The Evolution of the Field of Teacher Education: A Literature Review

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Abstract – This paper will provide an overview of the field of teacher supervision. It will start with a brief outline of its history and development. There will be a focus on the essence of teacher supervision and how experts in the field define it. This will be followed by a brief discussion of the emergence of clinical supervision and how different authors developed different variants from Cogan and Goldhammer's original models which were developed in the 1950s at Harvard University (Garman, 1990). The discussion will then move on to the criteria that supervisors are expected to consider while working within different models of supervision. Lastly, there will be an overview of supervisory systems based on different streams.

*Keywords***:** teacher education; clinical supervision; tier-based supervisory systems

1. A BRIEF HISTORY OF TEACHER SUPERVISION

In 1875, William Payne wrote *Chapters on School Supervision*, the first published textbook on supervision (Garduño, Slater, & Gorosave, 2009), in which he called for teachers to be held accountable for what they do in classrooms. Since then, countless volumes have been published on supervision, and different authors have written about their theories and how those theories should be put into practice by articulating steps, procedures and cycles of supervision. As a field, teacher supervision developed mainly in the United States (Garduño et al., 2009). By the end of the nineteenth century, schools were transformed into central administrative bureaucracies. Superintendents were put in charge as supervisors to deal with inefficiency and corruption (Glanz, 2000). Supervision was synonymous with inspection at this time. Balliet's ideas of supervision, which he articulated in 1894, summarized this inspectional approach. According to him, the only way to reform schools was to "secure a competent superintendent; second, to let him reform all the teachers who are incompetent and can be reformed; thirdly, to bury the dead" (Balliet, cited in Glanz, 2000, p.72). This top-down system was criticized by teachers and others (Rousmaniere, 1997). Calls were made to make supervision more collegial and democratic and to minimize the evaluative function. The reaction against autocratic supervision systems occurred in the 1920s (Glanz, 2000). In 1914, Elliott wrote about the difference between the centralization of administrative power, which he said stifled creativity and individuality, and "decentralized, cooperative, expert, supervision" (cited in Pajak, 2003, p.4). Hosic's "The Democratization of Supervision" (1920) was very much a sign of the times and there was a shift in the way supervision was viewed, but not necessarily a shift in the way it was practiced. This shift was manifest in various authors' articulation of views and beliefs about supervision, which were very different from the thinking that goes behind an inspectional model. For example, Nutt (1923) wrote:

Supervision is a cooperative undertaking in which both supervisor and teacher are to be mutually helpful and jointly responsible for the work in the classroom. (cited in Glanz, 2000, p. 75)

After the move away from autocratic supervision and evaluation of teachers in the 1920s, the focus was more on instructional improvement and supervision as inspection was no longer considered viable, as can be seen from the following quote from an editorial written in 1921:

If supervision were merely scientific management, or inspection or bossing the job, then truly it would have but little in common with the art of teaching. (cited in Glanz, 2000, p. 75)

2. WHAT IS TEACHER SUPERVISION?

What exactly is teacher supervision? The quotes mentioned above talk about collegiality, decentralization, cooperation and moving from inspection to instructional improvement, but beyond that, they are rather vague. As Bailey states (2006, p. 4): "Defining *supervision* is not a simple task". Marzano, Waters and McNulty also write that despite being the most popular theme in educational leadership over the last two decades, the concept of instructional leadership is not well defined (cited in Finley, 2014, p.13). Anderson (1982) writes that the field of teacher supervision has "a variety of sometimes incompatible definitions, a very low level of popular acceptance, and many perplexing and challenging problems" (p.181). Anderson's quote is all the more surprising because he wrote this more than a century after the publication of the first textbook on teacher supervision in 1875. The fact that the field of teacher supervision has no consensus on a definition that has gained popular acceptance is perhaps a reflection on the complex nature of the role itself. It means different things in different contexts. In part, the supervisor's role is "culturally defined and conceptually located in the educational and political history of a particular region" (Bailey, 2006, p. 6). Zepeda (2013) uses the term 'instructional leadership' and sums up the difficulty of describing it as follows:

Instructional leadership is easy to see but difficult to define. The elusive nature of defining leadership is caused, in part, by the specific nature of the context of the school, the characteristics of the student body and personnel, the climate of the school, the culture and norms of the school, the communication patterns, and the values that the school holds as its own. (Zepeda, 2013, p.3)

She then states:

Effective principals engage in work that supports teachers in improving their instructional practices…what is working, what is not working, and how modifications can be made given the characteristics of students. (Zepeda, 2013, pp.10-11)

For Daresh (2001), "supervision is a process of overseeing the ability of people to meet the goals of the organization in which they work" (p. 25). Goldsberry (1988) asserts that supervision is "an organizational responsibility and function focused upon the assessment and refinement of current practices" (p. 1). According to Beach and Reinhartz (2000), supervisors' primary role is to examine and analyze teaching behaviors in order to make recommendations regarding instructional improvement. These quotes suggest that supervision should be viewed as a cooperative process undertaken by a supervisor and supervisee with the aim of instructional improvement. How much cooperation exists, or what constitutes instructional improvement and the power relations between supervisor/supervisee will depend on the context. However, it must be kept in mind that supervision is about accountability as well as improvement. As Bailey (2006) states:

> Teacher supervision is not just concerned with the creative and positive aspects of helping language teachers achieve their full potential.…Supervision also includes less rewarding and rather unpleasant responsibilities, such as providing negative feedback, ensuring that teachers adhere to program policy, and even firing employees if the need arises. (p.5)

3. CLINICAL SUPERVISION

The 1950s and 1960s saw a significant development with the emergence of clinical supervision. Morris Cogan and Robert Goldhammer, stimulated by the frustrations they encountered as university supervisors trying to help beginning teachers (Pajak, 2003), used a grounded theory approach to compartmentalize the basic events of supervisory practice, which were labeled *phases* by Cogan and *stages* by Goldhammer (Garman, 1990). According to Pajak (2003):

> Essentially, clinical supervision in education involves a teacher receiving information from a colleague who has observed the teacher's performance and who serves as both a mirror and a sounding board to enable the teacher to critically examine and possibly alter his or her own professional practice. (p. 5)

Cogan (1973) considered clinical supervision to be a way to develop teachers who were open to change and assistance and were self-directing. He described eight phases of the supervisory cycle. Goldhammer (1969) adapted the eight phases into his five stages, and this five stage sequence of clinical supervision remains the most widely known (Pajak, 2003). Goldhammer's five stages of the supervisory cycle are:

 (1) The pre-observation conference

(2) Classroom observation

(3) Data analysis and strategy

(4) Post-observation conference

(5) Post-conference analysis

Goldhammer was not the only one to build on Cogan's work on clinical supervision. Various influential authors such as Carl Glickman, Noreen Garman, Keith Acheson, Meredith Gall, Madeline Hunter, Kenneth Zeichner and John Smyth have written extensively about their interpretations of clinical supervision, and they are not always in agreement about its essence. For example, Smyth (1988) believes that Madeline Hunter's views about clinical supervision are not congruent with Goldhammer's efforts to invest control over teaching in the hands of teachers. In fact, he says that her views "[strike] at the very heart" of Goldhammer's views and are more in line with "factory-derived notions of scientific management" (p.137). While the accuracy of Smyth's dismissive remarks about Hunter's interpretations of clinical supervision can be debated, they do illustrate how great the differences can be between the views of different proponents of clinical supervision. Pajak's classification of the most popular approaches to clinical supervision into four families (2003) could help to achieve a better understanding of the different interpretations of various authors about clinical supervision, and I will review his classification briefly because from the time of its inception in the 1950s, discussion about clinical supervision in its many forms has dominated supervision literature.

According to Pajak (2003, p.8), the most popular approaches to clinical supervision can be classified into four families. These four families differ from each other in many ways, namely:

- The purposes toward which they strive
- Emphasis on objectivity versus subjectivity
- Type of data to be collected
- How to collect data
- Number of stages in the supervisory cycle
- Power relations between supervisor/supervisee
- Nature and structure of pre- and post-observation conferences

The four families into which Pajak classifies the different approaches to clinical supervision are:

3.1. The Original Clinical Models: The original models proposed by Cogan (1973) and Goldhammer (1969) emphasize the importance of collegial relations between supervisors and supervisees, the development of unique teaching styles and the cooperative discovery of meaning.

3.2. The Artistic/Humanistic Models: Proposed by Eisner (1979) and Blumberg (1980), these models emphasize personal intuition and artistry instead of relying on step by step procedures.

3.3. Technical/Didactic Models: Proposed by Acheson and Gall (1980) and Hunter (1984), these models draw heavily on findings from process-product and effective teaching research. These approaches focus on reinforcing 'effective' teaching behaviors and predetermined models of teaching to which teachers attempt to conform.

3.4. Developmental/Reflective Models: The models of Glickman (1985), Costa and Garmston (1994), Garman (1986), Smyth (1985) and Waite (1995) are sensitive to individual differences and to the social, political and cultural contexts of teaching. The importance of developing reflection among teachers and promoting justice and equity are emphasized in these models.

4. CRITERIA FOR TEACHER SUPERVISION

Within any supervision system, there are criteria (either assumed or put in writing in the form of a document such as an observation instrument or evaluation rubric) which supervisors are required to focus on and supervisees are expected to improve or demonstrate competence in. The choice of specific criteria and their interpretation will be influenced by the pedagogical belief systems of the people responsible for determining the supervision criteria. For example, regarding the correction of a student's errors when they are learning a second language, a supervisor whose pedagogical philosophy is influenced by the 'Audio-Lingual Method' would expect all student errors to be treated immediately and in public, whereas a supervisor using the 'Communicative Approach' might believe that errors should only be treated if they hinder students' efforts in communicating (Baily, 2006). Similarly, depending on the supervisors' philosophy regarding classroom management, it could be said about a class that it was noisy and misbehaved, or it could be said that it was well managed because the teacher was sensitive to individual learners' needs and did not stifle any learner's efforts to participate in class activities.

Regardless of the different ways in which supervisors might interpret or attach importance to the criteria, systematic analysis of lessons can focus on the following elements (adapted from Wragg, 2002, pp. 20-21):

Personal traits: Traits of either teachers (e.g. friendly or aloof) or learners (e.g. focused on tasks or disruptive).

Verbal interaction: What teachers and learners say to each other, teacher talk time, student talk time, choice of language register.

Non-verbal: Movement, body language, facial expressions.

Activities: The nature of students' activities.

Class management: How the teacher responds to pupil behavior, organization of individual or pair/group work, classroom setting.

Teaching skills: Questioning, explaining, arousing interest.

Teaching aids: Use of audio-visual aids, such as projectors, computers, iPads, television, whiteboard and interactive whiteboards.

Lesson delivery: Planning and preparation, pacing of the lesson, achieving the objectives and assessing student learning.

Affective: Teachers' and pupils' feelings, emotions and interpersonal relationships.

As mentioned in the last paragraph, the way that supervisors focus on these criteria will be guided by their pedagogical belief system. In addition, the needs of individual educational organizations and the students enrolled in them will also influence the choice of criteria and how supervisors focus on them. The importance attached to student talk time will be much greater in a language institute that offers eight-week spoken English courses than, for instance, in a university English for Specific Purposes (ESP) course focusing on medical terminology.

5. MULTI-TIERED SUPERVISORY SYSTEMS

A review of teacher supervision would not be complete without a discussion of supervisory systems that have different streams that address the needs of different teachers. Whereas some supervisory systems require all teachers to engage in the same supervisory practices regardless of their age, experience and level of abstraction, some supervisory systems outline different activities for teachers in different stages of their professional lives. One such system is Glickman's 'Developmental Supervision' model (Glickman, Gordon & Ross-Gordon, 2010). In Glickman's system, a supervisor has to choose from one of four approaches:

1) The directive control approach
2) The directive informational approach
3) The collaborative approach
4) The nondirective approach

The four approaches differ from each other in the nature and level of control and involvement on the part of the supervisor. In the *directive control approach*, the supervisor identifies a problem, describes it to the teacher and tells them how to address the issue. The supervisor also informs the teacher how the required action will help address the issue. He/she summarizes what is expected and tells the teacher about a follow up that would determine whether or not the expectations are met. In short, the supervisor controls everything and is responsible for providing a concrete plan to the teacher for solving the problem that necessitated supervisory intervention. This approach is not adopted to humiliate or punish a teacher, but to provide straightforward, concrete assistance to a teacher who is facing serious difficulty (Glickman et al., 2010).

The *directive informational approach* is for teachers who are not capable (cognitively) or motivated to solve complex instructional problems. However, they do have the ability to choose from concrete alternatives suggested by a supervisor. Therefore, in this approach, the supervisor suggests different alternatives to a teacher and then lets them choose whatever they feel is appropriate for their students. According to Glickman et al. (2010), "the idea of

choice is critical to the directive informational approach" (p.122). Once the teacher chooses an alternative, they will work out the specifics of an action plan and a follow up.

In the *collaborative approach*, the teacher and the supervisor work together and share ideas. The teacher is encouraged by the supervisor to present their own perceptions. There is a frank exchange of ideas. During the course of the conversation, the supervisor tries to steer the dialogue to areas where there is a possibility of agreement. In the end, the teacher and the supervisor either agree on a plan of action or end up without agreement. If this happens, the teacher and supervisor would either have to meet again to renegotiate and rethink the problem or possibly use a third party as a mediator or arbitrator.

The non-directive approach is used with teachers who are able to identify for themselves what instructional changes are required and have the ability to think and act on their own. The supervisor's role is only to keep the teacher focused on the issue at hand by providing feedback or simply aiding in extending the teachers thinking. The supervisor will not interject their own ideas in the discussion; they will only help the teacher arrive at their own conclusions.

Glickman et al. (2010) list in detail when each of these approaches should be used for particular teachers. The supervisor has to make the choice based on certain factors, which are illustrated in the diagram below:
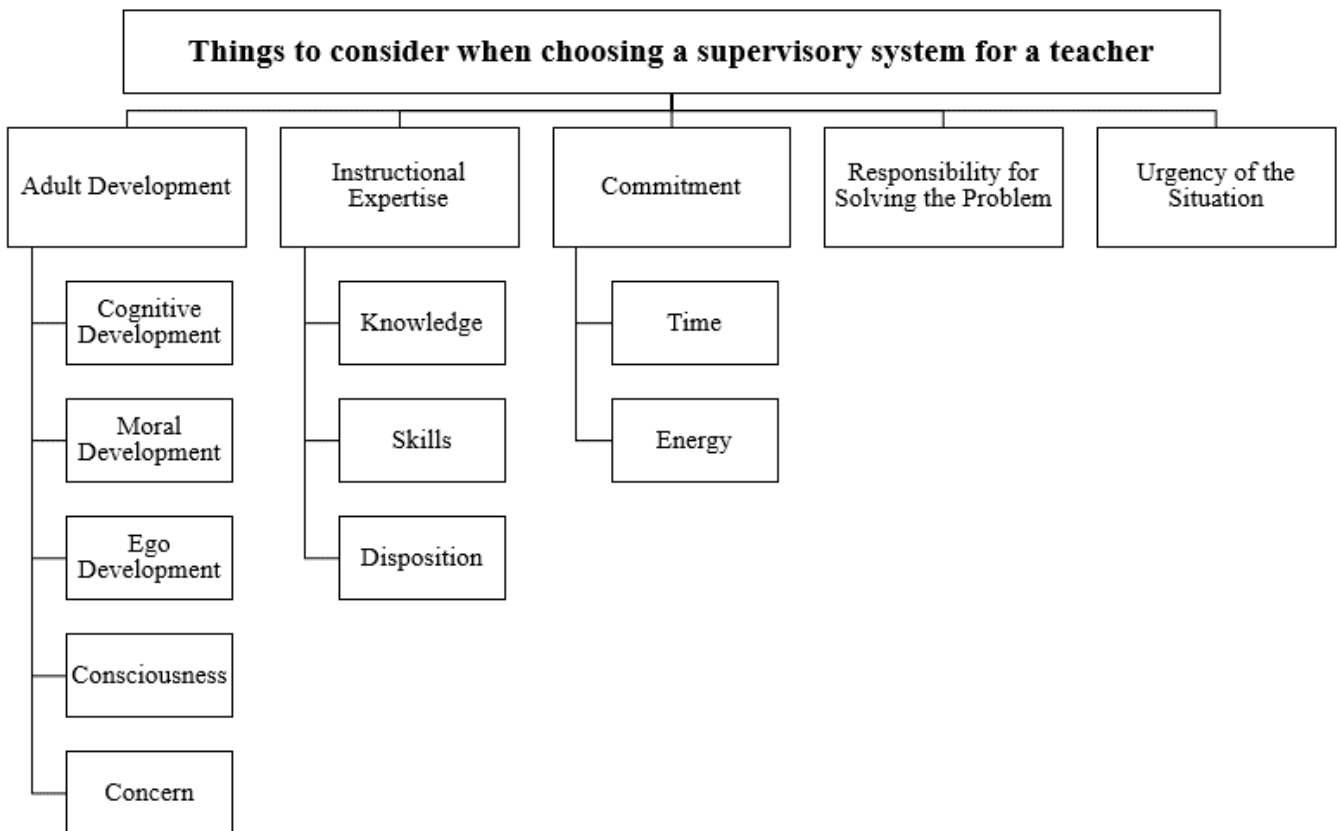

Figure 1: Things to consider when choosing a supervisory system for a teacher, according to Glickman et al., 2010

The following table gives more details on the level of each of these items which inform the choice of a particular supervisory approach:

Considerations for Selecting Supervisory Approach

	Directive Control Approach	*Directive Informational Approach*	*Collaborative Approach*	*Nondirective Approach*
Teacher's Adult Developmental Level	Very Low	Moderately Low	Moderately High or Mixed	Very High
Teacher's Level of Instructional Expertise	Very Low	Moderately Low	Moderately High	Very High
Teacher's Level of Commitment	Very Low	Moderately Low	Moderately High	Very High
Teacher's Responsibility for Solving Problem	Very Low	Moderately Low	Same as Supervisor's	Very High
Supervisor's Responsibility for Solving Problem	Very High	Moderately High	Same as Teacher's	Very Low
Urgency of Situation	Very High	Moderately High	Moderately Low	Very Low

Table 1: From Glickman et al., 2010, p.153

It is apparent that the supervisor's role is crucial in this model. According to Zepeda (2013), "the success of developmental supervision rests on the supervisor's ability to assess the conceptual level of the teacher or a group of teachers and then to apply a supervisory approach that matches this level" (p. 51). Another point which Glickman et al. themselves highlight is a caveat about the table (Table 1) in which they list the considerations for selecting a supervisory approach. These variables do not always line up the way they are given in the table. In their own words:

The decision about which supervisory approach to use is straightforward if the measures for each variable in [the Table] line up under one of the four supervisory approaches. However, individual or group levels of adult development, expertise, and commitment, as well as responsibility for solving the problem and the urgency of the situation, can vary or fluctuate, which means that choosing the best approach can become more complicated than the broad guidelines just discussed might suggest. (Glickman et al., 2010, pp.151-152)

In short, these variables as listed by Glickman et al. should act as guidelines for supervisors, who will have the actual responsibility of judging which supervisory approach to adopt for each teacher on a case by case basis.

Glatthorn's 'Differentiated Supervision' model describes different streams for development and evaluation, which are outlined in the figure below:
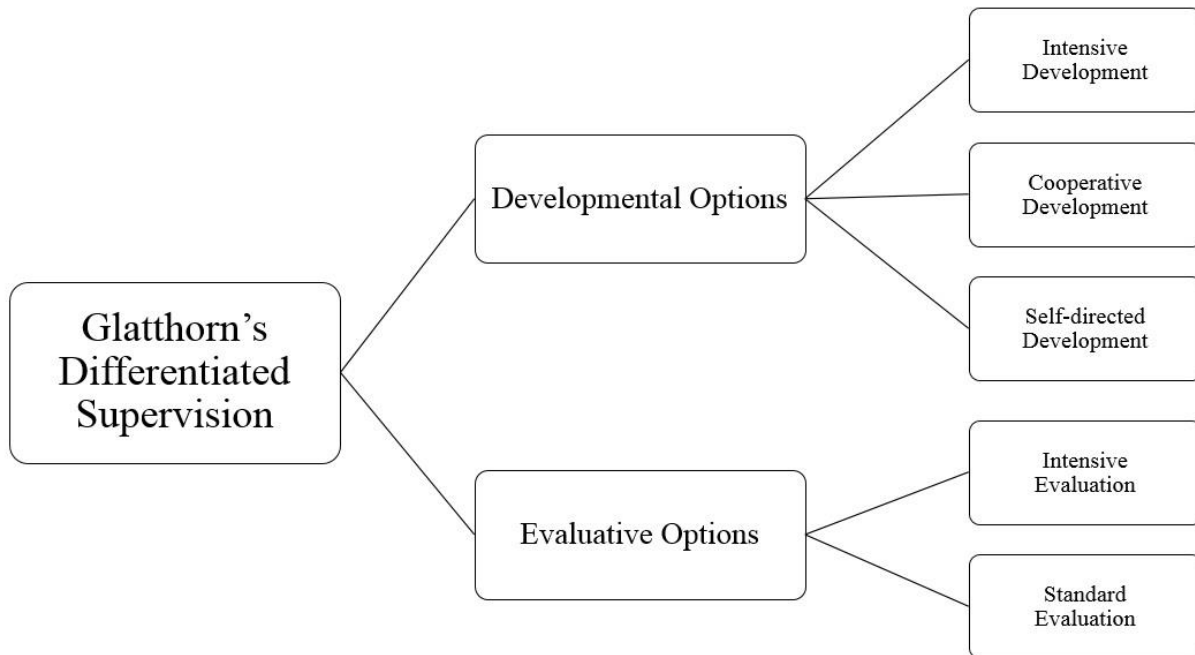

Figure 2: Streams in Glatthorn's Differentiated Supervision (1997)

This model provides *intensive development* to non-tenured teachers and to tenured teachers with serious problems (Glatthorn, 1997). The other categories of teacher have two options. Most work in teams in the *cooperative development* mode. The third option in the developmental stream is *self-directed development*, which is for experienced, competent teachers who prefer to work on their own to foster their professional development. According to Zepeda:

These teachers have the ability to direct a program of study that addresses their own personal and professional learning needs. In self-directed supervision, the teacher takes the initiative to select an area of interest or need, locate available resources for meeting goals, and develop and carry out a plan for learning and development. (2013, p. 55)

In this model, as in Glickman's Developmental Supervision, the supervisor has the crucial role of determining which option is appropriate for each teacher.

In the evaluative stream in Glatthorn's model, the supervisor will decide which of the two options will be required for each teacher: *intensive evaluation* or *standard evaluation*. The supervisor's decision will be informed by the teacher's competence level and whether or not he/she is tenured. *Intensive evaluation*, like *intensive development*, is for all non-tenured teachers and tenured teachers who appear to have serious instructional problems. They have several observations and their non-instructional functions are evaluated. This is typically carried out by a school administrator. *Standard evaluation* is conducted as a compliance mechanism to satisfy policy requirements. This option is for teachers who are known to be competent and experienced. The minimum number of observations and conferences are carried out for these teachers (Glatthorn, 1997). Glatthorn believes that his model addresses the workload problems by focusing supervisors' efforts where they are required. He states:

> Supervisors need a realistic solution to the problem of finding time for effective supervision…Differentiated supervision enables the supervisor to focus clinical efforts on those teachers needing or requesting them, rather than providing perfunctory, ritualistic visits for all teachers. (Glatthorn, 1997, p.5)

Danielson and McGreal (2000) also outline a multi-stream supervisory system. It has three tracks:

Track 1: The Beginning Teacher Program
Track 2: The Professional Development Track
Track 3: The Teacher Assistance Track

According to them, it is important to have a multi-stream supervisory system because "a teacher's career…has a distinct life cycle" (Danielson & McGreal, 2000, p.28). According to them, it takes considerable time and support to acquire skilful practice, because teaching is a complex job. However, once a teacher attains a certain level of teaching proficiency, their professional learning takes a different form. It no longer remains the same as what they experienced earlier in their career. It can become more self-directed. Similarly, there is a possibility that at times, teachers' level of proficiency can decline because of a variety of different reasons. In this case, they can benefit from higher levels of support and more intensive assistance. They further state: "This suggests that the procedures used in the evaluation process can be different for those at different stages in their careers" (Danielson & McGreal, 2000, p. 28).

6. SUMMARY

This article started with a brief history of teacher supervision. The development of the field of supervision was described, starting from the publication of the first book on supervision in 1875 to the shift in focus from faultfinding and quality assurance to more collegial models that prioritised instructional improvement. This was followed with a discussion of the emergence of clinical supervision and different authors' varying interpretations of Cogan and

Goldhammer's original models. After that was a list of criteria that supervisors are expected to work on in different models of supervision. Finally, there was an overview of multi-tiered supervisory systems that provide different streams for teachers with different needs.

It is hoped that this paper will provide those who are interested in teacher supervision with a starting point to build up their knowledge of this field.

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