she held a meeting for the student teachers, supervisors, and faculty to calibrate their observation and assessments of classroom teaching.

Although the majority of supervisors I interviewed called for large-group supervisor meetings⁵⁷ and trainings, there was not overall agreement about what the focus of these gatherings should be. The survey finding was similar; eighteen supervisors responded that they wanted more training, and eight did not. The respondents who did want more training did not show strong consensus on the topics of training they thought would improve their practice. The two largest groups wanted to learn about current research on supervising student teachers and current research on teacher education. When asked about which trainings would most improve their effectiveness as supervisors, half (n=13) selected evaluating students and a little over a third (n=9) selected observing and conferencing with students and collaborating with the mentor teacher and program coordinator. Interestingly, though, the supervisors did not frequently select the functions of evaluation (evaluating lessons, mid-term and final evaluations, and Taskstream) as aspects of supervision they would like to know more about. For the most part, the supervisors listed the instructional coaching and evaluation aspects of their work for the trainings and managing the practicum functions for the meetings.

Although two supervisors, Bill and Diane, disliked traveling to the city where City University is, the majority of interviewees supported the idea of large-group professional development trainings. This finding was also similar for the survey respondents. When asked if supervisors would attend workshops for supervisors, 18 said they would, eight responded maybe, and none said they would not. Bill insisted that the large-group supervisor training must be viable. “No one wants to go to a meeting in which that information could be disseminated through an email.” Instead, he suggested using innovative technology, namely online training,

⁵⁷ I distinguish here between meetings and trainings. Meetings are gatherings where administrators provide information to supervisors on established policy and practice. Trainings are gatherings where supervisors engage in professional development work to improve aspects of their practice or their knowledge of supervision.

for professional development to replace in-person meetings. He proposed uploading a video of instruction or conferencing and using a protocol to provide feedback. If the technology were available, Bill believed supervisors could remotely watch a video of a live classroom and discuss and interact with each other in real-time.

The companion suggestion to large-group supervisor meetings and trainings was program-specific meetings and trainings. The majority of supervisors (n=18) reported that they had participated in program meetings to discuss their student teachers, and five indicated they had not been invited but would attend if invited. Despite almost two-thirds reporting participating in program meetings, the majority of supervisors desired more program-specific meetings and trainings. As in the survey data, the interview data revealed variation in participants' suggestions for the topics of those meetings and trainings and some overlapped with the suggested topics of the large-group meetings. The supervisors' suggestions for trainings were notably less focused on professional development than the large-group trainings and focused on functions of the instructional coach, evaluator, bridge, and administrator roles. These suggestions were also situated in practice. Supervisors appeared to believe the large-group gatherings were more appropriate for traditional professional development-type activities and that supervising across programs was similar enough that these activities would apply to all supervisors. In contrast, they felt the program-specific meetings were the time to clarify program policies and practice, improve program policy, practice, and documents, discuss student teacher progress, and socialize professionally.

The final suggestion for university-led training was a specific orientation for first-year supervisors. Both first-year supervisors felt that they would have benefitted from such an event and spoke at length about their struggles in the first year and what would have helped them.

More experienced supervisors (Paul, Shannon, Jeanne) remembered feeling unsure of themselves and their practice when they were new supervisors. Since the large-group supervisor orientation would not be the best space to answer basic policy and practice questions that first-year supervisors have, the supervisors suggested trainings and meetings specifically for first-year supervisors. Here again, there was a plethora of ideas for topics of the new supervisor orientation that included: technical aspects like how to conduct an observation, how to complete the evaluation documents, how critical to be in the evaluations, a clear explanation of roles and expectations and practical tips like what to wear, scheduling observations, mileage, and email⁵⁸. Jeanne remarked that there needs to be someone at City University who is really concerned with making sure supervisors know what to do and to whom the supervisors can go when problems arise, “And there’s always a problem.” Furthermore, Jeanne advocated for a supervisor-specific handbook that would explain roles and expectations and a staff directory that clarified whom to contact with specific problems⁵⁹. Gracie agreed that the *Handbook* was not helpful in clarifying the differences between the roles of the supervisor and mentor teacher, especially when it came to determining grades on the mid-term and final evaluations.

8.1.2 Feedback on their work

This study found that supervisors generally do not receive feedback on their work (e.g. Conderman et al., 2001). Most of the supervisor interviewees wrestled with the lack of feedback

⁵⁸ Jeanne told a humorous story about discovering she had an email account after supervising for six years: “I had thousands of emails I didn’t know I had!” She had to have the technology staff delete all her emails so she could start over with an empty account.

⁵⁹ To be fair, there is a clinical supervision handbook available that lays out general expectations for supervisors, and some programs have a program-specific handbook that does the same thing. However, I did not uncover a supervisor-specific handbook in this research.

on their evaluations and observations and felt that feedback was important both in giving them a sense of how well they were doing and for validating their work and making them feel like they were an important part of the program. All of the interviewees who lamented the lack of feedback had expectations that a program coordinator would review their work at some point. The survey data agreed with the interview data here. Of the 17 survey respondents who had not had a performance evaluation, 13 responded that they would like one. Furthermore, half of supervisors (n=11) who had not received attention on their work reported wanting a program coordinator or faculty member to review and discuss their lesson observation forms. The supervisors I interviewed highlighted a lack of feedback on their evaluation forms as a primary area on which they would like support. It is notable that the interviewees' desire for feedback was centered on evaluation tasks more so than other roles and role functions, perhaps because they were confident in these roles and functions due to career experience, whereas they may have been less familiar with the evaluation tasks since the majority were not PK-12 administrators and they were unsure of City University's standards for evaluating student teachers. In order to achieve psychic rewards (Lortie, 1975) of their work, supervisors may have wanted confirmation on their successful completion of the evaluation forms since those would have been much easier to measure and assess as an output of supervisor effectiveness than the impact supervisors had on improving the quality of the student teacher. It is also likely that supervisors understood the importance of fair and accurate evaluation of student teachers on their degree completion and certification and wanted to ensure they were in accordance with that task.

8.1.3 Interactions with other supervisors

The supervisors unanimously reported that interactions with other supervisors were positive for both new and experienced supervisors across data sources. As I discuss in the previous chapter, the supervisors listed other supervisors as a primary source of their informal training. Despite these interactions, or possibly because of positive interactions with other supervisors, the interviewees requested even more engagement with their fellow supervisors. This finding supports evidence from teacher retention and professionalization that has found a network of colleagues is beneficial in these endeavors (Boyle et al., 2005; Gamoran et al., 2005; Hofman & Dijkstra 2010; Lieberman, 2000).

Courtney, who viewed herself as a supervisor-leader and mentored other supervisors in her program, was a strong proponent of more supervisor-to-supervisor engagement, because she felt those interactions moved the program forward as a whole and trickled down to help student teachers:

I really wish we had had those opportunities, because I do think that it broadens and deepens the experiences not only of the pre-service teachers but also us as supervisors. Because we are in one specific site, and our site is not necessarily going to be like someone else's site. And I think there's real merit in knowing what others are doing and how it applies to the bigger group of teachers.

She would like to see large-group gatherings of supervisors multiple times each semester. Shannon agreed. She remembered that the principal she worked for before she retired advocated for opportunities for “teachers to talk to other teachers about teaching.” Shannon extended this principle to supervising. The English education program had a strong history of mentorship and collegiality that began with Shannon's mentor and had affected at least four other supervisors in

that program since. An effect of the supervisor interactions for Shannon has been improved practice, increased knowledge of supervision and teacher education, feeling part of a team, confidence to share ideas in program-specific meetings, revised program documents, and development of personal friendships. Paul and Lauren viewed interactions with supervisors as a valuable comparative exercise. Paul wanted to interact with supervisors more so he could learn from their knowledge and experience but also to measure his evaluations against those in his programs. Lauren was careful to make the distinction that she did not necessarily need more interaction with supervisors to do her job well (possibly due to the guidance from her program coordinator), but that interacting with supervisors to make sure they are evaluating consistently would give her more reassurance about her quality of work and the congruence of supervisor evaluations across her program.

In addition to generic sharing of experiences and ideas between supervisors, the first-year interviewees also called for support from veteran supervisors that would help them navigate their first year. Suggestions for support for first-year supervisors included: role playing a lesson observation and post-lesson conference, having a veteran supervisor speak at the new supervisor orientation to share practical tips and strategies, and appointing a veteran supervisor whose job it was to mentor new supervisors. Gracie also noted that she had already begun to think of tips and suggestions to pass on to any new supervisors that might enter her program so they would not have to learn on their feet as Gracie did.

8.2 WHAT ORGANIZATIONAL REFORMS DO SUPERVISORS FEEL WOULD IMPROVE THEIR EFFECTIVENESS?

Neither the survey respondents nor interview participants offered many suggestions regarding organizational reforms to improve their effectiveness. As reported in Chapter 6, when asked about organizational aspects at the PK-12 or university site that impeded their efficacy, the largest group (n=8) indicated a lack of time to spend with the student teachers due to the structure of the field site and the university program, which indicates that one suggestion for organizational reform is to structure and schedule the observations so that supervisors have more time to observe and confer with student teachers. Although this was a common finding among the interview participants, none of them proffered organizational reforms to address it.

Another theme for organizational reform was related to the field placements and structure. One survey participant preferred to have the student teachers do two placements in different school levels and geographic areas. Diane and Paul also suggested having the student teachers in special education for the full day and early childhood placements for the full year, respectively. Furthermore, Jeanne saw a mismatch between White, middle-class, suburban student teachers (the majority demographic of student teachers at City University) and their placements in the urban public schools near City University. Speaking of White, suburban student teachers coming into city schools thinking they can “save the world,” Jeanne commented: “They have an unrealistic view of what they can do.” She argued that more attention needs to be placed on selecting mentor teachers and matching student teachers and mentor teachers. Rather than simply “trying to fill a slot,” Jeanne believed there could be improvements in ensuring the student teacher and mentor teacher were compatible. She gave the example of the Maple Street School, a laboratory school for City University, as a model to

follow. Maple Street School interviews student teachers who want to be placed at the school and selects those who they feel would be the best fit for their mentor teachers. Bill agreed with Jeanne that, for the most part, there was a cultural and lived experience mismatch between student teachers at City University and the students in the city's public schools. Paul also included supervisors in the mix here. He wondered if there might be a better attempt at fitting student teachers' learning styles with supervisors' approaches.

Finally, Bill and Lauren advocated for placing student teachers more strategically in districts that share the same vision of teaching and learning as the teacher education program at City University. Lauren observed noticeable gains in the progress of her student teachers who were at schools that shared her program's vision over her student teacher who was at a school that did not. Katherine illuminated some of the challenges of placing student teachers at schools. She explained that the majority of school districts will not allow City University to hand-select the mentor teachers; instead, City University requests a certain number of spots for student teachers in the district, and then the administrators in those districts decide which mentor teachers will take on the student teachers. Although the supervisors called for improved methods for selecting and pairing mentor teachers, it appears that the teacher education program does not have much leverage to improve this process.

Finally, Bill commented on the lack of strategic vision in the teacher education program and suggested a departmental reform of developing a strategic 5 or 10-year plan. For him, part of that strategic plan would include developing a common vision of teaching and evaluation, building an organizational culture to develop and support the strategic plan, and establishing an organizational culture of supervision for supervisors across all content areas and programs. It was critical to him that this be led by the department so that it was sustainable if and when key

leaders left the university. Secondly, several supervisors, including program coordinator Maria, would like a City University faculty or staff member to oversee the supervisors, much like the director of supervisors position that used to exist before the budget cuts. They imagined this person would provide large-group trainings, answer supervisors' questions about practice and policy across programs and content areas, develop a supervisor handbook, support new supervisors and provide guidance when problems arose.

The lack of suggestions for organizational reforms could be due to the fact that seven of the ten interviewees were classroom teachers and had never been administrators who are more generally tasked with thinking about their schools or educational sites as organizations and who likely have experience in implementing organizational reforms. In fact, the majority of the recommendations for organizational reforms came from the three participants who had been administrators. Another factor could be that four supervisors had three or less years of supervisory experience, so those individuals may not have developed enough of a sense of City University's departmental and program structures to feel comfortable making suggestions for reforming them.

8.3 WHAT POLICY INITIATIVES DO UNIVERSITY SUPERVISORS OF STUDENT TEACHERS BELIEVE WOULD IMPROVE THEIR EFFECTIVENESS?

Like organizational reforms, the study participants did not offer many suggestions for policy initiatives to improve their effectiveness. When asked about policy aspects of the PK-12 or university site that impeded their efficacy, the largest group of survey respondents (n=6) marked none. The second largest group (n=5) chose a limited role at the university, but there was not

strong agreement on this or any of the other options. Evidence from survey question 66 shows that respondents strongly wanted to be more involved in their respective programs. Twenty supervisors indicated that they would like to teach classes, attend meetings, workshops, and trainings, train other supervisors, be involved in program development, and/or be more involved in the field experience. The interview participants also wanted policy initiatives to support consistent large-group and program-specific supervisor meetings and trainings. Since I present those findings in Chapter 7, I do not repeat them again here. However, it is important to note that two of the program handbooks (English education and science education) specifically stated that supervisors and faculty meet on a regular basis to discuss student teacher progress and Erin mentioned that each program is supposed to meet with faculty and supervisors once a term, so there may be policies in place already regarding program-specific meetings. I did not uncover any policies about large-group supervisor meetings in the program documents.

Aside from developing policy for supervisor training (or implementing it if it already exists), the survey respondents desired policies that would integrate them more into the teacher education programs and allow them to share their knowledge and experiences with student teachers, which could make up for supervisors' general sentiment that they did not have enough time to spend with their student teachers. This finding did not appear in the interview data except when interviewees broadly spoke about participating more in program-specific meetings. However, the supervisors did highlight problems with the evaluation forms, and, although they did not specifically say they wanted to be the ones to revise the forms, the interviewees did feel they would be better able to evaluate student teachers using improved forms. Shannon gave an account of a student teacher whom she had supervised the previous year. The structure of the evaluation forms and the lack of clarity around what constituted different scores prevented

Shannon (and her program coordinator) from failing the student teacher. Not only was this frustrating to Shannon who saw her role as a gatekeeper to the profession, she also recognized it was unfair to the student: “He was a victim as much as anything as far as imperfect evaluation [and] assessment methods.” The policy implication is to not be bound by the documents when deciding whether a student teacher meets the program standards for certification.

Gracie had a similar problem with the scores on the evaluation form her program uses. She explained:

[The] grading criteria is really weird in a way. Unsatisfactory is like they failed. No one really gets that. Needs to Learn is they barely finished anything on their own. Learning is they probably did everything with help from the mentor. [Independent means they mastered that competency.]

Gracie further explained that this grading criteria confuses the mentor teachers, because they want to give the student teachers the Needs to Learn score, because the student teachers do still need to learn the competencies. She lamented, “Of course they need to learn [because they are student teachers]. But if you mark Need to Learn, they fail.” The mentor teachers are also reluctant to give Independent scores for the same reason. However, in Gracie’s program the student teacher must earn many Independent scores to receive an Honors grade for the practicum. The grade confusion resulted in Gracie spending unnecessary amounts of time manipulating grades on the lesson observation forms and formal evaluation forms, changing grades, having clarifying conversations with the mentor teachers, and the mentor teacher having to change grades. Gracie and Shannon pointed out that commonsense policies regarding grading criteria can significantly improve their effectiveness as supervisors.

8.4 CONCLUSION

Supervisors across data sources reported wanting more training and felt that large-group supervisor meeting and trainings as well as program-specific meetings and trainings would be the most beneficial initiatives to improve their effectiveness. The supervisors also reported a strong desire for a program coordinator or faculty to conduct performance evaluations and review their evaluation documents so they could receive feedback on their work and thus improve in their practice. The organizational reform and policy initiative survey data were similar to the interview data in that the supervisors largely reported high efficacy to do their work and did not have copious suggestions for reforms or initiatives outside of more time to spend with the student teacher and more opportunities for involvement at the university site, including more trainings and meetings. Unlike the interview data that highlighted supervisors' criticisms of student teacher placements, only one of the survey participants mentioned student teacher placements as a suggestion for organizational reform.

The lack of suggestions for organizational reforms and policy initiatives could stem from a few sources. First, two-thirds of participants had not been administrators in PK-12 schools and may not be used to thinking about schools and programs as organizations or have experience implementing organizational reforms and policy initiatives. Prior chapters have established my argument that supervisors did not adopt a university-based supervisor identity, especially second career supervisors, thus they may have been thinking about their work in terms of practical problems rather than organizational or policy issues. In addition, one-quarter of participants were only in their first or second year of supervising and may not have known the program well enough to feel comfortable making suggestions for organizational reform and policies. Lastly, supervisors reported high efficacy and confidence in their work as supervisors, so despite the

tensions they faced supervisors may not have felt the need for organizational reforms or policy initiatives. As former practitioners, they may be used to working within imperfect organizations and content to do their best within educational systems. Supervisors' autonomy and lack of administrative oversight allowed them freedom to enact or not enact various roles and to completed required duties somewhat superficially when they did not embody a particular role (e.g. evaluation), so it is possible that high autonomy also reduced supervisors' beliefs in needed organizational reforms or policy initiatives.

9.0 CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

9.1 INTRODUCTION

The role of supervisor is multifaceted and complex; supervisors are expected to be instructional coaches and evaluators but also mentors and supports when student teachers become overwhelmed, discouraged, or encounter other forms of stress. The supervisors, for the most part, exceeded university expectations for their work in terms of role embodiment and most adopted additional roles beyond the instructional coach and evaluator roles prescribed for them by the program documents. However, by requiring supervisors to enact what they viewed to be mutually opposing roles—instructional coach and evaluator—the university positioned supervisors in a contentious space and then did not offer organizational supports for supervisors to navigate those tensions. Without training to support their growth, the supervisors did not develop professional, university-based identities and turned toward their career-based knowledge to enact their work and when tensions arose. Commitment to a practitioner identity limited supervisors' interest in seeking organizational reforms and policy initiatives to resolve persistent problems of practice and role tensions. Conceptually, supervisors seem to exist in a liminal space, and indefinitely so without organizational supports that might foster new identity development. However, the lack of organizational supports did not lead directly to low efficacy or job dissatisfaction, because supervisors' relative autonomy allowed them to approach and

structure their work how they saw fit, which they were confident doing due to their career experience and practitioner identity. In this chapter, I first present the conclusions of the study, expand to the implications of the study, and end with the limitations of the study and suggestions for future research.

9.2 CONCLUSIONS

Two roles and the functions associated with them—instructional coaching and evaluating student teachers—were essential and required for university supervisors at City University. Supervisors reported high efficacy to enact those roles despite limited preparation for and feedback on their work. In fact, a common theme among participants was that supervising was a “natural extension” of teaching. Even Lauren, a doctoral student with only five years of teaching experience and a second year supervisor, struggled to find anything difficult about supervising. Supervising was not thought to be hard, and the supervisors, at least from their own perspective, met university expectations for their role enactments. However, the co-directors assigned additional roles to the supervisors’ work—counselor / mentor and socializer—, which approximately half of the supervisors adopted. Likewise, the supervisors all reported having to act in additional roles aside from the two the university prescribed for them for their work to be effective. And, despite their high efficacy in carrying out basic functions, the supervisors still encountered tensions in embodying their roles. Gracie said, “I feel like there’s a sort of conflict in a way [due to the multiple roles].” She told me she spent hours combing over her student teachers’ evaluations, consulting the evaluation rubric, deciding on grades, and then changing grades multiple times. Her desire to be a “friend” to her student teachers led her to manipulate

her student teachers' grades so that they would feel they were improving and thus be encouraged in their field experience. As the study unfolded, a picture of the supervisor role as being complex and multidimensional emerged. This study found eight distinct, yet overlapping, roles that supervisors embody. This role complexity aligns with the literature reported in section 2.2 that positioned supervisor's role as ranging from "supporter/confidante" (Fayne, 2007, p. 63) to "quality assurance" (Ong'ondo & Borg, 2011, p. 510) for the teaching profession. Evaluating student teachers was highly central to their work, but it caused the most tensions both in number and significance for supervisors. Nearly all of the supervisors related problems that they had had over time with evaluation from disliking the forms to disagreeing with the mentor teachers. Evaluating student teachers and the precedence it took in the practicum denied supervisors the ability to enact their preferred roles, robbed them of valuable time with their student teachers, and caused dissensions with the mentor teachers. Indeed, supervisors may have been willing to complete the functions of evaluation but stopped short of embodying the role, because they felt other roles were more central to their work. Paul was the most rebellious in avoiding the evaluator role. He explained his dislike for evaluating student teachers' lessons. He tells them: "I'll come and watch your lesson, as far as I'm concerned that's not that big of a deal." Jeanne told me that she did not really care about the observation form; she would use whatever form her program adopted, which signified that she was going to give whatever feedback she felt was important irrespective of what the lesson observation form requested.

The most popular supplementary role was counselor / mentor, and a passion for mentoring appeared to be a strong motivation for second career supervisors in coming to this work. One survey participant wrote, "To mentor and guide future educators brings me great joy!" Similarly, the second career supervisors noted wanting to share their career experiences

and knowledge with new teachers and remain involved in education as they transitioned to retirement; they were more apt to adopt the socializer and service roles than graduate students. Although the literature positioned supervisors as counselor / mentors, I did not uncover any studies that examined supervisors' motivations for entering their work, although I speculate second career supervisors at other Research I institutions would have similar rationales as the supervisors in this study.

Interestingly, the lack of training and regulation of their work may have been a cause for supervisors' self-perceived efficacy, because it allowed supervisors, especially second career supervisors, to continue embodying their practitioner identities in which they felt confident without challenging them to adopt university-based professional identities as teacher educators. As I noted in the prior paragraph, a common motivation for supervisors to come to this work was a desire to share their knowledge with new teachers and prepare the next generation of teachers. There was also a common belief that they would be successful in this endeavor. One participant wrote, "I had mentored new teachers for my school district, and I knew that I could do the supervision for City University."

Supervisors' high efficacy in light of their relatively scant knowledge about the theory and practice of supervision suggests that supervisors believe supervisory content knowledge is not necessary for them to be successful in their roles and role functions. Again, this is likely because supervisors positioned themselves as knowledgeable practitioners aligned with the PK-12 site rather than scholarly practitioners aligned with the university site, which is not uncommon in the literature (e.g. Cuenca, 2011). Shannon's sentiment exemplifies this point: "My job was to be the real-world exemplar. City University can take care of the research, and the theory, and the technical." Although there were isolated instances of bridging and attempts by

supervisors to connect university learning to the PK-12 site, the supervisors as a whole were focused more on resolving problems of practice at the PK-12 site and program-specific tensions than organizational reforms or policy initiatives.

Although they are employees of City University, the supervisors did not feel strongly connected to the university work of teacher education. This is interesting considering the supervisors also wanted to be more involved at the university. However, a closer examination revealed that supervisors wanted to share their career knowledge and experience with student teachers at the university rather than learn about the university's stance on teacher education and advance that agenda. This allegiance to the school site is probably a function of City University's supervisor recruitment process. Some full-time faculty members in the teacher education department supervise when needed, but the administrators in the School of Education appear to discourage this because it is more valuable for the faculty to teach and do research. Thus, City University heavily relies on graduate students and retired practitioners for the majority of the department's supervision—a practice that is occurring at other institutions (Conderman et al., 2005; Cuenca, 2012; Gelfuso et al., 2015; Tom, 1997). By intentionally recruiting second career supervisors outside of City University and then not orienting them into the university's educational philosophy and vision, the department, perhaps unintentionally, creates a disconnect between the teacher educator knowledge espoused by the university and the practitioner identities supervisors embody.

When interpreted through the liminal space and organizational support frameworks, the findings reveal that supervisors exist in a nebulous, isolated space between the university and PK-12 site, but they have not entered the “deeply reflective” liminal space that would lead to re-identification, due to the lack of threshold concepts (Land et al., 2014) in the form of

organizational supports such as: large and small group professional development sessions, opportunities for reflection on supervisor identity, learning about current and touchstone research on the theory and practice of supervision, and opportunities for second career supervisors to transition to a professional, university-based supervisor identity. At the time of the study, it appeared that the only organizational supports available to supervisors were a brief orientation, sporadic program meetings, informal supervisor mentoring, and individual communications with the program coordinators. None of these supports are likely to encourage supervisor re-identification in the liminal space, because the orientation is not a space for deep growth or reflection, the supervisors already saw themselves as practitioners and espoused practitioner-informed supervisory practices so it is unlikely that they would have encouraged each other to adopt university-based supervisor identities, and the program coordinators did not have the time to train supervisors. Existence and work in the liminal space creates the potential for supervisors to transition from PK-12 site-based identities to university-based identities, but the teacher education program lacked the organizational supports to foster that change.

Furthermore, the related literature on PK-12 teachers shows that administrative support is a necessary organizational component in increasing retention and professionalization (e.g. Ingersoll, 2003; Kraft & Papay, 2014). The participants in this study reported that their program coordinators were responsive when they reached out with questions. Furthermore, the program coordinators supported supervisors by: including supervisors' ideas in document revisions and minor policy changes, affirming supervisors' concerns about individual student teachers' progress, and, to a lesser extent, giving supervisors individual, informal feedback on their work that led supervisors to believe they were performing their duties well. These supports help

explain supervisors' high efficacy in light of their poor preparation and lack of content knowledge about supervising.

A foundational position in the literature on organizational supports was that, in the absence of career ladders, teachers rely on intrinsic, psychic rewards (Lortie, 1975) to motivate them. When teachers feel they are not making a positive impact on student learning or reaching students, they experience burnout or even leave the profession. This lens may help explain second career supervisors' willingness to engage in roles that were not formally prescribed by the university: the counselor / mentor and service roles. The nature of the counselor / mentor role lends itself to a close relationship where, regardless of the student teacher's actual learning and growth, the supervisor can feel that they are making a difference in a student teacher's professional life by being supportive, encouraging, and empathetic. Furthermore, second career supervisors were willing to position their work as service to the profession and accept low pay, low-status, and part-time work in exchange for work that made them feel as though they were still impacting students via the student teachers. A primary motivation for this group of supervisors in wanting to supervise was their desire to: remain involved in education as they retired from teaching or administration, mentor new teachers, and prepare the next generation of teachers; none of these are related to extrinsic employment rewards like salary, benefits, and status.

Finally, an understanding of supervisors' intrinsic work rewards also helps understand supervisors' high efficacy and confidence. Since the supervisors in this study were accomplishing the tasks they set out to do (e.g. mentor, coach) and did not have training or evaluations of their performance or observation and evaluation forms that might show they were ineffective in their roles, supervisors were allowed to or perhaps left to perceive their work as

successful. To some extent, the nature of the field placement and evaluations may set supervisors up to feel they were positively affecting the student teachers, because, presumably, the more experience one has in a classroom with students and a mentor teacher, the better teacher one becomes. The student teachers should improve over time just by observing their mentor teacher and gaining experience by teaching lessons and performing other classroom tasks. The evaluations occur over time with mid-term and final evaluations, so the evaluation process is also naturally structured to capture student teacher growth.

9.3 IMPLICATIONS

This study suggests several important implications for Research I teacher education programs. In order to support supervisors' work and reduce tensions in their role embodiments, administrators can: take stock of their own program's organizational supports and supervisor needs, create an induction program for new supervisors, allocate resources for continuing professional development for all supervisors, experiment with online platforms as a space for training, and leverage veteran supervisors' skills and experiences when developing organizational supports and training to reduce the burden on program administrators. A recommendation woven throughout these implications for organizational supports is that administrators should strive to *make supervisor roles and role functions explicit*.

First, this study highlighted the near absence of professional development-type training and job induction for supervisors. While this may not be the case at all institutions, it is a good warning for administrators to examine their own programs, think carefully about the knowledge and experiences supervisors bring to their programs, reflect on the roles and functions

supervisors are being asked to perform and the tensions they face performing those roles, and act strategically to develop organizational supports for supervisors including activities to foster university-based supervisor identities. It would be ineffectual to make a blanket statement calling for additional funding and more resources to support the preparation of supervisors. While teacher education departments may need additional financial support, funding for higher education has not recovered from pre-recession levels (Mitchell, Leachman & Masterson, 2017), so at present, administrators should not depend on increased funding to solve this problem. If it is possible to hire a director of supervisors, this study found that would be advantageous to preparing and supporting supervisors. The director of supervisors could be both a formal and informal support to supervisors by: providing new supervisor induction, offering professional development trainings, reviewing supervisors' observation and evaluation forms and providing feedback, supporting supervisors' transitions from teacher to teacher educator, developing supervisor networking, and being available to answer questions and provide guidance for supervisors when they are not comfortable reaching out to program administrators and faculty. If this is not feasible, program administrators will need to be creative and strategic about using the resources they have to better support supervisor training. Many of the recommendations offered in this chapter are relatively low cost. Secondly, it is clear that, like teachers, new supervisors have different needs than existing supervisors (Chauncey, 2005; Johnson, 2004; Kardos, 2005), so teacher education departments would do well to develop an induction program and create or bolster organizational supports specific to new university supervisors. This study suggests that a new supervisor induction should include topics on: the university's vision for teacher education and educational and supervisory philosophies, the role(s) of supervisors, the major functions of supervising, expectations (specifically of evaluation and working with the

mentor teacher), program documents, other university resources, and it should begin the reflective work essential for developing university-based supervisor identities, especially for second career supervisors. Program administrators could also put together a packet including samples of completed, program-specific evaluation forms, pertinent program documents (e.g. a supervisor teacher handbook) or a link to them if the documents are online, and a list with contact information of appropriate faculty and staff.

A new supervisor induction would help beginning supervisors in several ways. First, orienting supervisors to the university's vision for teacher education and program-specific philosophies would provide important background knowledge that could help the supervisor understand program requirements, documents, and assignments and assist the supervisor in communicating this to the mentor teacher. This knowledge would also allow supervisors to know which theoretical background(s) to draw from as they supervise to provide a streamlined approach for the practicum experience. A new supervisor induction may also help reduce tensions that occur when supervisors do not understand why the university is asking student teachers to complete particular assignments or evaluating student teachers in a particular way. It may also draw their attention to differences in the university's position on content-area educational philosophies and their own career backgrounds, thus support the reflective process to develop scholar-practitioner identities. Secondly, a new supervisor induction could describe supervisors' roles at the outset of their new career to better prepare them and to prevent supervisors from: (1) Over-extending themselves by trying to enacting numerous, unnecessary roles simultaneously, or (2) Avoiding certain roles either intentionally or unintentionally. Providing supervisors with clear expectations of their roles and role functions and exemplars of observation and evaluation forms would very likely reduce some tensions around evaluating,

clarify what the supervisors should focus on, and guide new supervisors in their first observations. Finally, a new supervisor induction would also relieve some of the burden of overseeing supervisors from the program coordinators and would likely reduce the number of questions from new supervisors, because they would have clear expectations and samples of evaluation forms to follow. Not having clear guidance and expectations was a primary source of tension for the supervisors in this study.

Veteran supervisors might assist in this induction or be an additional organizational support for new supervisors by: sharing examples of their work and suggesting general guidelines for the practical elements of supervising (e.g. how long to observe) and advice on common missteps, volunteering to mentor new supervisors, being available to them as questions or problems arise during the semester, and even reviewing observation and evaluation forms with the new supervisors or accompanying them to their first observation and feedback conference. This would allow new supervisors individual attention and coaching as they develop their own supervisory practice, informal, non-threatening feedback on their work, and access to a network of their colleagues, thus, improving practice, reducing isolation, and relieving tensions around not knowing what they are supposed to be doing or how effective they are in terms of the different roles and role functions. The supervisor mentor may be a desirable position for an exceptional veteran supervisor (i.e. a career ladder) or for a veteran supervisor who wants to retire from supervising but is still willing to be involved in the program in a limited capacity.

A third recommendation related to organizational supports and professionalization is to develop university-specific teacher educator identities to help prior classroom teachers and administrators view themselves in a supervisor-specific identity rather than a practitioner identity. Fostering such an identity has the potential to reconcile different beliefs among

supervisors and administrators that cause tensions around some of the role enactments that I discussed in Chapter 6. As supervisors develop university-based supervisor identities, they will also need training in the roles that the university expects them to embody. In addition, because it is likely that the majority of supervisors in a Research I institution have not studied teacher education at the university level and may be only moderately knowledgeable about supervision theory or practice, it would also be beneficial to spend time in professional development settings to review broadly best practices in teacher education for supervisors and to spend time developing observational, feedback / assessment, and mentoring skills. This work could be paired with small doses of supervision theory as it aligns with the vision of the teacher education program, which could help supervisors understand the beliefs, processes, assignments, and evaluations the university holds for teacher education and also reduce tensions that arise from different supervisor and university beliefs. The outcomes in doing so are to create unity among the university and supervisors' beliefs and actions and to prepare supervisors to do their work well.

One way to support supervisor training with limited resources is through online training. I suggest creating online tools and trainings to help supervisors develop their or the university's prescribed role functions. Administrators could use videos of classroom teaching and the post-lesson conference with a voice over or notes on the lessons providing both instructional feedback and evaluation. It would be helpful to have a few complete cases for supervisors to review of an isolated lesson and activities and artifacts from it (pre-conference, lesson observation, post-lesson conference with applicable artifacts). Furthermore, administrators could include tools, games, or other resources to develop instructional coaching, evaluation, and observational skills.

In addition to the online training, I suggest creating an online repository of exemplary supervisor and student teacher artifacts such as lesson observation forms, lesson plans, evaluations of lesson plans, summative and formative assessments, assessments of student teacher artifacts, and student teacher reflections. This may exist to some extent on university teacher preparation websites but may be incomplete or lacking actual examples, as was the case for City University's teacher preparation website. Having samples of supervisors' and student teachers' work to follow would also assist experienced supervisors as they evaluate student teachers' work by allowing them to learn techniques other supervisors use to provide feedback, see what other supervisors focus on that they could incorporate in their own work, calibrate their rigor and critique in evaluations, and share past exemplars with their student teachers. Furthermore, the online repository could include a specific supervisor handbook that clarifies expectations for supervisors (especially around student teacher evaluation processes, supervisor performance evaluations (if applicable), and working with the mentor teacher), an online discussion board for supervisors to post and answer questions⁶⁰, and relevant and accessible research articles on best practices for supervisors or teacher education.

Similar to the in-person training, the online training and online resource repository would likely reduce tensions around evaluation by clarifying expectations and providing examples for supervisors and student teachers to follow. There are options for relatively simple and cost-effective training resources that can address the pervasive problem identified in this study of tensions around evaluation. First, videos of teaching or supervisor conferencing with voice overs or notes could provide insight for supervisors into what they should look for when evaluating and how critical they should be in their evaluations by modeling how the program

⁶⁰ Baecher et al. (2014) noted success using this forum to support supervisors.

administrators, faculty, or a veteran supervisor give feedback. A supervisor handbook could give guidance on the evaluator role and functions by clarifying assessment responsibilities for mentor teachers and supervisors, explicitly defining program grades, framing evaluation as a tool to foster growth, thus connecting instructional coaching and evaluation, which were orthogonal in this study, being upfront about tensions surrounding evaluation and giving advice for avoiding or mediating the tensions or including real-life examples of how supervisors have addressed these tensions in the past, and informing the supervisors ahead of time if they will be observed or evaluated themselves, which could alleviate tension around being or not being evaluated. Thirdly, other programs could borrow from the mathematics education program's calibration exercise where supervisors, student teachers, and faculty watch videos of teaching and discuss how they would score student teachers, thus calibrating their evaluation standards and doing so with the student teachers present so that they have confidence in their supervisor's evaluations and assurance they are being evaluated similarly as their classmates.

In addition to resources to alleviate tensions regarding evaluation, providing tools and resources to develop supervisors' observation skills and content knowledge about theories and practice of supervision as well as current issues in supervision and teacher education would help build supervisors' knowledge about teacher education and supervision in general and could help them develop teacher educator identities. The online training site could be a course site on an online learning platform like Blackboard / Courseweb to which many universities already subscribe. Admittedly, it would take time and funding to create the site and upload the resources, but there would be little subsequent maintenance aside from uploading new videos, artifacts, and resources, and teacher education programs could reuse the site and resources for

years. Maintaining the online repository could also be a career ladder incentive for an experienced supervisor or a graduate student studying teacher education.

Similarly, I also suggest an online repository for program-specific artifacts like course syllabi and assignments that supervisors can access. Understanding what student teachers are learning in their coursework is critical for supervisors' effectiveness so they can: (1) Support student teachers' attempts to integrate new practices or ideas at the placement site; (2) Explain to mentor teachers what the university is teaching and what student teachers are expected to do; (3) Help supervisors bridge theory and practice; and (4) Assess whether the placement site or mentor teacher have similar approaches to the university and are fruitful spaces for the student teachers' development. Other program-specific areas for supervisor professional development are clarifying and articulating the program's mission and vision for teacher education and any program-specific expectations for supervisors and fostering supervisor networks. Holding consistent program-specific meetings with supervisors to discuss student teachers' progress would also allow supervisors to ask questions and share concerns with the group, learn from program faculty and other supervisors, and help supervisors feel a part of the university team.

A final implication is to utilize supervisors and their skills and experiences to develop organizational supports for supervisors and to provide trainings for them. Erin, Katherine, and Maria hesitated to ask supervisors to come to trainings or perform additional functions, because they did not want to take advantage of the supervisors. However, the study participants genuinely wanted more organizational supports and wanted to be more involved at City University. Plus, the second career supervisors for the most part saw their work as service to the profession, so they were already in a state of mind where they would feel that, by helping develop or run organizational supports, they were sharing their knowledge and experience rather

than being taken advantage of by the university. In fact, some of the supervisors spoke and wrote proudly about their accomplishments when program coordinators and faculty invited their opinions and assistance. Leveraging an overlooked ally in developing and offering organizational supports would accomplish several ends: (1) Involve supervisors more in City University work; (2) Work within the limited university budget; (3) Support supervisor growth; and (4) Reduce tensions in supervisors' role embodiments and differing beliefs between the university and the supervisors.

9.4 LIMITATIONS

This study had several limitations stemming from the case study approach, participants, and data collection. This project was a single case study of one teacher education program within a school of education that offered multiple degrees and certificates across a variety of programs. Although the results of this study cannot be generalized to every Research I teacher education program, like programs exist across the country and may face similar circumstances and challenges. On the other hand, many teacher education programs have fundamentally different structures (Pasternak, Caughlan, Hallman, Renzi, & Rush, 2017). For example, many programs are undergraduate programs, have partnerships with specific laboratory schools more closely aligned the university, have shorter practicum experiences, follow different state standards and requirements, or are alternative certification programs. Furthermore, the survey and interview participants were mostly White, female, and supervised in the early childhood and elementary education programs; thus, the views presented in the findings chapters are likely skewed toward those perspectives. This was unavoidable since the majority of supervisors at City University fit

this demographic. While I was able to gain access to all of the programs at City University, and all are represented by at least one study participant, one program did not have any program documents available on the teacher preparation website during the study for me to review, which limited the conclusions I arrived at regarding program policies and expectations.

How robust is the portrait of supervisor role functions, roles, and tensions presented here? The survey questions that sought to understand roles and role functions were forced-choice, which may have been an imperfect fit for how respondents themselves understood their roles as separate or connected. The interviews allowed for open-ended discussion of roles, but I was only able to interview ten supervisors. The survey questions that asked about tensions were mostly forced-choice but some did have a write in space. Furthermore, of the hundreds of lesson observation forms supervisors at City University completed in the 2017-2018 school year, I only examined a small sample from five supervisors. Therefore, this study may not have wholly captured supervisors' roles, role functions, and tensions enacting their roles as evidenced in the lesson observation forms.

One important conclusion regarding supervisors' role enactments and tensions is that, for the most part, supervisors reported high efficacy to act in their roles despite the tensions. However, it is likely that those who felt efficacious and positive about their work would be more willing to take the survey and volunteer for an interview. It is also possible that the supervisors who enacted the service, counselor / mentor, socializer and administrator roles may have been more likely to participate in the study for two reasons. First, the service supervisors were truly interested in helping their student teachers and may have extended that graciousness to me, a doctoral student. Secondly, the counselor / mentor and socializer supervisors may have had more relational personalities and, again, been more likely to volunteer to participate in an

interview. Thirdly, the administrator for the university supervisors may have felt obligated to report back on the program through participation in the study, or they may have believed that I had sway in bringing about change in the programs. Indeed, while participants were clearly informed this was a research study wherein the results would be completely de-identified, a few open-ended survey comments implored me to take specific actions that are far outside of my role at the university.

In addition, the findings on organizational supports are limited, because I only interviewed the co-directors of teacher education and not the program coordinators⁶¹. There were secondary content program coordinators with whom I did not meet who would certainly have valuable insights to add. It is possible that those program coordinators provided supervisor induction or other trainings that were not captured by this study. In addition, supervisors' suggestions for trainings should be taken with a grain of salt. The supervisors did not report being highly knowledgeable about the theory and practice of their work and they did not strongly recommend organizational reforms or policy initiatives, which, along with their requests for trainings around problems of practice, demonstrates that they have largely adopted a practitioner mindset and approach to supervising. The practical aspects of supervising are highly important, but supervisors already reported confidence in that work, so, in some ways, supervisors did not know what kinds of organizational supports would be best for them because they were not thinking of the teacher education program as an organization or themselves as university-based teacher educators.

⁶¹ Excluding Maria, although Katherine and Erin were also program coordinators for several programs.

9.5 SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

For decades, scholars have noted an overall lack of research on university supervisors (Davey, 2013; Goldhammer, 1969; Swennen & van der Klink, 2009) and the low-status nature of the work of supervising student teachers (Conderman et al., 2005; Slick, 1997; Zeichner, 2010). Furthermore, supervision is highly theorized, but there is not much recent scholarship on the actual work supervisors do or their roles as embodied in practice. Therefore, I recommend additional empirical work on supervisors' roles and role functions. In that same vein, research specific to supervisors' effects on student teachers may be germane to raising the status of supervisors through empirical evidence of their impact, and thus motivate researchers to examine supervisors' work. The literature on supervisors has always claimed that supervisors are a primary component of teacher education (Baecher et al., 2014; Goldhammer, 1969), but there is less empirical work to support that assertion. In addition, although there are resources available for the training of supervisors (Acheson & Gall, 2003; Rogers & Jenkins, 2010), there is not much literature available on which organizational supports are most effective in fostering supervisor professionalization and growth in different roles, which is one reason I referenced studies of PK-12 teacher professionalism in building a conceptual framework. I imagine experimental and intervention-type work could be fruitful in informing program administrators on best practices for supporting supervisors.

In keeping with current research, this study found that City University did not offer impactful organizational supports to foster supervisor growth in terms of their practice, content knowledge, or identity development. There is some current research around developing teacher educator identities for former practitioners, but that is mostly individual self-study (Bullock, 2012; Cuenca, 2010; Ritter, 2007). I suggest scholars take up further empirical, large-scale

studies to learn about best ways to encourage supervisors to work through the transition from school site to university-based identity and to investigate the potential effects of working in the liminal space on that process. In addition to examining how supervisors progress through the liminal space and develop university identities, that work could also include learning about what organizational supports best support and guide supervisors in that transition.

APPENDIX A

SUPERVISOR SURVEY

Q77

Thank you for taking this survey! Before you begin, please note the following:

This survey has five sections, and you may go back to review or change any response before you submit; The survey will not collect identifying information unless you provide it for an optional, follow up interview;

Your individual responses will not be shared with program administrators or faculty;

You must complete the entire survey to be awarded the \$25 gift card.

If you have any questions, please contact the researcher, Sarah Capello, at sac199@pitt.edu.

Q72 The first group of questions is intended to collect basic demographic information about university supervisors.

Q1 What is your gender?

- Male
- Female
- Prefer not to answer

Q2 What is your race?

- Caucasian
- Black or African-American
- Asian

- Latino/a
- Other _____
- Prefer not to answer

Q3 What is your age?

- 20-30 years
- 31-40 years
- 41-50 years
- 51-60 years
- 61-70 years
- 71-80 years
- Prefer not to answer

Q4 What was your career prior to becoming a university supervisor? Select all that apply.

- PK-12 Teacher
- PK-12 Administrator
- Full-time University Faculty
- Adjunct University Faculty
- Student
- Other (Please describe) _____

Q5 How many years have you been a university supervisor including the current year?

- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6

- 7
- 8
- 9
- 10+

Q6 Please list the name of the City University program(s) in which you supervise. Ex: English Education.

Q7 Do you supervise student teachers at any other universities?

- Yes
- No

Q8 Please list the other university(ies) and the program(s) in which you supervise student teachers.

Q9 On average, how many students do you supervise per year?

Q10 Are you a graduate student at City University?

- Yes
- No

Q11 Is supervising students part of your responsibilities as a graduate assistant or graduate fellow?

- Yes
- No

Q12 Are you a faculty member at City University?

- Yes
- No

Q13 Is supervising students part of your responsibilities as a faculty member?

Yes

No

Q14 Are you a staff member at City University?

Yes

No

Q15 Is supervising students part of your responsibilities as a staff member?

Yes

No

Q16 How did you become involved as a university supervisor at City University?

Q17 Why did you want to become a university supervisor?

Q73 The next set of questions is intended for the researcher to learn more about the ways that university supervisors think about their role.

Q19 What do you think is your role as a supervisor? Select all that apply.

- Teacher / Instructional Coach
- Counselor / Mentor
- Evaluator
- Manager of the practicum experience
- Socializer into the teaching profession
- Other (Please describe) _____

Q20 Has your view of your role as a supervisor changed over time?

Yes

No

Q21 Please explain how your view of your role as a supervisor has changed over time.

Q22 How central are the following activities to your practice as a university supervisor?

	Not Central at All	Not Central	Neutral	Somewhat Central	Very Central
Lesson planning with the student teacher	<input type="radio"/>				
Observing the student teacher	<input type="radio"/>				
Providing feedback on instruction	<input type="radio"/>				
Developing habits of reflection in the student teacher	<input type="radio"/>				
Improving the quality of instruction of the student teacher	<input type="radio"/>				

Q23 How central are the following activities to your practice as a university supervisor?

	Not Central at All	Not Central	Neutral	Somewhat Central	Very Central
Providing emotional support to the student teacher	<input type="radio"/>				
Helping the student teacher manage stress	<input type="radio"/>				
Listening to the student teacher's worries / anxieties	<input type="radio"/>				
Encouraging the student teacher when s/he is experiencing stress	<input type="radio"/>				

Q24 How central are the following activities to your practice as a university supervisor?

	Not Central at All	Not Central	Neutral	Somewhat Central	Very Central
Ensuring the student teacher has completed program paperwork and state certification requirements	<input type="radio"/>				
Communicating with faculty and mentor teacher on the student teacher's behalf	<input type="radio"/>				
Communicating with program administrators concerning student teacher's progress	<input type="radio"/>				

Q25 How central are the following activities to your practice as a university supervisor?

	Not Central at All	Not Central	Neutral	Somewhat Central	Very Central
Evaluating classroom instruction, classroom management skills, lesson planning, and other core aspects of the practicum experience	<input type="radio"/>				
Monitoring student teacher progress in the classroom	<input type="radio"/>				
Intervening when a student teacher is not making adequate progress	<input type="radio"/>				

Q26 How central are the following activities to your practice as a university supervisor?

	Not Central at All	Not Central	Neutral	Somewhat Central	Very Central
Assessing the student teacher's aptitude for teaching	<input type="radio"/>				
Identifying students who are unfit for the teaching profession and notifying program coordinators	<input type="radio"/>				
Acquainting the student with the social and political contexts of teaching	<input type="radio"/>				
Fostering professionalism in student teachers	<input type="radio"/>				
Providing professional recommendation for the student teacher during the job search	<input type="radio"/>				
Assisting the student teacher in obtaining a teaching position	<input type="radio"/>				

Q27 How do you think university supervisors fit into the larger picture of teacher education?

Q28 What are your goals for yourself as a university supervisor?

Q29 Do you participate in program or departmental meetings to discuss the progress of the students you supervise?

- Yes
- No
- I have not been invited to participate.
- This is my first year supervising.

Q30 Would you participate in a program or departmental meeting to discuss the progress of the students you supervise if you had been invited?

- Yes
- No
- Maybe (Please explain) _____

Q31 Do you participate in program or departmental meetings to discuss the program's vision, mission, goals, and / or curriculum?

- Yes
- No
- I have not been invited to participate.
- This is my first year supervising.

Q32 Would you participate in program or departmental meetings to discuss the program's vision, mission, goals, and / or curriculum if you had been invited?

- Yes
- No
- Maybe (Please explain) _____

Q33 To what extent are you able to supervise the way you feel that it should be done? Please use the text box to explain your answer if you would like.

- I am, for the most part, able to complete the tasks and responsibilities that I feel are necessary as a supervisor. _____

I am moderately able to complete some of the tasks and responsibilities that I feel are necessary as a supervisor. _____

I am usually unable to complete the tasks and responsibilities that I feel are necessary as a supervisor. _____

Q34 Are there organizational aspects of the K-12 or university site that impede you from doing your best work as a university supervisor? Select all that apply.

- K-12 school structure
- K-12 classroom structure
- Organization of the school day at the K-12 site
- Organization of the school day at the university site
- Observation and conferencing structure
- Organization of the student teaching experience
- Lack of time to spend with the pre-service teacher
- Lack of time due to number of pre-service teachers supervised
- The structure of the student teaching triad (student, mentor teacher, supervisor)
- Other (Please explain) _____

Q35 Are there policy aspects of the K-12 or university site that impede you from doing your best work as a supervisor? Select all that apply.

- Required number of observations per semester
- Required number of formal evaluations per semester
- Type or format of evaluations
- Completing state certification requirements (i.e. paperwork, Taskstream management)
- Communication policies
- Emphasis on state standards

Limited role at the K-12 site (i.e. I would like a larger role in preparing pre-service teachers at the K-12 site.)

Limited role at the university site (i.e. I would like a larger role in preparing pre-service teachers at the university site.)

Other (Please explain) _____

Q36 If you were in charge of the supervision of pre-service teachers at City University, what aspects of the work of supervisors would you change? Please include a brief rationale.

Q37 What else would you like to share about the role of university supervisors that was not included in this section of the survey?

Q74 The next set of questions are intended for the researcher to learn more about the formal training university supervisors receive.

Formal training is training provided by program administrators, university faculty, or other university staff in a professional development-type setting.

Q38 Have you received formal training in the practice of supervising pre-service teachers from City University?

Yes

No

Q39 Please describe any training you received and from whom you received it (e.g. faculty member).

Q40 Have you received formal training in the theory of supervising pre-service teachers at City University?

Yes

No

Q41 Please describe any training you received and from whom you received it (e.g. faculty member).

Q42 Has your performance as a university supervisor been evaluated by a program administrator or faculty member at City University?

Yes

No

Q43 Please describe how you were evaluated.

Q44 Was this evaluation helpful in improving your knowledge and practice of supervision?

Yes

No

Q45 Would you like an evaluation of your work as a supervisor by a program administrator or faculty member to support your growth as a supervisor?

Yes

No

Q46 Has a program administrator or faculty member at City University reviewed your lesson observation forms and discussed them with you?

Yes

No

Q47 Was this helpful in improving your knowledge and practice of supervision and / or growth as a supervisor?

Yes

No

Q48 Would you like a program administrator or faculty member to review your lesson observation forms and discuss them with you to support your growth as a supervisor?

Yes

No

Q49 On average, how many times per semester do you contact a program administrator or faculty member at City University with questions or concerns about the students you supervise or about supervision in general? If this is your first year supervising, please indicate that as well.

- 0-5
- 6-10
- 11-15
- 16 or more
- This is my first year supervising

Q75 The next set of questions is intended for the researcher to learn more about the informal learning university supervisors engage in. Informal learning occurs when the individual supervisor seeks out knowledge or guidance about supervision from program administrators, other supervisors, or other educational resources, and includes self-study of one's practice.

Q50 Have you engaged in informal learning about the practice of supervising pre-service teachers?

- Yes
- No

Q51 Please describe any informal learning you engaged in and with whom.

Q52 Have you engaged in informal learning about the theory of supervising pre-service teachers?

- Yes
- No

Q53 Please describe any informal learning you engaged in and with whom.

Q54 On average, how many times per semester do you contact another supervisor at City University with questions or concerns about the students you supervise or about supervision in general? If this is your first year supervising, please indicate that as well.

- 0-5
- 6-10
- 11-15
- 16 or more
- This is my first year supervising.

Q55 On average, how many times per semester do you research ideas (via Google, a library, education website, etc.) to address problems you face in your practice as a supervisor? If this is your first year supervising, please indicate that as well.

- 0-5
- 6-10
- 11-15
- 16 or more
- This is my first year supervising.

Q56 Generally speaking, how do you learn about the theory and practice of supervising? Select all that apply.

- Another supervisor
- Program administrator or faculty member
- Internet searches
- Educational websites, podcasts, or other online resources
- Library
- Other (Please describe) _____
- I am not currently learning about the theory or practice of supervision.

Q57 Please explain why you are not currently learning about the theory or practice of supervision. Select all that apply.

- Lack of time
- Lack of resources
- Do not know where to begin
- My current knowledge about supervision is sufficient to complete my work.
- My experience supervising pre-service teachers is sufficient to complete my work.
- My experience supervising teachers in a K-12 site is sufficient to complete my work.
- My experience teaching at the K-12 site is sufficient to complete my work.
- Other (Please explain) _____

Q58 How many supervisors do you know at City University?

Q59 Would you be willing to informally mentor new supervisors at City University?

- Yes
- No
- Maybe (Please explain) _____

Q76 The final set of questions is intended for the researcher to learn about what professional development opportunities university supervisors would like to support their growth.

Q60 How knowledgeable are you about the field of supervision? This includes current research on supervision and theories and models of supervision.

- Very knowledgeable
- Moderately knowledgeable
- Neutral
- Slightly knowledgeable
- Not knowledgeable at all

Q61 How confident are you in your practice as a supervisor?

- Very confident
- Moderately confident
- Neutral
- Slightly confident
- Not confident at all

Q62 If your program administrators or faculty offered workshops or training on different aspects of supervision during the school year, would you attend?

- Yes
- No
- Maybe (Please explain) _____

Q63 Would you like more training in the theory and/or practice of supervising pre-service teachers?

Yes

No

Q64 What aspects of supervision would you like to learn more about? Select all that apply.

Observing students

Evaluating students' lessons

Writing lesson plans with the student

Mid-term evaluations

End of semester evaluations

Conferencing

Ethical concerns

Dealing with student stress, anxiety, and/or emotion

Paperwork

Taskstream

Working with the mentor teacher

Working with program faculty

Using technology to supervise students

Your program's mission, vision, goals, and/or curriculum

Writing letters of recommendation

Being a professional reference for your students

State certification standards and licensure requirements

State content standards

Theories of supervision

- Current research on supervising pre-service teachers
- Current research on teacher education
- Other (Please list) _____
- None of the above

Q65 Would you like to be more involved in the teacher education program in which you supervise at City University?

- Yes
- No

Q66 Please describe how you might like to be involved.

Q67 Learning about which aspects of supervision would most improve your effectiveness as a supervisor?
Select all that apply.

- Observing students
- Evaluating students
- Conferencing with students
- Collaborating with the mentor teacher and / or program faculty
- Ethical concerns
- Paperwork
- Taskstream
- Supporting students' professional development
- None of the above
- Other (please describe) _____

Q68 What training opportunities would you prefer to support your growth as a supervisor? Select all that apply.

- Large group lecture with all supervisors across programs
- One-on-one conferencing with a program administrator or faculty member about your individual needs
- Periodic review of your lesson observation forms and formal evaluations with a program administrator or faculty member
- Training with other supervisors in your program facilitated by a program administrator or faculty member
- Peer-to-peer mentoring with another supervisor
- Apprenticeship-type mentoring with a more veteran supervisor
- Online training modules
- Other (Please explain) _____

Q69 What else would you like to share about professional development opportunities for university supervisors that were not included in this survey?

Q70 Would you be willing to participate in a follow up 45 minute interview with the researcher to discuss more in-depth your responses to this survey, your ideas about your role as a supervisor, and how City University can support your growth as a supervisor?

All information discussed at the interview will be kept confidential.

- Yes
- No

Q71 Please provide a good email address or phone number for the researcher to contact you to schedule an interview. This contact information will be kept confidential and not shared with anyone.

Q78 Thank you for completing this survey! Please provide an address where the researcher can mail your gift card. If you prefer to pick up the gift card in person, please email Sarah Capello at sac199@pitt.edu to schedule a meeting time.

APPENDIX B

SUPERVISOR INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this interview. There are two main points that I would like to talk with you about today: how you understand your role as a university supervisor and the training of university supervisors. Some of my questions stem from your responses to the survey you took. I have a copy of that here for you in case you would like to review your comments. The first set of questions is about the role of the supervisor.

Section I – Role of the Supervisor

1. What are your major responsibilities as a supervisor of pre-service teachers?
 - a. What do you do on a weekly, monthly basis?
 - b. If supervisor lists obvious aspects (observing, assessment, planning): Aside from these main aspects, is there anything else that you see as your responsibility as a university supervisor?
2. Given the responsibilities you just listed, broadly speaking, how would you describe your role as a supervisor?
 - a. What is your part in teacher education?
 - b. What does this look like in your practice?
 - c. What has informed your perspective on this?
3. In your survey, you marked [X activities] as being the most central to your practice. Please explain your response.
 - a. How often are you able to enact these in practice?
4. In your survey, you marked [X— include interesting, provocative, or potentially fruitful comments about the role of the supervisor]. Please explain your thoughts in more detail.

5. Using any of the lesson observation forms you brought, please walk me through a typical observation and post-lesson conference.
6. Have you noticed any tensions in your work? Please describe.
 - a. Between the role you embody and the role you are expected to play?
 - b. Between the K-12 site and the university site?
7. In your survey, you marked [X response] that you have [X level] efficacy in your work. Please explain.
In your survey, you wrote that you would change [X response] if you were in charge of the work of supervision. Please elaborate on your response.
8. Is there anything else you would like to comment on in terms of the way you understand your role? Please explain.

The second set of questions is about the training of university supervisors.

Section II – Training Preferences

9. How did you learn how to be a supervisor?
 - a. How have your prior experiences in education prepared you for or influenced your work as a supervisor?
10. In your survey response, you wrote [X—include interesting, provocative, or potentially fruitful comments about training experiences or beliefs about training]. Please explain this in more detail.
11. What do you find difficult or challenging about supervising?
 - a. What is the source of this difficulty or challenge?
12. What do you need from program administrators, faculty, and staff to do your job well?
 - a. Are there areas of your practice where you would appreciate additional guidance or support?
13. If supervisor has commented about collaborating with other supervisors to learn informally ask: In your survey response, you wrote [include comment about collaboration]. Please explain this further.
14. In your survey, you marked [X organizational aspects] as impeding your best work as a supervisor. Please explain.
 - a. How did this come about? [If unknown]
 - b. How do you work within this tension?

- c. What suggestions do you have for resolving this problem?
15. In your survey, you marked [X policy] as impeding your best work as a supervisor. Please explain.
- a. How did this come about? [If unknown]
 - b. How do you work within this tension?
 - c. What suggestions do you have for resolving this problem?
16. In your survey, you marked that learning about [X aspects of supervision] in [X training format] would best improve your effectiveness as a supervisor. Please elaborate.
17. Is there anything else you would like to comment on in terms of training needs and opportunities for university supervisors? Please explain.

APPENDIX C

CO-DIRECTOR INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this interview, which is part of my dissertation research at the University of Pittsburgh. There are two main points that I would like to talk with you about today: the role of the university supervisor and the training of university supervisors. First, I would like to ask a few descriptive questions to better understand your role as a program administrator.

Section I – Descriptive Information

1. How long have you supervised university supervisors?
2. Were you ever a university supervisor?
 - a. If yes: Tell me about your time as a university supervisor.
 - i. What program did you supervise in? Where?
 - ii. How many students did you supervise?
 - iii. What was your experience like?
3. What is it like managing the supervisors?
 - a. What are some of the challenges?
 - b. What are some of the benefits?
 - c. What do you look for when hiring supervisors?

The next set of questions is about the role of the supervisor.

Section II – Role of the Supervisor

4. What are the main responsibilities of the university supervisor?
 - a. If she was a university supervisor, ask: Do you think this is influenced by your experience as a university supervisor?

- i. If yes, how so?
- 5. How do you conceive of the role of the university supervisor writ large?
 - a. If she was a university supervisor, ask: Do you think this is influenced by your experience as a university supervisor?
 - i. If yes, how so?
- 6. How do you think university supervisors fit in to the larger picture of teacher education?
- 7. What are your goals for the university supervisors who work in your program?
- 8. Is there anything else you would like to add about the role of the university supervisor?

The final set of questions is about the formal and informal training of supervisors.

Section III – Supervisor Training (Formal)

- 9. What formal training do you provide university supervisors?
 - a. Explain what I mean by formal training.
- 10. What aspects of supervision do university supervisors struggle with most?
- 11. How have you helped university supervisors who were struggling in the past?
 - a. Tell me about a time when a supervisor was struggling.
- 12. What kinds of formal training do you think would benefit university supervisors? What topics would you choose to include in the trainings?
 - a. What would you include if you had infinite resources? Why?
- 13. Is there anything else you would like to add about the formal training of university supervisors?

Section IV – Supervisor Training (Informal)

- 14. I know that some supervisors have formed partnerships or small communities of practice to provide support to new supervisors, in difficult situations, and to further their thinking around the theory and practice of supervision. To what extent do you think this is happening at City University?
 - a. What stories have you heard?
 - b. How have these partnerships benefitted the program?

15. Do you have any suggestions for how university supervisors can learn about instructional supervision or improve their practice apart from formal training that you and [the other program coordinator] provide?
16. Is there anything else you would like to add about the informal training of university supervisors or the topic of university supervisors in general?

APPENDIX D

METHODOLOGICAL APPENDIX

Survey sampling procedure

Due to a dissertation grant from the School of Education at the University of Pittsburgh, I was able to offer a \$25 gift card to all participants who completed the survey. Tourangeau, Conrad, and Cooper (2013) reported that online surveys typically have low response rates; however, one way to increase response rates is to provide incentives for participants to take the survey (Nulty, 2008). The gift card served both as an incentive for participants to take the survey and as a gift in appreciation for supervisors' time in taking the survey. I sent the initial survey recruitment email and link to the survey on December 18, 2017 through Qualtrics. Approximately two weeks later, on January 2, 2018, I sent the first reminder email through Qualtrics to supervisors who had not taken the survey. I sent a second and final reminder email through Qualtrics to the remaining supervisors who had yet to take the survey on January 15, 2018 and noted that the survey would close on January 20, 2018. Nulty (2008) synthesized the literature on adequate response rates and found that survey methodologists suggest that response rates between 50-70% are acceptable and feasible for online surveys.

Special circumstance

After I sent the second reminder to take the survey, I received an email from a supervisor who was not sure if she should take the survey; she informed me she was also a program coordinator at City University who was supervising that year. While I had read through the names of the supervisors prior to distributing the survey, I did not recognize this particular participant's name or realize she was a program coordinator. In response to her email, I indicated that I would be especially interested in her perspective because she was faculty at the university and a program coordinator, which, of course, varied greatly from almost all of the other supervisors. I also wrote that it was solely up to her whether or not she felt that she could (or if she wanted to) participate in the study. She did take the survey.

Interview Sampling Procedure – University Supervisors

The final item on the survey asked supervisors if they were willing to participate in a follow up interview to elaborate on their survey responses. Of the 19 participants who agreed to a follow up interview, I looked for supervisors whose responses: (1) Represented a range of experiences and beliefs about the central functions of their roles; (2) Exposed tensions and causes of tensions in the liminal space of supervision; and (3) Represented a range of experiences and beliefs about training, organizational reform, or policy initiatives. In addition, I sought variation in number of years as a supervisor, program in which the participant supervises, and role prior to becoming a supervisor (e.g. university faculty, PK-12 teacher, graduate student), because I was looking for a breadth of experiences across the School of Education, and I hypothesized that these variables might be related to the supervisors' role perceptions and training preferences. Next, I looked for interesting, provocative, or meaningful responses to the open-ended survey questions that I

thought would merit further discussion in an interview format. Complicating the interview participant selection was that the majority of the 19 participants who agreed to the interview were retired PK-12 teachers (n=15) and supervised in early childhood and/or elementary education programs (n=9). Of the 19 participants who agreed to the follow up survey, nearly all provided interesting responses worthy of follow up questioning, so I determined to recruit interviewees based on the program in which they supervised, years of experience as a supervisor, and prior experience in education.

Interview protocol – Supervisors

The interview questions were semi-structured and based off a master interview protocol included in Appendix B. The master protocol had two sections (role of the supervisor and training preferences) and 17 main questions, all of which were open-ended and some of which were generated individually from the participant's survey responses and aligned to the research questions. The purpose of these follow up interviews was to ask more specific and in-depth questions about the tensions that arise in navigating the liminal spaces of the PK-12 and university sites and the tensions that arise when supervisors are unable to enact practices that they believe are central to their work. I focused on developing further understandings of the supervisors' beliefs that were briefly reported in the open-ended survey questions.

For each interview, I printed out the individual interview question sheet and brought a hard copy of the supervisor's survey for reference. I first asked for the participant's verbal consent to audio record the interview and informed them that they could end the interview at any time. All participants consented, and I audio recorded all interviews. I conducted four interviews at three different Panera restaurants, one at a local coffeeshop, three on campus in the

supervisors' offices, and one at a supervisor's home. I conducted the remaining two interviews over the phone. One supervisor was spending the winter out of state (she only supervised students in the fall semester), and the other supervisor requested a phone interview. He did not explicitly state a reason, but his survey responses and comments during the interview indicated that he disliked traveling to the university's campus due to traffic and parking challenges.

Interview sampling procedure – Co-directors of teacher education

The interview questions were semi-structured and based off a master interview protocol included in Appendix C. The master protocol had four sections (descriptive information, role of the supervisor, supervisor training (formal), and supervisor training (informal)) and 16 main questions, all of which were open-ended. For each interview, I printed out the individual interview question sheet. I first asked for the participant's verbal consent to audio record the interview and informed them that they could end the interview at any time. Both participants consented, and I audio recorded both interviews. The co-director interviews were semi-structured and occurred in the co-directors' offices. I audio recorded and transcribed both interviews. Again, I followed Rubin and Rubin's (2012) responsive interviewing method. Table 12 below provides the date, location, length, and pertinent notes of the participant interviews.

Table 12. Interview Details

Name	Date	Location	Length	Notes
Courtney	Jan. 12	Panera	1 hour, 43 minutes	
Shannon	Jan. 15	Supervisor residence	2 hours, 30 minutes	I knew previously
Jeanne	Jan. 25	Panera	1 hour, 27 minutes	
Diane	Jan. 25	Panera	46 minutes	
Caroline	Jan. 29	Phone	59 minutes	Requested a phone interview
Maria	Jan. 29	Campus office	49 minutes	Also a program coordinator
Bill	Jan. 30	Phone	1 hour 8 minutes	Requested a phone interview
Paul	Feb. 8	Local coffee shop	2 hours, 45 minutes	
Lauren	Feb. 20	Campus office	45 minutes	
Gracie	Feb. 23	Campus office	1 hour, 37 minutes	
Katherine	May 24	Campus office	36 minutes	
Erin	June 12	Campus office	42 minutes	

Special circumstance

I knew one supervisor I interviewed, Shannon, because she had informally mentored me in the past. Prior to this study, I had met with her on numerous occasions to discuss supervising and teacher education, and much of what she divulged in this interview was repetitive of conversations that she and I had had in the past. Since I had known her previously, Shannon was extremely interested in my research and expressed a strong desire to be a part of it. Because of this, I felt somewhat obligated to include her in an interview; however, she had 12 years of experience as a supervisor at the time of the study, so it is likely that I would have tried to recruit

her for an interview due to her experience and as a representative of her content area even if I had not known her prior to the study.

APPENDIX E

SURVEY RECRUITMENT SCRIPT

Dear City University Supervisor,

The purpose of this research study is to learn about how university supervisors understand and enact their role(s) and what supports they receive or need to succeed in their work. Therefore, I am surveying university supervisors across teacher education programs at City University and asking them to complete a medium length survey (35-45 minutes).

If you are willing to participate, the survey will ask questions about your background (e.g. number of years spent as a supervisor, role prior to become a supervisor), your beliefs about your role as a supervisor, and the preparation you have received or would like to receive in order to be successful in your role. There are no foreseeable risks to you, nor are there any direct benefits. All participants who complete the survey will receive a \$25 gift card.

All survey responses will be de-identified and kept confidential, and the survey will not collect personal identification information unless you provide contact information for an optional, follow up interview. Your participation is voluntary, and you may withdraw from this project at any time. This study is being conducted by Sarah Capello, a doctoral student at the University of Pittsburgh, who can be reached at sac199@pitt.edu if you have any questions.

APPENDIX F

SUPERVISOR INTERVIEW RECRUITMENT SCRIPT

Thank you for completing this survey. The researcher would like to conduct follow up interviews to collect more in-depth information on your experiences and beliefs about supervising pre-service teachers.

The purpose of this research study is to learn about how university supervisors understand and enact their role(s) and what supports they receive or need to succeed in their work. Therefore, I am conducting interviews with university supervisors across teacher education programs at City University that should last approximately 45 minutes.

If you are willing to participate in the interview, I will ask more in-depth questions about your background your beliefs about your role as a supervisor, and the preparation you have received or would like to receive in order to be successful in your role stemming from your responses to the survey. There are no foreseeable risks to you, nor are there any direct benefits.

All interview responses will be de-identified and kept confidential. Your participation is voluntary, and you may withdraw from this project at any time. This study is being conducted by Sarah Capello, a doctoral student at the University of Pittsburgh, who can be reached at sac199@pitt.edu if you have any questions.

APPENDIX G

CO-DIRECTOR INTERVIEW RECRUITMENT SCRIPT

Dear Dr. _____,

I am writing to invite you to an interview regarding your beliefs about the role of university supervisors in the teacher education program at City University.

The purpose of this research study is to learn about how university supervisors understand and enact their role(s) and what supports they receive or need to succeed in their work. Therefore, I am conducting interviews with program directors at City University that should last approximately 45 minutes.

If you are willing to participate in the interview, I will ask questions about your beliefs about the role of a supervisor and the preparation they receive to be successful in their work. There are no foreseeable risks to you, nor are there any direct benefits.

All interview responses will be de-identified and kept confidential. Your participation is voluntary, and you may withdraw from this project at any time. This study is being conducted by Sarah Capello, a doctoral student at the University of Pittsburgh, who can be reached at sac199@pitt.edu if you have any questions.

APPENDIX H

PROGRAM DOCUMENT ANALYSIS PROTOCOL

Document Analysis Protocol—Program Documents

Program:	Type of Document:	Evidence of:	Yes / No
		Role Functions	
		Role	
		Training	
		Other	
<p>Notes:</p>			

APPENDIX I

LESSON OBSERVATION FORM DOCUMENT ANALYSIS PROTOCOL

Document Analysis Protocol—Lesson Observation Form

Supervisor:		Program:	Form #:
Role(s):	Instructional Coach	Socializer	Administrator
	Counselor / Mentor	Manager	Service
	Evaluator	Bridge	
	Other:		
Role Functions:			
Notes:			

APPENDIX J

IRB APPROVAL

12/7/2017

PI Notification: IRB determination - Capello, Sarah A

PI Notification: IRB determination

IRB

Tue 12/5/2017 1:19 PM

To: Capello, Sarah A <SAC199@pitt.edu>;

The IRB is requesting your assistance in helping us improve our service to the research community. Please take a few minutes and complete the Satisfaction Survey by [clicking here](#).

Note: You can download a version of the approval letter without the survey link from the approved study workspace

Pitt Seal

University of Pittsburgh
Institutional Review Board

3500 Fifth Avenue
Pittsburgh, PA 15213
(412) 383-1480
(412) 383-1508 (fax)
<http://www.irb.pitt.edu>

Memorandum

To: Sarah Capello
From: IRB Office
Date: 12/5/2017
IRB#: [PRO17110487](#)

Subject: Examining the Role of and Professional Development Opportunities for University Supervisors of Pre-Service Teachers

The above-referenced project has been reviewed by the Institutional Review Board. Based on the information provided, this project meets all the necessary criteria for an exemption, and is hereby designated as "exempt" under section

45 CFR 46.101(b)(2)

Please note the following information:

- Investigators should consult with the IRB whenever questions arise about whether planned changes to an exempt study might alter the exempt status. Use the "**Send Comments to IRB Staff**" link displayed on study workspace to request a review to ensure it continues to meet the exempt category.
- It is important to close your study when finished by using the "**Study Completed**" link displayed on the study workspace.
- Exempt studies will be archived after 3 years unless you choose to extend the study. If your study is archived, you can continue conducting research activities as the IRB has made the determination that your project met one of the required exempt categories. The only caveat is that no changes can be made to the application. If a change is needed, you will need to submit a NEW Exempt application.

Please be advised that your research study may be audited periodically by the University of Pittsburgh Research Conduct and Compliance Office.

<https://outlook.office.com/OWA/?viewmodel=ReadMessageItem&ItemID=AAMkADkxYTIIM2ZILTMwY2MtNDAwZC05M2UxLWE2NDkwYzhkMTY0NAB...> 1/2

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