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Making sense of teaching: Novice and expert supervisors

Currin, De Ann Nuernberger, Ph.D.
The University of Nebraska - Lincoln, 1992

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MAKING SENSE OF TEACHING: NOVICE
AND EXPERT SUPERVISORS

by

De Ann Nuernberger Currin

A DISSERTATION

Presented to the Faculty of
The Graduate College in the University of Nebraska
In Partial Fulfillment of Requirements
For the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Major: Interdepartmental Area of Administration,
Curriculum and Instruction

Under the Supervision of Professor Miles Bryant

Lincoln, Nebraska

December 1992
DISSERTATION TITLE

Making Sense of Teaching: Novice and Expert Supervisors

BY

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GRADUATE COLLEGE
UNIVERSITY OF NEBRASKA
MAKING SENSE OF TEACHING: NOVICE
AND EXPERT SUPERVISORS

De Ann Nuernberger Currin, Ph.D.
University of Nebraska, 1992

Advisor: Miles Bryant

This qualitative study investigated and compared what
novice and expert elementary school teacher evaluators pay
attention to when they observe a teaching performance and
what cognitive schemas they use to make sense of the
information.

The setting was a school district in a midwest
community of 191,972 people. There are 43 building
administrators and 1,141 certified teachers at the
elementary level.

The pool of experts came from reputational sampling.
Three male and three female novice and three male and three
female expert participants were selected by random draw for
a total of 12 participants.

Analysis of the qualitative data obtained through
interviews, examination of documents written during teaching
observations, and a reflective journal found commonalities
in the categories novice and expert supervisors paid
attention to during teaching observations. Their responses
related to instruction, interpersonal skills, climate, and
classroom management.
Novice and expert supervisors entered the room with a different objective and their collection of data and analysis reflected that difference. Experts entered with a focus of collecting data to explore with the teacher. Novices focused on the classroom experience for teacher appraisal.

Experts recorded what the teacher said and the unexpected student responses. This recorded data helped in analysis to recreate the lesson in their mind. Experts withheld judgment and continued to collect data from the teachers throughout the entire appraisal process. The experts' schema of good teaching included "many right ways to teach." They did not want to compare teaching to one external standard. Their goal was to provide a process for working with teachers to better understand the classroom experience.

Most novice supervisors recorded pieces of what they saw and heard in the classroom as well as judgments about their observations. Novices saw themselves as helpers who needed to provide reinforcement and suggestions to teachers.
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

As I watched my seven year old daughter make paper at my mother's house, the process reminded me of this paper that had emerged from my study. The pieces of different sizes, shapes, and colors were floating in the blender. They touched each other yet were suspended in water. Pouring the mixture into the framed screen retained the critical pieces of material and allowed most of the water to flow through and away. Blotting, to extract the rest of the water, was the final step that melded the pieces together into paper.

There are people who helped me in my "paper-making" process who need to be recognized. I would like to thank my advisor, Dr. Miles Bryant, for his questions and interest in this study. His influence can be seen in the strength and sparkle of the final product.

I appreciated my readers, Dr. Don Uerling, Dr. Bob Brown, and Dr. Miles Bryant. They were top-notch blotters. Their attention and reflection extracted the remaining water, tightening the paper for final reading.

When the paper was complete, I had the opportunity to share it with five people I admire. My committee of Dr. Miles Bryant, Dr. Don Uerling, Dr. Bob Brown, Dr. Reece Peterson, and Dr. Helen Moore held my paper to the test. It was an exhilarating experience--thank you.
Luise Berner did more than type this paper with great speed and care. Luise quite literally kept tabs on it (no pun intended) as it traveled to desks in Lincoln and Portland, Oregon. Her quiet, behind the scenes presence helped me through summer.

A special thanks to the participants in this study who shared their experiences and time so willingly. They provided the substance, richness, and color for the blender.

Last and most importantly, thanks go to my wonderful family and friends for helping me achieve a life-long dream. They each supported me with love expressed in their own way.
DEDICATED TO

Bruce, Kelcy, Toby, Ben

and

picnics, dreams, hugs, and a little sleep.
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Chapter 1
Introduction

The focus on restructuring schools requires educators to anticipate, forecast, and predict in order to prepare students for the future they will face. Taylor (1986) predicted people in education need to become specialists, not in subjects, but "with special understanding of those modes of thought, feeling (or love of) and rationality (or order) which make for those broad areas of understanding through which we organize human experience" (p. 125). Taylor saw the school's dilemmas directly related to the problems of society. The school's mission must be to equip children for the society they face. Teachers can address some of the concerns by helping students understand the processes of learning, build relationships, and make choices.

The shift toward teaching more process and relationship-building skills creates a need for evaluation tools which are different from the ones currently employed with knowledge transmission. It may also necessitate different cognitive schemes of what makes for good teaching. In order to evaluate processes, it is important to know the classroom environment supports a variety of interacting factors, such as toleration of ambiguity, risk-taking,
encouragement, and decision-making. Evaluation relies upon understanding how these factors interact (Day, Whitaker, & Wren, 1987; Eisner, 1991). Teaching cannot be regarded as a static accomplishment like riding a bike or keeping a ledger with one correct process or answer (Stenhouse, 1983). Nor can education rely on standardized tests as the sole focus of evaluation (Glaser, 1990). Schon (1983) sees a change from objective measures of student progress toward independent, qualitative judgments and narrative accounts of experiences and performances.

The shift is in part due to a qualitative change in skill emphasis. According to Taylor (1986) and Glasser (1990), students need skill development in self-research, experimentation, and self-evaluation of their work. These skills are important so they may begin to build relationships, make choices, and teach themselves.

Simultaneously proponents of school restructuring are asking teachers to become risk-takers, to experiment, and to change so more students can find success in the public school setting. Supervisors must anticipate the changes in teaching by altering supervision approaches. Zeichner and Tabachnick (1982) state one way supervisors are able to impact change is through teacher evaluation. Teacher evaluation must move away from the checklists and single-set criteria to more qualitative tools to take into account
skill, quality, and intention in the teaching and learning context (Stenhouse, 1983).

Eisner (1991) acknowledged the differences in contexts, students, and teachers. For instance, mobility and diversity may be present in one school and the neighboring school may have a stable homogeneous population. These dimensions add complexity to teaching, making it impossible to set up a single ideal performance from which to compare. Eisner pointed out that teaching unfolds based on multiple factors and is not a single isolated performance. The task of evaluation is not to change all teachers to look alike and fit a single form (like Olympic diving), but to help them develop their personal strengths and enhance what is distinctive about their teaching. This requires administrators to possess intellectual capacities and skills to be able to interpret what they see (Eisner, 1991) and assess, supervise, and help teachers develop their own cognitive processes (Costa, Garmston, & Lambert, 1988).

Sergiovanni (1987) looked at objective, outcome-based evaluation processes and identified aspects of teaching (e.g. bringing about changes in student understanding and attitudes or unanticipated learning) that could be overlooked or masked by common evaluation procedures. McGreal (1983) found such things as changes in attitudes and unanticipated outcomes could be seen in subtleties requiring the ability to see what is significant. For instance, the
teacher who uses slates for math calculation during class gives a subtle message about paper use and the conservation of natural resources. Another example is the subtle message about people with disabilities given in a math lesson on coin recognition when the teacher poses the question, "How would you recognize the coins if you were blind?" Eisner (1982, 1991) believed evaluators need to rely on their sensitivity to what is happening in the classroom, knowledge of teaching theory, and understanding of the contexts to recognize subtle objectives and outcomes.

Stanley and Popham (1988) and Hyman (1975) believed the best judgment about the quality of teaching is made when teaching is looked at from a variety of perspectives (e.g. supervisor, parent, student, and peers and self-evaluation). The central part of evaluation comes from the information provided in observation (Darling-Hammond, Wise, & Pease, 1983; Stanley & Popham, 1988). Classroom observation gives a view of climate, rapport, interaction, and functioning that is not available from any other source (Evertson & Holley, 1981). Eisner (1991) believed observations of teachers and classroom life are the most important data sources for seeing what is actually happening in schools. Talking to students is also an important source.

The success of observation is dependent upon the quality and techniques administrators use to collect and share the data. Collecting data is a complex, learned
process (Stanley & Popham, 1988). It requires the administrator to decipher meaning from a variety of input sources (objectives, activities, meaning of events, interactions, outcomes, and instruction) occurring simultaneously at many levels. Standardized tests given to students are able to provide information about some aspects of teaching, but the teacher's tone of voice, enthusiasm, or messages of encouragement are also appropriate events to measure. Eisner (1991) described qualitative techniques of description, interpretation, evaluation, and thematics as useful ones to employ in the evaluation of teachers in their complex settings.

Neisser (1976) reported on how the skill of making sense of multiple input develops through the use of a "schema." Schema is internal to the perceiver and is modified by new information. It enables people to perceive present events and store information about the past, to create meaningful patterns, and to help people recognize those patterns again (Bransford & Vye, 1989). Neisser compares a schema to a format in a computer programming language. The format or schema specifies what information to attend to and what information is irrelevant or non-essential and can be let go. This coordination allows people to receive visual and auditory information and, at the same time, enables them to make sense of it. The richness of the schema is in part determined by the
experience. Examining novice and expert evaluators' schema may help clarify how they make sense of what they observe.

Eisner (1991) discriminates expert from novice educational evaluators by the expert's ability to see what counts. He describes schemata as the framework that helps experts in the process of sorting significance. Schemata help them know what to neglect and makes the search more efficient. Eisner and Schon (1983) add to this notion of schema by identifying what they think experienced people pay attention to in a performance. They believe surprises in a performance are what draws attention and reflection. The surprise may be one of pleasure, promise, concern, or objection. Experience adds to the predictability and decreases surprises so the supervisors' search becomes more efficient. It lets experts pay attention to the teacher rather than to the surprise.

Experience creates the ability to construct schemata and accounts for why people more experienced in a particular area are able to see things differently than the novice. The research about experts comes from a diverse range of sources. De Groot (1965) found efficient problem formation linked to experience in his research on expert chess players. The difference between expert and novice players was the differentiation and scope of their system of linking experiences, rather than the tangible properties of their thought processes. Scribner (1984), through observation and
later experimental design, found experience made a
difference in the use of comparison and problem-solving
processes of factory workers. Lesgold (1983) found people
experienced in physics concentrated on understanding the
problem and then worked forward, while novices wrote
equations quickly and worked backward. Petrakis (1986)
studied experienced and novice tennis teachers. She found
experts used more compact scanning patterns, anticipated
movement, and focused on different body parts during serve
and stroke observation than their novice counterparts.
Berliner (1986) identified differences in experienced and
novice teachers in the areas of problem-solving,
anticipation, organization, and pace. Experts were able to
make inferences where novice teachers used literal
descriptions in the knowledge base to make sense of the
classroom.

Kagan (1989) saw similar spatial and temporal patterns
in classroom instruction. This led her to speculate that
advance cues, chunking of information, and scanning patterns
used by players and coaches in evaluating athletic
performances may also be used by teacher evaluators.
Sergiovanni (1987) viewed educational administration as a
craft where experience and intuition are important. He
described something similar to schemata or mental patterns
with the term "mindscapes--implicit mental images and
frameworks" (p. xi) as part of the administrator's
evaluation process. Mindscapes (Sergiovanni, 1985) provide intellectual and psychological images of the real world. He said they serve us as security blankets and road maps at the same time. Kagan, Sergiovanni, and Schon (1983) acknowledged the big part experience plays in recognizing what is essential. When situations are reflected upon, deeper knowledge bases are produced. Perhaps this is what makes expert supervisors better than novice supervisors in their ability to integrate the components of the performance.

Exploring the cognitive activity of expert and novice supervisors provides educators with helpful insights in preparing for the future. Data about the routines and schema of experts helps identify what hinders the novice (Berliner, 1986). Zeichner and Tabachnick (1982) and Rust (1988) believed learning more about supervisors' thought processes was valuable because of the supervisors' role in restructuring schools. Information about the schemata of expert supervisors could also address McGreal's (1983) concern that evaluating artistic approaches to teaching requires 15-30 hours in the classroom. Petrakis (1986) saw the contribution of more knowledge about visual observation patterns facilitating growth in novice teachers (and supervisors), which has training implications.
Statement of the Purpose

The purpose of this study was to investigate what novice and expert elementary school supervisors' pay attention to during the observation of teaching and how they make sense of the data they gather.

Research Questions

The following research questions were addressed in the study:

1. What do novice and expert supervisors pay attention to when they observe a teaching performance?
2. How do novice and expert supervisors make sense of what they observe in a teaching performance?
3. Are there differences in what novice and expert supervisors pay attention to in a teaching performance?
4. Are there differences in what novice and expert supervisors use to make sense of what they observe in a teaching performance?

Definition of Terms

Novice elementary school supervisor refers to an administrator with 0-3 years experience employing the appraisal process.

Expert elementary school supervisor refers to an administrator with more than 3 years experience employing the appraisal process who has been identified through reputational sampling.
Observation of a teaching performance refers to formal viewing of a lesson connected to the summative evaluation process.

Summative evaluation process, as taken directly from the Teacher Appraisal Manual (a citation is not provided because of confidentiality):

During each year of probation and once every three years thereafter, each certificated employee will have a summative appraisal completed by the principal or designated supervisor with the formal report submitted to the personnel office. The summative appraisal is based upon district expectations which are divided into four categories:

a. Productive teaching techniques
b. Organized structured class management
c. Positive interpersonal relations
d. Professional responsibilities

The summative appraisal form assesses the employee's performance in each of sixteen specific areas related to the four categories. Each district expectations has a number of descriptors which illustrate the specific responsibilities required.

The school district selected Instructional Decision Making (Hunter, 1982) as the model for good teaching. The reason stated in the Teacher Appraisal Manual was to make an "effort to describe good teaching consistently from administrator to administrator." The handbook states, "There will be no attempt to convert teachers' decision making theories of the model into check lists and teaching rating criteria. Not all seven elements of a lesson are to be found in each and every lesson. Nor was the model (IDM) designed to dictate how a person teaches."

Other terms important to the reader are:
Supervisor training refers to the administrative qualifications stated in the Teacher Appraisal Handbook which are: (a) "course requirements for administration and supervisor certificate issued by the State Department of Education," (b) participation in "district inservice and training," and (c) "relevant sessions sponsored by state and national organizations."

Schema refers to the automatic thought processes modified through experiences.

Assumptions

1. Expert supervisors can be identified through a reputational, purposive case selection process.

2. The classroom setting is multi-dimensional, and teaching is based upon a complex knowledge structure.

3. What supervisors use to make sense of what they pay attention to during observation can be articulated, and a qualitative study based upon in-depth interviews is appropriate for gathering data which may be seldom articulated.

4. Literature supports the need for the novice/expert supervision contrast study to provide information for training of supervisors.

5. The summative evaluation setting is a realistic one in which to study the supervisor’s evaluative process.
Limitations

1. The participants in this study were limited to elementary supervisors in one school district. They were selected from reputational nominations.

2. Findings of qualitative research are not generalizable to other settings although they may help develop understanding or questions applicable to another setting.

3. The natural setting and human instrument of qualitative research will impact the validity and reliability of this study.

4. The study represents one piece of the appraisal process, the supervisor’s reconstruction of events, rather than a comprehensive study of appraisal.

5. The training supervisors have had may shape what they pay attention to during observation and what they use to make sense of that information.

6. Experience and expert status are not the same.

7. The pool of participants was not culturally or racially diverse.

8. Teachers and supervisors share the common language of instructional decision making (Hunter, 1982).

Significance of the Study

The study sought to understand teacher evaluation process from the supervisor’s viewpoint. What goes on in the classroom is multi-dimensional and much of the activity
observed cannot be quantified or captured in checklists (Lewis, 1982). How do supervisors reconstruct the classroom experience?

The purpose of this study was to generate description and understanding about what elementary school supervisors pay attention to during the observation of a teaching performance within the appraisal process and how they make sense of what they observe. Data were collected through interviews, analysis of written artifacts, and a reflective journal. The comparison of novice and expert supervisors was used to explore the role of cognitive schemas in the reconstruction of the observed classroom experience.

Information about data collection in observations, cognitive schemas, and making sense of the data from the novice and expert perspectives provided implications for the training of supervisors. It also provided insights in the role or future of teacher evaluation against the backdrop of school restructuring.
Chapter 2

Review of Literature

Introduction

Authors who describe teaching as an "art" encourage exploration of the qualitative events of teaching (e.g. performance, intention, quality, and interaction). An important way to tap into this knowledge is to observe teaching in context. The first part of this chapter explores teacher evaluation as an art to identify what may be overlooked in standard evaluation procedures.

Part Two combines information from novice/expert research and information processing. The two topics are interrelated and provide background for novice/expert study of what the two groups paid attention to during observation and what they used to make sense of the information. Most of the research comes from outside the field of education.

Part One: Evaluation and Teaching as an Art

Teaching is a multi-dimensional task, requiring information from a variety of sources (Eisner, 1991; Hyman, 1975; McGreal, 1983; McNeil, 1982; Sergiovanni, 1982; Stanley & Popham, 1988), but this is not reflected in teacher evaluation processes. Educators are frustrated because of the inattention to supervision or the questionable criteria used in the evaluation processes
(Johnston, 1988). McGreal (1983) states the typical 30-
minutes classroom observation is inappropriate for artistic
evaluation approaches. There is a need for intimacy with
the setting to be able to understand what is happening and
illuminate it so it can be seen and appreciated (Eisner,
1991). "Art" assumes there are teaching patterns or
holistic qualities that are an integral part of the teaching

Several authors have noted the fallacies in using a
single set of criteria, especially those of a highly
prescriptive nature, for observing the teaching process.
Some of the flaws are:

1. Some of the intangible elements (e.g. classroom
climate and student development) go unnoticed or unaccounted
(Day, Whitaker, & Wren, 1988; Eisner, 1982, 1991; Hyman,
1975).

2. The individuality of individuals is not taken into
account, as evidenced in the fact that research-driven
principles do not always lead to successful results in
students (Day, Whitaker, & Wren, 1987, Stanley & Popham,
1988).

3. Events observed may be disproportionately weighted
in favor of the ones that are easily counted, measured, and
recorded (e.g. examples, types of questions, positive and
negative reinforcement). The observer may consequently
neglect other important aspects that are not as easily seen
(e.g. quality of interactions, balance, process, novelty). This flaw tends to focus the evaluation on the ends rather than the means (Eisner, 1982; Kagan, 1989; Sergiovanni, 1987; Stanley & Popham, 1988; Wise & Darling-Hammond, 1985).

4. A single method of evaluation may miss the "art" in the teaching due to the assumption that the whole is no more than a sum of the parts. Focusing on discrete characteristics sometimes masks the integration and global impression (Eisner, 1982; Kagan, 1989).

5. The developmental needs of the teacher may not be included or innovation may be discouraged by a single criterion that becomes the "right" way to teach (Eisner, 1982; Sergiovanni, 1987).

6. The methods and evaluation tool could determine what is to be evaluated, allowing the tail to wag the dog (Sergiovanni, 1987).

Scholars also have some ideas of what needs to be observed to gain a more complete picture of teaching:

1. The meaning of events, to the individual and the group, needs to be observed through careful attention to subtle as well as expressive events in the classroom (Eisner, 1982, 1991; Sergiovanni, 1982; Wise & Darling-Hammond, 1985).

2. The integration, linkages, and flow of events need to create a balance, symmetry, and global impression (Day, Whitaker, & Wren, 1987; Kagan, 1989; McGreal, 1983;
Sergiovanni, 1982; Wise & Darling-Hammond, 1985; Zeichner & Tobachnick, 1982).

3. The unique contributions of the teacher need to be focused on during the observation (Eisner, 1982, 1991; Glickman, 1981).

4. There needs to be a grasp on what has unfolded over time to appreciate what the experience means to the people involved and the character of life in the classroom. Some of the value, impact, or outcomes involved may be long delayed or not realized by the observer (Eisner, 1982, 1991; Stake, 1975). These points all indicate good teaching is a contextual phenomenon dependent on the people and situation involved (Eisner, 1991; Lewis, 1982).

The identification of some flaws and needs in evaluative observation are important, but determining how to improve the system is more difficult. Terms such as sensitivity, intuition, information processing, experience, understanding, beliefs, perceptivity, and self-revelation are used to describe how a more complete analysis of teaching could be achieved. Stiggins and Duke (1988) said for supervisors to carry out the activities of evaluation they must: (a) have skills to communicate about process and results, (b) have time, (c) link staff development and evaluation, and (d) trust the evaluation plan.

Wise and Darling-Hammond (1985) called for an evaluation format that is more open, allows more time and
requires more expertise. Glasser (1990) believed quality is measured through in-depth interviews and observation of a statistically significant sample of qualified observers. Eisner (1991) saw qualitative tools as very appropriate for the complex context presented in the classroom. It is the researcher's hope that through this study some light will be shed on what evaluator-observers feel, see, hear, and sense.

Part Two: Thought Processes of the Expert and Novice Schema

The literature related to cognition and schema requires some new vocabulary for understanding. Neisser (1976) defined a schema as

that portion of the entire perceptual cycle (coordinated activity in several sensory systems at once) which is internal to the perceiver, modifiable by experience and somehow specific to what is being perceived. The schema accepts information and is changed by that information; it directs movement and exploratory activities that make more information available, by which it is further modified. (p. 54)

Schon (1983) explained it simply as the tool to make sense of a situation. The person perceives a situation as unique and at the same time sees it as similar to something already in his or her repertoire. The new situation modifies the existing schema.

This definition helps connect the study of thought processes and experience. It is assumed people's experiences form schemata and thus allows experts to see things more adequately and comprehensively than the novice.
The novice does not err because they are at different level of cognitive development, but because they have not looked at events of that kind often enough to develop a schema called for in the problem.

People are not free to respond the way they choose because they must consider the situation. The schema is what directs the eye to pick up information and modify the schema. The information used becomes more subtle over time. Rogoff and Lave (1984) found evidence that cognitive skills are specific and context-bound and are not easily transferred across widely diverse problem domains. It is the specific local knowledge that makes experts excel rather than their global qualities of thinking (Chi, Glasser, & Farr, 1988). An example is the taxi driver who knows the side streets and the traffic flow. That knowledge is not readily transferred to other tasks such as finding the faster route to the airport in another city or to the occupational knowledge required of a competent bus driver.

Transferring this concept to educational settings, Eisner (1991) referred to knowledge about educational theory and the specific classroom as local knowledge that helps supervisors interpret events. This knowledge is iterative and assists supervisors in seeing uniqueness as well as connecting it to similar situations. Overarching theory is also mentioned in Schon’s (1983) description of variables contributing to experience. Theory, along with media,
language, repertoire, roles, and an appreciation system build a frame for analysis. Experts are able to use the whole of their experience to reframe problems, experiment, watch for responses, analyze the consequences, and see a new end.

**Novice and Expert Knowledge**

There are stages of learning in the growth from novice to experience. If we knew more about these stages, we could devise ways to have higher levels of achievement and success. Chi and Glaser (1980) thought the areas of knowledge and process needed to be studied in order to understand the differences between novice and experienced people. (Their framework provides some input for the design of this study.) The knowledge framework includes looking at semantic networks to see central concepts and the interrelation within the network, the "how to" production system, and the problem-solving strategies. In this study, semantic networks were used with supervisors, asking them to brainstorm and say out loud what popped into their heads when they observed an outstanding teacher. To expand and extend supervisor's thinking, they could also discuss key words they thought of with a teacher in trouble. This is supported by Schon's (1983) observation that practitioners may be able to describe deviation from the norm better than the norm itself. The connections among the words identified themes or categories within the reconstruction process and
allowed comparisons between the expert and novice supervisors. The process framework included the person’s metacognition, planning, and solution strategies. Process information was elicited through "tour" questions such as: "Tell me everything you do between the observation and the feedback conference." Hypothetical questions such as "What if you were in charge of supervisor training, what would you include?" provided insights into supervisor skill development.

Novice and Expert Research

Research comparing experts and novices has been done in a variety of settings. The terms expert and experienced are not the same. Berliner (1986) was unable to untangle the two terms and used them interchangeably, which is the practice in this study. The following section describes some of the novice/expert research.

A study conducted in sport research by Vickers (1986) found experience was related to task performance. The task was to reconstruct sequences of gymnastic movements by putting photographs in the correct order. They found expert gymnasts were able to sequence the photographs faster and with fewer errors than the intermediate and novice groups. The intermediate groups performed faster and more accurately than the novice group. Vickers eluded to cognitive processing as a possible explanation for the differences between the groups.
Vickers (1986) with gymnasts, Petrakis (1986) with tennis teachers, and Abernethy and Russell (1987) with racquet sport players found experts were better able to anticipate movements, making them more accurate and faster in judging performance. Abernethy and Russell (1987) found that in addition to anticipating information, experts were able to recognize redundancy by chunking information and extracting information from spatial cues that novices did not use. The incoming information, which was overwhelming to the novice, became manageable to the expert with those three strategies.

De Groot (1965) studied expert and top class chess players. He found the differences were not in tangible quantitatively computable properties but "on fast and efficient problem formation and specialization derived from experience" (p. 320). The experienced chess player in fact continued to learn without awareness and without building up from the ground level each time. The more of this "intuitive experience" the chess player collected, the more difficult it was for him or her to understand the behavior of less experienced people.

Business management has a similar concept. Schon (1984) labels it "reflect-in-action" and describes it as a bringing together of organizational knowledge, principles of practice, images of mission, facts about the environment, techniques of operation, and past experience. "Reflection-
in-action" has been inaccessible to others because managers seldom analyze it so they are able to articulate it to others. According to Schon (1983), managers are able to recognize the norm without being able to articulate it and to make judgments about quality without being able to state the criteria. It is easier for them to recognize what is missing in a performance than to state what goes into a good performance.

Schon (1984) encouraged reflective managers to begin to research themselves. Some of their practices, developed through experience, work but they don't know why. Schon saw value in having practitioners describe and analyze the categories (patterns, schema, prototypes) they create, how they frame their roles and problematic situations, as well as how they process in relation to their style. Self analysis leads to self discovery, which looks different for each individual. Levine (1989) saw reflection on practice linked to greater awareness and understanding of practice through the sequence of: reflection--articulation--better understanding--improvement. This process also helps managers articulate processes to others in training.

Leinhardt and Greene (1986) compared the cognitive skills of teaching to those of medical diagnosis and chess rather than to tasks of solving problems and calculations because teaching is based on several sets of knowledge. Those sets are: knowledge required to construct and conduct
instruction, knowledge of the content area, and classroom specific knowledge (concerning the teacher, students, history, background information, and values). This complex knowledge structure relies upon schemata, referred to earlier, to organize the action.

A study conducted by Leinhardt and Greene (1986) involved eight expert teachers (those showing student growth over a five-year period) and novice teachers (student teachers). The expert teachers had a large repertoire of routines that were flexible and required little or no monitoring or explanation. This freed the teacher to focus on features of the materials, lesson flow, and content. The novice teachers did not work in a routine way, so each portion of the lesson was different from the next and from day to day. This required the novice teacher to spend more time explaining and guiding practice.

Berliner's (1986) study found experienced teachers possessed a special kind of knowledge. This knowledge, labeled tacit knowledge, lets the teacher make inferences, tells them what information they need to collect, and brings their past knowledge together to help them see patterns and make sense of the classroom. Berliner found differences between novice and experienced teachers in the areas of confidence, representation of problems, planning, pacing, and ability to anticipate. Neisser (1976) and Lesgold (1983) saw that the ability to anticipate decreased the
effort needed by experts to understand, to read the context more efficiently, and to be attuned to the event as a whole.

Substantial differences in the details, procedures, and conceptual levels of the lesson presentations were recorded by Leinhardt and Smith (1985). Experts had more elaborate and deeper categories for problems compared to the novice teacher's horizontal, separate category system. This ability to analyze problems and organize were also significant differences found in Bryant's (1988) research involving experienced and novice administrator participants in the NASSP Assessment Center for Educational Administrators.

Rust (1988) compared experienced and novice supervisors of student teachers. Rust found novice supervisors more tentative and concerned about other people's perceptions. He found experienced supervisors drew upon memories of mentors, training, and experience when communicating understanding of good teaching to those they supervised. Neisser (1976) stated the novice is more tuned-in to superficial features, while the expert is more perceptive of subtle aspects.

The literature indicates differences between novice and expert people's schema. This affects what they pay attention to, how they organize, problem-solve, and anticipate in their environment. Chi, Glaser, and Farr
(1988) summarized the novice/expert literature, citing seven differences:

1. Experts excel in their own domain.

2. Experts perceive meaningful patterns because of the way they have organized their knowledge base.

3. Experts are able to solve problems more quickly overall.

4. Experts have superior short-term and long-term memory. They have freed up more room for memory storage through automatic functioning within their domain.

5. Experts see and represent a problem at a deeper conceptual level.

6. Experts examine a problem by trying to understand it first.

7. Experts are more aware of when they make a mistake and are able to predict difficult problems.

Articulation of Thought Processes

From the literature review, techniques were identified that could be used to discover processes that may be automatic or thought of as intuitive. Nisbett and Wilson (1977) found subjects who were sometimes unable to report what influenced their decisions. People who were creative or problem-solvers described solutions as just "popping" into their heads without an awareness of the factors or processes that prompted them.
Supervisors were unaware of what they were thinking or noticing during an evaluation. Berliner (1986) thought studies of how experts' perform and think about their performances are helpful in helping others articulate their knowledge. He discovered this need from his work with cooperating teachers. The people with the biggest influence on novice teachers, cooperating teachers, were unable to articulate the basis for their expertise and skill. Schon (1983) saw a need for reflecting, questioning, and honesty between novice and experts as the key to closing the gap between their skill levels.

Another consideration of this study was the framework and language of the interview so as not to cue or restrict respondents. Nisbett and Wilson (1977) showed how easily subjects' views could be changed without their awareness by another person talking to them. There was also a difference between what the novice and expert subjects were able to verbalize (Ericsson & Simon, 1980).

Several effective approaches may be used to gain information from people (Nisbett & Wilson, 1977). Interviews helped subjects become able to discover their own thought processes because the questions were directed to the subject's knowledge (prior, attentional, and intentional).

Nisbett and Wilson (1977) found subjects' introspection improved under three conditions: (a) when the events were perceptually or memorially important, (b) when plausible
causes were identified, and (c) when causes could be directly related to outcomes. Another view holds that thoughts of more experienced persons are automatic and will be more difficult or impossible to retrieve (Ericsson & Simon, 1980).

During exploration of the design for this study, some graduate students and instructors suggested observing and asking questions of the supervisors while they were in the process of observing the teaching performance (or a videotape of one). This suggestion was rejected. De Groot (1965) explained why thinking aloud interferes with thinking itself. There are several possible gaps that occur when thinking aloud—thoughts move more quickly than the spoken word, so when a person is thinking aloud either the thinking process is slowed or the thoughts are not all articulated. Another consideration is that thinking is made up of phases or steps about which a person may not be aware. A third possible gap is created by the person not being able to immediately put their thinking into words. Schon (1983) added the possibility that thinking about an action causes the complexity of the situation to surface and interfere with the flow of action that comes automatically. The decision was made to interview supervisors after they have observed a lesson so they could refer to it and reflect and retrace their thought patterns. Participants were interviewed after they had observed a tenured teacher.
During the interview, supervisors were pulling information from many of their experiences and not just the most recent observation.
Chapter 3
Methodology

Design
A qualitative design was used to gather information from novice and expert supervisors about what they paid attention to during the observation of teaching and how they processed that information. A pilot study was completed that assisted in the evaluation of the design. The design, analysis, and study evolved.

Qualitative research is often the best methodology when understanding is the focus because information is presented in the form in which most people experience it (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). It is particularistic, descriptive, heuristic, and inductive (Merriam, 1988). Qualitative research is oriented toward people, words, and pictures with in-depth interviewing as one of its tools. Interviewing is a natural way to find out things that cannot be directly observed, such as information processing. The design of this study is described on the following page in a figure (Figure 1) adapted from Lincoln and Guba (1985, p. 188). The researcher focused on the supervisor's observation of the classroom experience and their reconstruction and use of data.
Figure 1. Design of study.
Two concerns often voiced about qualitative research revolve around validity and reliability. Internal validity questions how findings are authentic representations of some reality (Goetz & Le Compte, 1984; Merriam, 1988). An assumption that reality is holistic, multi-dimensional, and everchanging leads to the search for techniques that will provide internal validity. The researcher had repeated observations of the same phenomena, then took data and interpretations back to the people it came from to check for accuracy and to examine the emergent findings. Triangulation of data was used to provide some assurances of internal validity. The source of data to be compared included interviews, written artifacts, and the researcher’s reflective journal (Lofland & Lofland, 1984). The study was conducted in the natural setting rather than a lab and that all phases of the research were exposed to questions and re-evaluation helped with validity (Goetz & Le Compte, 1984).

External validity was addressed through the rich, thick description and cross-case analysis. Merriam (1988) stated this knowledge of the particular allows others to see patterns and match it to their own context. When there are multiple sources of evidence, Eisner (1991) suggested simple tests of coherence, consensus, and usefulness to tell us if conclusions "ring true," are consistent with our own experience, and act as maps or guides to enrich our experiences.
Reliability presented another problem, because it is concerned with whether the findings can be replicated. Thinking processes and behavior are not static, as experience continually impacts and changes people. Detailed information concerning decisions during this study and the multiple methods of data collection address reliability. The use of audio-taped interviews that were transcribed verbatim, careful descriptions of the people who provided the data, and peer and expert examination of data contribute also (Goetz & Le Compte, 1984). De Groot (1965) stated the reliability of answers are questioned only when we have reason to doubt a researcher's sincerity or seriousness. As in all research, the researcher's honesty and credibility are key elements for the study. A reflexive journal was used to document the researcher's planning, feelings, thoughts, and decisions throughout the study.

**Participants, Site Selection, Researcher Role**

The participants in the study included novice elementary school supervisors (those with 0-3 years experience employing the appraisal process) and expert elementary school supervisors (those with more than 3 years experience employing the appraisal process and chosen through reputational sampling). In Zeichner and Tabachnick's (1982) study of student teacher supervisors, the subjects were all attempting to implement the same basic supervisory model within a program with a specific focus.
Using novice and expert supervisors from the same school district provided the common expectations, training, form, and format for appraisal.

The school district is located in a midwest city with a population of 191,972. There are 34 public elementary schools employing 43 building level administrators and 1,141 certified teachers.

The number of study participants, elementary supervisors, was determined on the basis of the number of people at the different experience levels, district office administration input, and the study's saturation point. The researcher wanted input from males and females to provide a gender balance and make sure there wasn't a gender bias. This led to three male and three female novice participants and three male and three female expert participants.

The researcher's role, in qualitative research, falls on a continuum from observer to participant. In this study, the researcher had two years participation in the evaluation of teachers in this district and assumed the role of informed observer in the study. This background provided insider knowledge for questioning and a reference for coherence testing of data.

Goetz and Le Compte (1984) provided a matrix for educational research design (p. 180). The matrix provided a way to see research methods along a continuum for planning and analysis of the data collected.
Figure 2. Matrix for educational research design.

Several methods from their matrix (Figure 2) were incorporated in this study. Interview questions and analysis (data reduction and display) began with constructive, generative, inductive, and subjective methods; then funneled along the continuum to enumerative, verificative, deductive, and objective methods. Categories and statements about relationships were generated from the data collected (analytic induction). This process was supplemented by constant comparison as the novice and expert supervisors were examined across all instances and then compared and contrasted. Themes emerged from what supervisors paid attention to during the reconstruction of the teaching performance (typologies). Supportive evidence
for these patterns was supplied by coding and counting the responses of novice and expert supervisors (enumeration).

Data Collection

To provide the richness of detail needed, in-depth interviews were conducted. The interview began with a rapport-building set of questions for gathering demographic data, then proceeded to a semi-structured interview that probed and helped people to discover their cognitive activity (Erickson, 1986). Three interviewing strategies guided data collection: tracing personal development in appraisal skills, stimulated recall of the observation experience, and key word mapping of words that told supervisors good teaching was taking place. Follow-up questions (see Appendix A) helped probe and validate themes that were not speculated in advance (Blase, 1987).

Pilot Study

For a pilot study, an interview instrument was developed by the researcher and reviewed by a university authority on interview design. The questions included types recommended by Spradley (1979); grand tour, mini tour, example, experience, and native language questions (see Appendix A). The pilot study and this research yielded information to expand, clarify, and improve the instrument. The appendix includes a code to identify effective questions
which emerged and the questions that yielded the greatest and most helpful responses.

The pilot investigation of novice and experienced supervisors' cognitive activities during a teacher observation included interviews with two novice (one male, one female) and two experienced (one male, one female) supervisors.

The data collected included: (1) audio-taped and transcribed interviews, (b) documents supervisors generated during their appraisal observation of a teacher, and (c) documents supervisors used during the post-observation conference with the teacher. The interview was scheduled following an observation and/or teacher post-observation conference. Field notes were taken during the interview and a reflective journal was kept.

The pilot study transcriptions, coding, and analysis were reviewed and critiqued by an expert in qualitative research. Some of the findings from the pilot study are included in Appendix B. Following the pilot study, another review of literature was done to follow-up on findings and hunches.

Procedures

Preparation was the first step in the design procedure. The researcher received approval from the appropriate sources (University, IRB [Appendix C], school district, and subjects). The district associate superintendent for
instruction and the assistant superintendent for human resources identified a pool of expert supervisors. The researcher saw a need to create a group of expert supervisors from which the most can be learned and which included males and females to check for gender bias.

The associate superintendent for instruction had information justifying recommendations for expert supervisors. She conducts administrative appraisals gathering information from the supervisor, teachers, non-certified staff, parents, and students. Appraisals give her access to each administrator's goals, job targets, and areas of expertise. She is also aware of administrators' interests, training, and leadership in the area of supervision.

The assistant superintendent for human resources has different information from which to make recommendations. He speaks to supervisors about personnel concerns and also has information from teachers concerning supervision. The final summative appraisal forms completed by supervisors are given to him. The comment and narrative sections provide him with indications of insights, time, and effort given to supervision.

Other groups that could have input for purposive sampling would be other supervisors and teachers. The pilot study and observations at Principal Council meetings indicate that supervisors do not talk about supervision to
each other and would not have objective information upon which to base a recommendation. Teachers do not have experience with many supervisors, which makes it difficult for them to make comparisons and give reputational recommendations.

The associate and assistant superintendents collaborated and provided a list of 12 expert supervisors (5 male and 7 female). Using insider information, one female principal was selected and one was eliminated. The other two female and all three male expert participants were randomly drawn.

The assistant superintendent of human resources and the elementary personnel administrator provided a list of elementary supervisors who had three or fewer years experience. Three (one male and two female) novices were new assistant principals and would be involved in teacher evaluation. These people were selected. Of the other six names, only two were male so they were selected. The final female participant was randomly drawn from the four novice female names. The researcher called to confirm their novice status. The final list of participants included:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Novices</th>
<th>Experts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3 women</td>
<td>3 women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 men</td>
<td>3 men</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

District approval for research was granted, and those asked to participate were informed. Letters were sent
explaining the purpose of the study, the procedures that would be used, and a commitment to confidentiality (Appendix C). The letter was followed with a phone call to answer questions, ask if they were willing to participate, and set up a time to call them back and arrange an interview. All of the supervisors selected participated.

Data Collection Strategies

Data came from in-depth interviews with supervisors and from the documents that supervisors produced during and after appraisal observations of teaching performances. The interview began with the collection of demographic data (date and time of the interview, educational level, experience, and training background and development). This provided background for insights into what built their schema of good teaching. Open-ended questions exploring their knowledge and processes followed.

The researcher audio-taped the interviews and took notes. Neutral verbal or non-verbal probing was used to encourage the subjects to answer, clarify, or extend their thoughts. Each recorded interview was transcribed. The transcriptions were returned to the participants for corrections, changes, and additional insights. A description of themes that were emerging and an opportunity for participants to comment was sent with the transcript (Appendix C). The participants' responses validated and expanded the themes found at this point in the study.
Large left margins were left on the transcriptions for coding or notes. New paragraphs were started when a change occurred in the interview (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982). Powney and Watts (1987) estimate 6-10 hours is needed for transcription of every one hour of interview time. According to the pilot study and dissertation, this was an accurate estimate. Three additional hours were needed for preparation and analysis for each one hour interview.

The notes taken by the supervisor during and after observation of the teaching performance, notes from the interview, a copy of the audio-tape, and transcript of the interview were kept in pocket folders coded to identify participant gender, novice or expert status, and sequence interviewed. A reflective and analysis notebook was kept separate from the individual folders.

**Data Analysis**

The transcribed interviews provided written documents for analysis. The documents and written artifacts were used to verify the information given.

The analysis was driven by the study's questions:

1. What do novice and expert supervisors pay attention to when they observe a teaching performance?

2. How do novice and expert supervisors make sense of what they observe a teaching performance?

3. Are there differences in what novice and expert supervisors pay attention to in the teaching performance?
4. Are there differences in what novice and expert supervisors use to make sense of what they observe in the teaching performance?

A systematic analysis, using a comparative strategy, allowed themes and categories to be identified. Analysis involved three concurrent activities—data reduction, display, and conclusions (Miles & Huberman, 1984). Data reduction involved the coding of transcripts and written documents with key words. Chunks of the text were identified and labeled.

Categories were studied for emerging themes and patterns. This process was back and forth in nature, across the people interviewed (horizontal) as well as within each individual (vertical). Broader themes were labeled through an integration process focused on category properties. Analysis pages were created for each participant.

The second analysis activity, data display, organized the data for drawing conclusions. New sheets of paper were headed with novice or expert. Every response of what they paid attention to was recorded and coded with the individual participant’s code indicating gender and interview order so the researcher could identify the transcript the response was in for writing reference. Data display was in the form of matrices to organize frequency counts, to compare and contrast (by experience and gender), and to analyze to see if patterns emerged. The matrices gave information about
the number of responses participants had in common, the
categories (instruction, climate, classroom management, and
interpersonal skills), and whether what they paid attention
to during observation called for the observer to focus on
the teacher or student.

The third analysis activity, conclusion drawing and
verification, required reflective time and speculation to
develop inferences and establish connections (Goetz & Le
Compte, 1984).

The supervisors interviewed and University authorities
provided reaction, input, correction, and validation for
themes, inferences, and conclusions. The researcher
discussed this study with an Educational Service Unit
researcher who compared (Summer 1991) what supervisors paid
attention to during observation and in teacher post-
observation conferences to eight Instructional Decision
Making standards (Hunter, 1982).

The researcher analyzed transcripts for interviewer
bias and cuing. The other guards against bias were the
researcher's awareness of subjectivity and recording of
detailed notes (Bogdan & Biklen, 1982) and sampling with
gender balance.

The researcher went back to the literature during and
following the analysis of data as themes and questions
emerged. "A sense of being saturated signals the end of the
Chapter 4
Findings

This researcher sought to understand more fully the process of teacher evaluation. Before sharing the findings, there are two areas which need clarification. One is the context of the appraisal system that surrounds the evaluation process. The second is the emergent nature of this study and changes that occurred between proposal acceptance and writing the findings. The findings section is organized around the three major themes that appeared in the data: (a) Pay Attention Theme, (b) Making Sense of Data Theme, and (c) Novice to Expert Theme. The chapter ends with a summary listing of Findings and Implications.

The District’s Summative Appraisal System

The school district’s appraisal handbook and written summative appraisal instrument were developed according to the negotiated agreement between the school district and the teachers’ union. A joint committee of union leaders, teachers, principals, and district office administrators developed the handbook and instrument. They also review it annually and recommend changes.

The appraisal handbook was designed to serve as a guide for the teacher performance appraisal program. It states that it does not apply to conduct or incidents that are
cause for disciplinary action, contract cancellation, or non-renewal or termination specified by state law.

The final written summative appraisal instrument was based on expectations in four categories: (a) productive teaching techniques, (b) organized structured class management, (c) positive interpersonal relations, and (d) professional activities. These categories were broken down into sixteen areas with a number of descriptors in each area. Expectations can be rated unsatisfactory, needing improvement, or meeting expectation.

There are some areas on the written summative appraisal instrument that may not be observed in the classroom because not all elements of a lesson are present or because the expectation takes place outside the classroom (e.g., interpersonal skills with other adults, professional activities, evaluation activities). Most supervisors in this study provided opportunities before the final appraisal conference for teachers to share artifacts or insights related to the appraisal instrument.

Two formal observations and teacher/supervisor conferences are required during the appraisal year. There were no observation or conference techniques or materials provided in the manual or in new-to-the-district administrator training. The district has selected Instructional Decision Making (Hunter, 1982) as the model in describing good teaching but the handbook states this model
was not designed to dictate how a person teaches nor will it be made into checklists and teaching rating criteria.

During this study, it was important to see how much influence the appraisal instrument had on what supervisors paid attention to during classroom observation. The appraisal instrument influences supervisors' schemata but it did not drive the observation process. Experts provided evidence through the following statements:

When I'm doing observations and post-observation conferences, I do not think in terms of the expectations in the appraisal instrument.

The working part of the appraisal process is the observation and the relationship that I have with the teacher. The appraisal form itself, really, in my mind, is just a document that says to the district that the teacher continues to be employable. It isn't the drive mechanism for what I do with the teacher.

I would organize the appraisal form differently because you always learn more and more things. I think that its focus is far more on trivia than it should be.

The things that happen prior to the marking of the instrument are probably more valuable than the final step.

Experts appeared to, at times, separate the observation process and final appraisal instrument. The summative appraisal was not used as a checklist for observation. An expert said, "If you use it as something, as a checklist, it defuses your focus rather than focuses because there is so much to cover."

Another expert said,

My notion is that I do some things that are not as important as the classroom observation and the opportunity to sit down and react with the teacher as a
couple of professionals about the observation. The final summative form is probably the least significant thing in the whole process.

The most important part of the appraisal process, for expert supervisors, was clearly establishing a relationship with the teacher so they could gain a better understanding of effective teaching.

Most supervisors found their classroom observations helped them complete the instruction section of the appraisal instrument but other data collection strategies were needed for the other sections. One novice was having summative appraisal teachers meet in teams to discuss and share what they were doing. He used the sections of the appraisal he could not observe as topics for their discussions throughout the year (e.g. evaluation of student progress, current educational trends).

Most expert supervisors held presummative conferences with teachers to collect data for the appraisal instrument.

I ask teachers to bring down, I ask them to sit and go through and think through the summative appraisal, uh, make notes on a replication of it (the appraisal instrument) about themselves, bring artifacts of things that were represented and just come and spend, sometimes they can spend an hour sometimes they can spend two hours just sharing with things that they feel are things that they do really well. It’s talking through it enough that both it’s clear in their head and clear in my head . . . and sometimes in the process of that there may be more growth, it creates another avenue for growth in at least talking through this. Two professionals sitting and talking and some new ideas or some extensions come out of that.

Novices said the district expectations on the appraisal instrument along with Instructional Decision Making, their
own experiences, and reading together created their schema of good teaching. Instructional Decision Making helped with their ability to communicate with teachers. One novice said climate and atmosphere were the most important things to pay attention to in a classroom and they were not even on the appraisal instrument. Another novice appeared to be influenced more by the appraisal instrument expectations. He said he based "much of what he expected" and "made judgment decisions" based "on some of the general kinds of district expectations."

In summary, the district appraisal instrument influences supervisors' schemata and provides a common language for describing instruction. The expert supervisors, in this study, did not use it as a checklist. It was used, in most cases, after observation and the post-observation conference. The next section of the chapter addresses the emergent nature of the questions and data collection strategies.

The Emergent Nature of This Study

Initially the purpose was to gather data about information processing strategies of novice and expert supervisors in the teacher appraisal process. The term "information processing strategies" confused rather than clarified what was to be explored.

The interview questions and responses began to sharpen the focus about what supervisors saw when they watched a
teaching performance. After two interviews, the most important information was to what the supervisors paid attention and how they interpreted what they saw, rather than the steps or formats they used to conduct appraisals.

The question began to change. Instead of the teacher appraisal process, the study began to explore how supervisors made sense of the teaching performance. Kagan (1988) referred to teaching as a performance because it is a medium of communication evolving over time, an art. The dynamic nature of teaching means that many things are happening simultaneously, and the supervisor needs to make some decisions about what information he or she needs to gather.

An expert supervisor confirmed the view of teaching as a performance by using performance terms when she spoke:

I think sometimes (as a teacher) you have to be an actor and actress because on the days when you’re not feeling good and bringing a lot of baggage from home or other places that you’re thinking about, that’s going to come across unless you can really put on some facade and get the kids excited about what they’re doing. It’s the balance and being able to move back and forth and emphasize with enthusiasm when it’s needed, calm people there when you need it, that kind of thing. The use of voice, enthusiasm, I think acting skills really and consciously choosing them.

The question that emerged was how do novice and expert supervisors collect, process, and use data collected during observation of a teaching performance?

Three interviewing strategies guided data collection:

Tracing Personal Development in Appraisal Skills, Stimulated
Recall, and Key Wording. Tracing Personal Development used supervisors who were asked to recall their own development of appraisal skills over the years. This strategy gave some insights into the differences between novice and expert supervisors and valuable experiences that impacted supervisors' appraisal process schematas and strategies.

Stimulated Recall involved asking the supervisors to go back in their mind to their last observation. They were asked to watch themselves in the observation and tell what they remember seeing, hearing, and feeling. What were they paying attention to during observation of the teaching performance? Supervisors were asked to take a tour of sorts--what did they notice upon first entering the room? Then they were encouraged to follow the lesson sequence, recreating what they noticed and thought.

To assist and expand their recall, a follow-up question asked supervisors to refer to the notes they wrote during and after their observation. What did they choose to write down and why? This strategy assisted in identifying to what supervisors directed their attention. It also gave information about their interpretation of the task involved and strategies they used. Information about their analysis and synthesis of the data followed naturally.

The third strategy, Key Wording, resembled brainstorming. Supervisors were asked to explain what they saw, felt, or heard that told them good teaching was going
on when they walked into a classroom and observed a teaching performance. Schon (1983) indicated perhaps it would be easier to brainstorm deviations from the norm than the norm itself. So when supervisors' key wording about good teaching began to slow or pauses occurred, the coin was flipped and they were asked, "What do you notice in a classroom which sends up red flags and you know the teacher needs help?"

This strategy helped the researcher learn more about the supervisors' organizational patterns as well as their schema of good teaching. Supervisors used information from their collection of experiences rather than the most recent teacher observation. The researcher observed the supervisors, especially the novices, scanning for information through pauses, glances to the ceiling, and squinting their eyes as though they were squeezing the information through a sieve.

Male supervisors (novices and experts) in the process of key wording used more specific examples. They talked from what they observed, giving a scenario, for example:

Several years ago, and this teacher is no longer with us, I went in, the teacher was sitting in the chair . . . and she sat there the entire 50 minutes and used hand gestures to signal to the kids to do certain things. Kids were off task, energy level was low, no motivation and so obviously this is a situation that would warrant some kind of action. (Novice)

I’ll get to an example. A certain teacher that I’ve worked with is out among her peers and in that setting can be very rough, abrasive, almost, you would think would be an angry person, yet you go into the classroom
and where you think you would have fear and children shaking in their boots, you go in there and it's a remarkable change. The kids love her. They are comfortable where as in her presence in another situation in the lounge or the hallway or workroom, you may not know what's going to occur. In the classroom, you go in there and the kids feel a warmth. (Novice)

For example, when I was observing a teacher . . . the other day the lesson was adequately written, adequately structured so as they became very excited about what was going on, the teacher didn't lose the class. (Expert)

The female supervisors' responses to key wording usually involved brainstorming characteristics. What follows are examples of an expert and novice female response:

Are they teaching to the objective, do they have this objective at the right level of difficulty, is there evidence that they are modifying it for different kids, do the watch and make sure that the kids have learned it and if they haven't learned it, do they have some strategies for reteaching it. Do they know enough to go on if the kids already know it. You can sit in there a little and see that. I believe Madeline Hunter can do it in two or three minutes, I believe that. I can't do it that fast, but it doesn't take very long to figure out whether teachers have that internalized in their operating. (Expert)

You know, I expect the environment to be interactive, appropriate in that . . . I think it's totally inappropriate under any circumstances for a teacher to yell at children so I wouldn't want to see that, I expect their room to be inviting, welcoming, warm. (Novice)

The key wording strategy caused all supervisors to integrate their experiences. It was a good tool to gather information about how supervisors' interpret information and their use of templates, schematas, or mental models.
All three strategies helped in the analysis of data. Two levels of themes were found. After two interviews the questions changed to reflect the emphasis on a pay attention theme, novice to expert development theme, and how to make sense of the information gained in observation theme. The changes in the interview questions can be seen in Appendix A.

Another level of themes emerged through the analysis of audio tapes, transcripts, artifacts, and the reflective journal. Analysis began with the individual supervisor, then data was grouped and analyzed as novice or expert. Finally comparisons and differences of the collective novice and expert data were made.

The first theme was what supervisors paid attention to while observing. The next section addresses process and findings of this theme.

**Pay Attention Theme**

Analysis of the pay attention theme began with a compilation of a list of ideas generated from each supervisor. After the first interview, a male novice, the categories were easily identified. He labeled one category climate and the researcher labeled other responses instruction, classroom management, and interpersonal skills categories. The information generated from subsequent interviews fit these categories. Using large chart paper for response display assisted in comparison.
Some distinguishing characteristics emerged from the comparison of expert and novice groups in the pay attention theme. The presentation of methods used by experts and novices to gather data while observing a teaching performance will be given before the different categories and specific responses in this theme.

When experts and novices remembered their most recent observation and articulated to what they paid attention, their responses differed. The experts all said their focus was on the teacher, generally what the teacher said. The novice supervisors, in contrast, all referred to the climate or atmosphere of the classroom.

Analysis of their thought and words showed this contrast of the first words out of their mouth as significant. The experts focused immediately on the teacher. An examination of the document they actually wrote while observing bore that out. Experts wrote exactly what the teacher said. If the teacher wrote on the board, those words also appeared in the text of the document.

Several experts mentioned they also noticed and wrote down "exceptional" or "remarkable" student responses or non-responses. An expert said, "I don’t write every (student) response, only for a response that’s kind of different from what the teacher’s probably expecting or if the child is having difficulty . . . if it’s outside the norm." Rumelhart (1980) said schema guides our information
seeking and expectations guide our interpretation process. When something was not expected (like the student response), then it drew the experts' attention and reflection. This was the "surprise" of which Eisner (1991) and Schon (1983) wrote.

The script of what the teacher said became the tool for analysis for expert supervisors. Experts were able to re-read what the teacher said and could "fill in the student responses almost verbatim." The script provided a way for the appraiser to go back during analysis and look--"did that happen several times through the lesson and does that mean the teacher didn't check enough for understanding or did she not monitor as much as she should have?" Another expert reported, "always (writing enough) to be able to bring the lesson back to focus and always enough to be able to give specific examples." This recreation or tool for playback allowed experts to analyze the total performance like a videotape. Actually, it was better than a videotape because their field of vision was not limited, they did not have time to make judgments and they did not worry about the mechanics of filming.

Chi et al. (1988) reported that the experts' organized knowledge base helped them perceive meaningful patterns and solve problems by trying to understand them first. The experience of experts contributed to a richer and broader schema of good teaching. Rumelhart (1980) said from his
observation of teachers that what the experts wrote down was
the sensory input data that triggered interpretation through
their schema when they reread their notes. This allowed
them to be able to reconstruct the original interpretation
and understand what happened and why.

Several experts shared orally what they had written
with me. They were able to read what the teacher said and
then fill in the student responses that were not recorded.
These documents were three to eight pages in length and full
of abbreviations. They were written so quickly that I could
not decipher enough of the letters to type an example that
would make sense to the reader. What was written were only
direct quotes from the teacher and in some cases the child.

In contrast, the novice supervisors said they paid
initial attention to the more global picture. They were
aware of student/teacher interaction, classroom management,
and climate.

An example of this global picture from a novice is:

I write down everything. Everything that I can put my
hands on and my eyes on, I write down. Okay some
examples . . . as a teacher is going through the guided
practice, let's say that they are going through the
second, third, fourth, or fifth example and I know what
they're doing, I know where they are headed, okay,
which gives me an opportunity to think on a different
area. So what I'll do, during the course of that, that
time is perhaps look around the room and be aware of
what students are doing, how they are reacting to the
teacher's instruction, who's on task, who's off task,
classroom management, organization, what's the
classroom look like, are bulletin boards tied into
instruction? I try and keep myself constantly focused on the goal of being a good supervisor.

Another novice reported writing:

things that pop into my head at the moment that I’m sitting there thinking, well why isn’t this or why is, I’ll make questions, I’ll jot down questions to ask in the feedback session, in addition to what the teacher says, what kids say and questions kids ask.

Still another type of information collected by the novice supervisors was "things that would be good examples, or not, of specific situations." They had snapshots or segments of the lesson they could recall from their notes. Sometimes they had not written enough context to remember what happened or why they wrote the phrase.

What the majority of novices chose to write down was different from the experts. There was one novice exception who did document exclusively teacher quotes. The question itself, "What did you choose to write down?" brought tentative responses from the novice supervisors (e.g. "That’s a good question," "I think it may vary from teacher to teacher," "everything").

As they reflected and responded, they generally wrote down what they saw, what the teacher did, and what the students did. Novices also recorded questions they wanted to ask and examples to share in the feedback conference. Some of the phrases recorded by the novices during observation were analysis statements involving their judgment (e.g. "good wait time," "transition--minimal disruption--very little down time," "level of concern +,"

"noise--whispered, eye contact (disp. w/ dignity)," "walks around room to monitor students. All students working").

The documents written by novices during observation were one to four pages in length compared to the three to eight pages recorded by the experts. What the novice supervisors wrote down became what they analyzed rather than a tool to recreate the performance for analysis. The novices used a more literal description to make sense of the classroom. Berliner (1986) found this behavior also.

This suggests that novice and expert supervisors enter the classroom with different tasks. Most of the novices enter with the teacher feedback conference in mind. They are collecting information to contribute to the conference. Their role is that of critic so they need to make judgments. They appeared to want to apply interventions to measure, to find problems, and to find solutions.

The experts withheld judgment and recorded the facts. This allowed the expression of individual teaching to unfold. Experts' first priority was to understand what was happening. They continued the analysis of data after the observation and with the teacher in the post-observation conference.

Supervisors' organization of knowledge was seen in key wording. The experts got right to the point using broad labels as their key words for answering the question to what they paid attention (e.g. "the teaching act," "principles of
learning outlined by Hunter," "behavior of the teacher," "instructional and management practices"). I needed to probe and encourage the experts to elaborate and expand on their initial responses. Abernethy and Russell (1987) found experts reduced redundancy by chunking information. I almost felt uncomfortable probing what the experts had said because it appeared they thought what was encompassed in the phrase would be obvious.

The literature supports this finding. De Groot (1965) discovered that expert chess players forgot not everyone had the same information when they were explaining what they did too. Their intuitive experience was not built from the ground up each time so some communication gaps were created when they articulated what they did.

Schon (1984) found business managers had information that was inaccessible because they seldom reflected upon the information and did not articulate it to others. According to Berliner (1986), cooperating teachers were not able to articulate their knowledge to student teachers either.

We can all relate to this when we think about telling someone else how to drive a car with a stick shift. It has been a long time since we learned the feel of letting out the clutch and pressing the gas to move the car forward or backward. It is a difficult task to explain verbally to a novice. Our response may be the same as what experienced supervisors have said to novices--"just do it."
The experts identified instructional standards--(a) select and teach to the objective, (b) monitor and adjust, and (c) appropriate level of difficulty. The standards helped them organize the focus for observation. Lack of experience and standards would focus the observation on trivia instead, one expert reported. All instructional techniques, practices, and observations fit under one of those standards. They found themselves always learning something new and a few, broad standards provided more flexibility and openness to new ideas.

Leinhardt and Smith's (1983) research supports the experts' use of more vertical and deeper category systems compared to novice supervisors' horizontal and separate category system. The novices' responses in key wording and clustering resembled brainstorming and the words were free flowing with little probing.

As novices described what they paid attention to, their responses moved back and forth among the areas of climate, management, interpersonal skills, and instructional skills and ranged from very specific (e.g. pacing) to more global (e.g. classroom management) ideas. Their brainstorming was more panoramic in nature as opposed to the strand-like brainstorming of the experts.

A list of what novice and expert supervisors said they paid attention to during observation was constructed. Responses were coded in two ways. Who gave the response was
one; the content of the response was the other. Subjects are coded as follows:

**Identification Code**

NF1 = First Novice Female interviewed  
NF2 = Second Novice Female interviewed  
NF3 = Third Novice Female interviewed  
NM1 = First Novice Male interviewed  
NM2 = Second Novice Male interviewed  
NM3 = Third Novice Male interviewed  
EF1 = First Expert Female interviewed  
EF2 = Second Expert Female interviewed  
EF3 = Third Expert Female interviewed  
EM1 = First Expert Male interviewed  
EM2 = Second Expert Male interviewed  
EM3 = Third Expert Male interviewed

If a response used identical wording, or if it was clear the meaning was the same when listening to the response in context, one response was assigned more than one code (e.g. NF1, NF3, NM3, addresses individual needs of students). This indicated more than one person had the response. Many responses were similar, but it could not be determined if they were identical so they were listed separately (e.g. feeling tone, atmosphere, environment, climate).

The responses were also coded with a category label (e.g. instruction, climate, classroom management, and interpersonal skills). A few responses fit two categories. They were "openness," which was both interpersonal and climate, "the teacher circulating around the room" and "organization," which belonged in both the instructional and classroom management categories). All the categories were interwoven and necessary in the composite picture of what
supervisors paid attention to while observing the teaching act.

The novice supervisors, as a group, generated a list of 107 responses. The expert supervisors list included 88 responses. The experts' shorter list is attributed to the "chunking" of information. An analysis of the responses showed that 55% of the novice responses and 80% of the expert responses required the observer to pay attention to the teacher. This is congruent with what supervisors reported and what they actually wrote down. Experts focused primarily on what the teacher said and did. Novices attempted to observe and record "everything." The breakdown by category of responses for novices and experts are given in Figure 3.

EXPERT RESPONSES

NOVICE RESPONSES

Figure 3. Breakdown of responses.
The pie graphs (Figure 3) show experts had more responses than novices in the categories of instruction and things which were not bound to a single category. Novices had more responses in the categories of interpersonal skills, climate, and classroom management than experts.

The next section examines individual participant's responses within each category. Visually analyzing the lists showed experts had more responses in common with each other than the novices had with each other. Those which the experts shared were nearly all instructional in nature. This is probably due to the internalization of the Instructional Decision Making vocabulary. The novices' common responses were not linked to one particular category, but were split among interpersonal, instructional, climate, and management categories.

This next section presents these responses in detail. As each category of the pay attention theme is examined, a table of the responses given by supervisors will be provided with the code of participants who referred to the response.

**Instruction Category**

Experts had 40 responses in the instructional category, and novices had 41 responses. The common vocabulary of Instructional Decision Making (IDM) (Hunter, 1982) was present in both lists.
Novice Instruction Responses To What They Pay Attention

F1,F2,M1 Teacher has an objective
F1,F2,M1 Decisions teacher makes
F1,F2,F3 Overt student involvement
F1,F2,M2 Wait time
F1,F2,M3 Planning
F1,M1,M2 Teacher input
F1,F3,M3 Addresses individual needs of student
M1,M2,M3 Monitor and adjust
F1,F2,F3 Feeling tone
F1,M2 Modeling
F3,M1 Teacher knowledgeable of subject matter
F3,M1 Evaluation
M1,M3 Varying methods
M1,M3 Organization
F2,M1 Instruction unfolds
F2,M2 Teaching meaningful material
M2,M3 Closure
F3,M3 Teaching Principles (IDM)
F1,F2 Verbal reinforcement
F1 Covert student involvement
F1 Set
F1 Pacing
F1 Students know what they are doing
F1 Noise level related to activity
F1 Directions
F1 Questions teacher asks students
M1 Teaching strategies
M3 Teacher movement
M1 Goal oriented
M1 Transitions
M1 Over planning
M1 Study habits
F2 Inclusion of all students
M2 Activity
M2 Proximity
M3 Bulletin boards--age appropriate and relevant
M2 Teacher calls on a variety of students
M2 Bridging, connecting learning
F3 Teachers able to self analyze
M3 Motivation
M3 Thinking skills incorporated in the lesson

Expert Instruction Responses To What They Pay Attention

F1,F2,F3,M1,M2,M3 Teaching to the objective
F1,F2,F3,M1,M2,M3 Teacher behaviors to achieve the objective
F1,F2,M1,M2,M3 Modeling
F1,F2,F3,M1,M2 Checking for understanding
F1,F2,F3,M1,M2 Monitor and adjust
The common vocabulary shown in the novice and expert lists is striking. The difference is that the experts internalized the Instructional Decision Making vocabulary and concepts. They were able to list them quickly and confidently as seen in this example. The expert’s thoughts are connected and flow smoothly from one idea to the next.

The teacher is sharing that objective and purpose that she or he is sharing with youngsters. She’s building
on the past and tying it together with something that
they’re familiar with and moving toward, new learning
that has some connection or relationship with that.
With it the students are actively involved in the
learning. The teacher has a clear--she or he has done
a task analysis, what it takes for this concept to get
across and is doing some checking for understanding
with the steps that it takes, the progression that it
takes to put that together to have the whole concept,
that here in the process, I’m using an effective means
such as modeling so that I’m attending both to the
auditory and the visual and perhaps even the
kinesthetic, reaching out to the kids. I have to
provide the opportunity in the learning that both the
linear learner and the simultaneous learner both have
an opportunity to be successful and I’m guaranteeing
them . . . doing it in a way that is novel and
interesting to the kids and that . . . I’m doing it at
a level they’re going to feel successful with it and
that I’m going to give the appropriate kind of specific
feedback to them so that they know that they’re being
successful.

The novice supervisors knew some of the IDM vocabulary,
and most wished they had their chart to refer to during the
interview as seen in their responses:

I took the other course in it (IDM) so I think those
things stick with me and what I plan to do to help me
more with that, I remember my teacher printed up those
little big cards that have all the elements on them
and I thought that would be a handy thing for me to
stick in my clipboard, or whatever, if not at the time
I’m doing them (observations) then at least refer to
that later.

You’ve got to set the stage for comfortable learning
before you can even get into the curriculum and the
four stages, and you’re going to have to help me
because I can’t remember them without my little
sheet—selecting the correct objective, monitoring and
adjusting, evaluating and there’s another one in there
somewhere with all the subtopics and categories.

I sure don’t have this in my head, I didn’t even have
it near me and I’m thinking, do I want to grab that
little card on IDM tips, so I’m more aware of, I’m
watching for some of these things.
The novices took more time for identification and understanding of what they were seeing than the experts. Experts were able to record more because they had an effective method for capturing what was happening to replay and also an understanding of it.

A majority (at least four of the six) expert supervisors identified the following seven instructional components in their lists of what they paid attention to during observation: (a) teaching to the objective, (b) teacher behavior to achieve the lesson objective, (c) modeling, (d) checking for understanding, (e) monitoring and adjusting, (f) making connections or transfer of learning and (g) active involvement. The majority of novice supervisors (four of the six) did not identify any common instructional elements.

The instructional vocabulary is so well developed through District IDM training and the experiences of watching and analyzing strategies with teachers that experts were able to link other categories to something in the instructional category. For example, climate was connected to the IDM terms feeling tone and motivation. An expert described this connection. "An important part of motivation, because I think when you set the feeling tone, how people feel about learning, they’re going to be motivated when the feeling tone is positive . . . so that climate is the feeling tone that’s going to help
motivation." Experts saw the interrelatedness of all categories. Their command of the instructional vocabulary freed them to develop other ways of describing what else goes on in the classroom (e.g. the climate and interpersonal skills categories).

Novices saw climate as a separate category.

The first thing that comes to mind (when thinking about good teaching) is atmosphere, climate. Good climate, it's not, and by that I'm not talking about as much the physical walls, and what's up and what's neat and tidy in the room, whether the teacher's desk is clean or dirty, it's how the kids are reacting to the instructor in the classroom.

Climate, from supervisors' descriptions, includes the connections and interactions of people to people, expectations, and content. Climate will be examined as a category separate from instruction because when supervisors were asked to label their ideas, they stated climate was a separate category.

Climate Category

The climate theme was the most difficult for both the expert and novice supervisors to describe, but it was the first and foremost response by both groups to the question: "How do you know good teaching is going on in the room?" An expert described climate as a "more nebulous concept which is identified more intuitively." Novice and expert supervisors included the word feeling when trying to describe the complexity of climate as seen in the following examples. An expert reported,
You can read children's response to teachers, how interested they are, how well they're participating. I think that you can see, just, sometimes you can almost feel, there just is a sense of an atmosphere, a climate. I guess it's their (teachers') personality personified through instruction that develops climate. If they're excited about learning, the kids are going to be excited about learning.

Novices reported similar feelings:

I walk into a classroom and sometimes you feel the energy. Sometimes you see it, you see a teacher that through their enthusiasm and the way that they interact with the students and get the students motivated, they've got 'em on task, they've got them excited about learning and the teacher is using a lot of those strategies that are essential for learning to occur . . . you can sense it. And call it climate, call it I don't know—a teacher's karma, whatever you want to call it, you can sense it.

The principal I'm working with now, we talked about, when we're down . . . we're a little down in the mouth, we talked about what do we do, where do we go at that point and we both have come to the conclusion, we go into certain teacher's classrooms. We'll invariably go to those teachers and just sit in this classroom and just watch the instruction unfold, and it's not the instruction we're watching, it's the feeling of the classroom. The instruction is excellent, but it's also, here's a nice place to be. Things are under control here, kids are having a good educational experience and because of it, that's where we want to be, we want to recharge our battery there . . . because that's where there's that caring and love atmosphere that gets kids to feel good about themselves so they can feel good about them.

Sergiovanni (1987) would agree with the need for supervisors to use intuition to look at aspects of the classroom. According to Evertson and Holley (1981), observation is the only way to get a handle on the important aspect of climate. The climate theme, in this study, was lacking the common vocabulary found in the instructional category, but supervisors characterized it as "essential to
learning" and as having a "major role in people being successful."

Supervisors did not have as many responses in the climate category in common and there were fewer total responses than the instruction category.

**Novice Climate Responses To What They Pay Attention**

- F1,F2,M1,M2  Atmosphere
- F3,M1,M2,M3  Climate
- F2,F3,M1  Warmth
- F2,F3,M1  Kids' comfort level
- F2,M1  Stable, consistent, safe place
- M1,M2  Global
- F2,F3  Kids want to come to school
- F3,M2  Invites you in
- M1,M2  Teacher close to students
- F2  Joy of teaching--joy of learning
- M1  Kids free to move
- M1  Nice place for adults and kids
- M1  Teacher generates interest outside the classroom
- F2  Feeling of cohesiveness
- M2  Student work up on walls
- F3  Children's names up
- F3  Self esteem of the children
- M3  Energy
- M1  Communication of care
- F2  Wherever you are--you are okay

**Expert Climate Responses To What They Pay Attention**

- F1,F2,M2,M3  Teacher is a learner
- F1,F3  Climate
- F1,M1  Students are excited about learning
- M1  Comfort
- M1  Environment
- F1  Atmosphere
- F1  Sparkle
- F3  Warmth
- M3  People people
- M1  Clicking

The short list is due, in part, to the supervisors' descriptions of climate encompassing connections and interactions. It is a broader concept, difficult to
delineate. An interesting phenomena was discovered that illustrated these connections, especially with the interpersonal skill theme.

All experts and half of the novices used a key word or phrase to symbolize the important concept of climate. "The concept of good teaching is more nebulous, maybe you can’t define it," stated the novice. She went on to say, "what is nebulous may be joy . . . the joy of learning and the joy of teaching." The other novices said "the sense of energy in the air" and "warmth" were the characteristics of climate they noticed upon entering a room.

The expert supervisors described climate in greater detail and with specific examples. An expert when referring to climate used the word sparkle. Sparkle was used five different times in her transcription. It described climate as a positive interpersonal skill or personality in concert with an ability to connect to the students and the content. Here is one example of her symbol use:

No, I think they (teachers) can say all the right things and go through it very methodically as far as a lesson, but unless there’s that sparkle, unless there’s that sincerity, unless there’s that climate, that feeling tone interwoven with the lesson, um, it’s pretty, it’s pretty sterile.

Other experts used such symbols as "people persons," "warmth," "a rapport and relationship between teacher and the student is there--it’s clicking and you know it’s clicking," "the teacher as learner--it’s total karma," "the
teacher has internalized in their operating the standards of good teaching" within their responses.

The list of responses show a majority of the novice supervisors included "climate" and also "atmosphere" in what they pay attention to during observation. For example, a novice said, "I think one of the things that I pay attention to is just the general feeling tone of the whole classroom, the atmosphere, how the kids interact with each other, how the teacher's interacting with the students."

The experts were more likely to say their symbol word (e.g. "sparkle") then use the word climate as one of the descriptors or examples of it. Novice and expert supervisors did not let the art or performance of teaching go unnoticed as they tried to capture it with a symbol.

The descriptors and symbols attempt to articulate the intangibles of climate referred to by Hyman (1975), Eisner (1991), Day et al. (1988), and the global impression discussed by Eisner (1982) and Kagan (1989). The third category is Classroom Management.

**Classroom Management Category**

Novice and expert supervisors recognized classroom management as a separate category. This category did not have the variety or amount of responses seen in the other categories, but there was strong agreement on the ones mentioned. The pilot study had the same results.
Novice Classroom Management Responses To What They Pay Attention

F1,F2,F3,M1,M2,M3 Kids on task
F1,F2,M1,M3 Classroom management
F1,M2,M3 Awareness of the individual and the whole room
F1 Routines established
F1 Clear expectations
F1 Smooth flow
F1,M1 Control by the teacher

Expert Classroom Management Responses To What They Pay Attention

F1,F3,M1,M2,M3 On task and off task behavior
F2,F3,M1,M2 Classroom Management (routines)
F3,M1 Structure
F3 Teacher awareness of the whole room

The data shows the important element of student on task behavior in the collection of data about classroom management. The majority (four of the six) novice and expert supervisors said they paid attention to classroom management. The supervisors used those common words. I do not know if they assumed everyone knew what they meant or if their meanings were the same. Probing into it with a question such as "Why were students on task?" might have brought more variety and information to their responses. The last category to explore is Interpersonal Skills.

Interpersonal Skill Category

Interpersonal skills were linked to all categories. According to Carhuff (1987), this link is powerful because all intentional learning is done in the context of an interpersonal relationship. It was surprising that the relationships between teacher and student was not
articulated with as much power or description as the standards of instruction.

Novice Interpersonal Skills Responses To What They Pay Attention

F1,F2,F3,M1,M2,M3 Interaction of students with students
F1,F3,M2 Teachers dignify student answers
F1,F2,M2 Students are respectful
F3,M1,M2 Kids reaction to the instructor
F3,M1,M2 Parents do not report concern
M1,M2 Teacher’s verbal response to students
M1,F3 Humor
F2,F3 Parent involvement
F3,M3 Interpersonal relationships
F3,M3 Interaction and teaming with other teachers
F1 Interaction of students with students
F1 Teacher makes the student responsible
F1 Teacher body language
F1 Teacher pulls students to them
M1 Kids going up to the teacher
M1 Questions kids ask
M1 Teacher’s voice tone
M1 Teacher’s non-verbal response to students
M1 Touch
M1 Students like teacher
M1 Students want to please
M1 Teacher and students enjoy each other
M1 Teasing back and forth
M1 Laughter
M1 Kids know teacher cares
M1 Teaching peers do not report concerns
M1 Cooperation
M1 Student attachment to teacher
F2 Enjoy teaching
F2 Enthusiasm
F2 Teacher is not directive
F2 Feelings matter
F2 Love
F3 Rapport
F3 Positive attitude
M3 Students excited about learning
F3 Self esteem of the child

Expert Interpersonal Skill Responses To What They Pay Attention

F1,M1,M3 Student and teacher interaction
F1,F3,M1 How the teacher responds to the student
F1,M1,M2 Teacher contact with students
F2, M1, M3  Rapport, relationship between teacher and students
F1, M1, M3  Enthusiasm
F1, M1  Nonverbal behavior of teacher
F1, F2  Teacher dignifies the answers of students
F1, F3  Voice tone
F1, M2  Balance
M2, M3  Positive attitude
M2, M3  Caring and loving kids
M1  Nonverbal behavior of students
M1  Verbal behavior of students
M1  Trust level
M1  Students take risks (express ideas, not scared or anxious)
F1  Teacher's whole body
F1  Smiles
F1  Teacher is animated
F1  Teacher personality is personified in interest
F1  Sincerity
F1  Teacher gestures
M2  Student/student interaction
M3  Children like the teacher
M3  Teacher uses children's names
M3  Empathy
M3  Understanding

Few supervisors chose the specific words "interpersonal relationships" to describe what they paid attention to in the teaching performance, but 37 novice responses and 26 expert responses belonged to this category. All the novice and the majority of expert supervisors agreed they paid attention to the interactions between the teacher and students during observation. The lack of a common vocabulary was evident in the low agreement in terms used. In contrast, an expert reported, "the common vocabulary (in the area of instruction) cuts down on time that we might invest in just trying to show that we're understanding and we're talking, we're saying the same thing." This would be a reason supervisors might want to explore and share ideas
on other areas to develop common vocabularies from which to start building understanding.

You may read these responses and see them more appropriately assigned to another category. Placement of the data into categories was made by listening and reading responses in context. They were assigned two different times to categories, then compared. Placement of all but nine responses were in the same category both times. After re-reading those nine responses, they were placed in a category. It is impossible to present enough text in this chapter for the reader to have all the information available.

The experts had some important areas to which they paid attention that did not fit any category because they were more open ended. Depending on what the supervisor observed, the response could be placed in a different category each time. This finding was presented early in the Pay Attention Theme section and shows the expert supervisors' willingness to suspend judgment when collecting data. The responses that do not fit in a single category follow:

**Expert Responses Which Fit More Than One Category**

- **F1,F2,F3,M1,M2,M3** Focus on the teacher (what they say and their behavior)
- **F1,F3,M1,M3** Response of students, non verbal or verbal (if it is a surprise)
- **F1,M1** Teacher focus
- **M1,M2** What the teacher asks the supervisor to observe or look for
- **M1,M2** The growth objective from the previous lesson
Novice Responses Which Fit More Than One Category

M3 Student excited about learning
M3 School goals

What is observed in this category is that experts use open-ended pay attention themes where the response could be in one or several categories. These responses needed the context of the situation to be able to place them in a category. This category represents more flexibility in what experts pay attention to and their desire to understand what is happening.

This concludes what the 12 supervisors paid attention to while observing a teaching performance. Novices focused on information to measure, to judge problems, to find solutions, and to reward. Experts focused on collecting data without judgment. They would focus on the classroom experience later with teachers. The next question is how the supervisors made sense of the data they collected.

Making Sense of the Data Theme

Information about making sense of the data emerged from the interviews in two ways. One was through the supervisor’s template or schema of good teaching. The other way supervisors made sense of the data was through the appraisal process of pre-observation conference, data collection, data analysis, and post-observation conference.
**Schema or Templates**

The notion of what, if anything, supervisors measured or laid their observation against emerged through the key wording strategy. Experts quickly said their own teaching was not the template to which they measured teaching. One expert talked specifically about how dangerous it was to use self as a prototype because we all do not have the same strengths.

I think that probably, first a couple things about the dangers of the prototype. One is, I never want to think how I would teach that lesson as being that prototype. Because my strengths are not the teacher’s strengths and his or her strengths are not my strengths so for me to expect them to teach the lesson how I would have taught it, so, or how I saw somebody else teach it is not an effective thing to have in mind.

There is also, I think, a subtle danger in the prototype of IDM and that is that if I get the notion that of almost a checklist kind of thing, did all of these kinds of things happen, but yes I think the model if, I think all of us ought to be able to describe what good teaching is and I think that as I’ve indicated before, I think the IDM model does, is a good a summation as anything else that I’ve seen and so, as I do an analysis of the lesson in my mind, it’s not while I’m observing as much as the time that I’m thinking about that lesson after the fact and then as I interact with the teacher in the sense of them trying to pull out of them telling me what they did and what they saw was effective and what they saw as areas of growth and why they did it, why that was effective, what it looked like . . . if you use it kind of in the process to think about the lesson and what are the elements of good teaching, I think if you had no notion of elements of good teaching, I don’t know how you could ever assess whether teaching is good or not.

Experts saw themselves in the position of learner even as a supervisor. They did not know it all nor were they the best "sixth grade teacher." They talked about seeing "so many right ways to do it (teach)" that they could not
possibly develop one template and expect to hold teachers to that template as feared by Eisner (1982) and Sergiovanni (1987). Again this reinforces the theme of experts suspending judgment during observation.

Eisner (1991) agrees the supervisor must help teachers develop personal strengths because there is more than one right way to teach. He says our goal is not to have teachers who are alike, but to have teachers who are distinct and unique. Supervisors need to interpret what they see, so the personal strengths can be built upon and teaching can become distinctive and unique for the individual.

Perhaps supervisors are measuring teaching against a philosophy. One supervisor believed that every child needs to be successful. When she watches teaching, it is measured against the question, "Is that helping kids be successful?" A novice supervisor said schema is a "conceptual framework that is very big." She "intuitively knows a good teacher." As her experiences grows, she predicts her "tolerance or acceptance of the broad continuum of good teachers" will grow and change.

Experts acknowledged that Hunter’s Instructional Decision Making (IDM) model "does match what is in my head as good teaching." Experts described IDM as "validating the observation" or providing a "framework of common language for supervisors and teachers." Another expert saw the IDM
model as "okay if it is used to help the teacher discover for themselves what they saw was effective and why" and where they could grow. He was quick to say the IDM model was a dangerous prototype if it was used as a checklist to which the teaching performance was measured. This matches the district view stated in the Appraisal Handbook. According to Stenhouse (1983), checklists narrow the view of the teaching and learning contexts because they are unable to take into account skill, quality, and intention. Bryant (1988) saw the standard evaluative template stifling teacher creativity.

Many of the novice supervisors had "a vague picture" or "hadn't thought about the template they used while observing teachers." After reflection, they thought their experiences as teachers were part of the template as well as IDM skills and professional reading. A novice response to a question about templates or schemas was,

I haven't thought about that. IDM, I think internalization of IDM helps you define what the expectations are of a good teacher, but, you know what I think it's more of a concept that you have, it's kind of this schema map thing that you've drawn from all your experiences go into making up of what you have internalized is a good teacher . . . IDM was a verbal articulation of what a good teacher is and good teachers always fit that already. We might have formalized the dialogue a little bit more so that appraisers can see it, but they were already doing that, good teachers already did IDM.

Novices with experience in a teaming environment included what they saw working for other people in addition to what they learned from their personal experiences. The
teaming experience played a part in what novice supervisors' templates looked like. A novice explained the advantage of being in an open space teaming environment:

All the years I was in the classroom, I had people around me all the time. I think that’s helpful because otherwise some people may base it (appraisal) just on how they were as a teacher.

She saw that happen with some people in her situation:

We run into that in teaming, that is, somebody’s not teaching exactly the way somebody else is, they think that they’re not quite as good a teacher and that’s not true. The opportunity to see many ways of teaching helped this novice expand her notion of good teaching.

Another novice said he learned from the experience he had with a student teacher.

I probably had . . . a larger capacity for wanting to have control myself, but I recognize that every teacher is different and what I had to have did not have to occur, or does not have to occur in another teacher’s classroom because each individual is different. I had a student teacher who had a tremendous tolerance level for noise and for movement and activity in the room that was somewhat unstructured. And he felt that that was very much a learning experience also. And while we worked together, I had to adapt and adjust and I did not criticize his method or his style because I recognized that if he’s going to be successful, he’s going to have to be his own teacher.

A third novice mentioned how the work with a student teacher was helpful "because you then are forced to reflect somewhat on your teaching and try to give them feedback and rationale."

The experiences novice supervisors had with appraisal as teachers themselves had an impact also. When I asked one novice about training he said, "None at all. Uh, just what other people have done with me and I’ve only felt in my
years that I only had one good model of having an effective appraisal done on myself. I keep in contact with that person." Another novice said, "I worked under the direction of people that were very involved in that process (appraisal), very precise about it. That was wonderful and the people that have always done my appraisals have been excellent mentors and models to try and follow."

The schema or mental models are modified by experience. The novice supervisors pulled from their own teaching, watching other teachers on their team, and experiences with student teachers. Experts have had years of watching many teachers at different levels of development teach. Experts talked about constantly learning from observations and feedback conferences. This enabled them to see many right ways to teach, allowing their schema to become more flexible, richer, and broader.

Another way supervisors can make sense of the data they observe is through the appraisal process itself. In this study, all the supervisors used pre-observation conferences, observations, analysis time, and post-observation conferences in their appraisal process.

**Appraisal Process**

The pre-observation conference phase was very similar for novice and expert supervisors. At this point in the process both groups gathered information from the teacher about the lesson and the students who would be in the room
during the observation time. Teachers were asked if they had anything in particular they wanted the supervisor to observe.

This is where the supervisors' objective for observation begins to emerge. The expert is collecting data for understanding and the novice is collecting data for the teacher appraisal conference.

An expert supervisor showed his desire to understand when he talked about the pre-observation form he has teachers fill out before the conference. He said,

The last two questions are the most important because this is what changes me from a judge to a helper. "Is there anything I need to know about this class?" so if Derek and Ricky are having a hard time, the teacher doesn't have to sit there and hope that they're going to be good. She's already told me they're not, and then it opens the door and says, "Okay, help me in this area." The other question is, "Is there any specific feedback you would like from this observation?" What this does is that takes two kinds of teachers—one who's really open for help and one who's really averse to criticism—and it puts the ball back in my court and says, "You're coming into my turf. Here's my guidelines. Here's what I want from you. You're judging me, but I want this from you." And so the last two questions really balance the psychological impact between teacher and principal or appraiser and appraisee.

A novice supervisor said he "examines lesson plans. We go over those in detail, usually in the pre-conference, I'll have them bring in what their objective is and we'll go through that in detail and they'll tell me what they're going to do."
Another novice said,

Before the observation I like to have a pre-observation conference and ask the instructor, "What do you want me to look for? What's your lesson plan and what are you really good at? So cue me into what you'd like for me to observe so I'll cue in on that."

The pre-conference gave some supervisors specific things to look for in the observation. The background information, on the lesson and the students, gave the supervisor the ability to anticipate some of the things that will happen in the lesson and assist them in making sense of the data.

In the observation phase, novice and expert supervisors all reported they script-taped the lesson. Reviewing the actual documents supervisors recorded during observation showed contrasts in their idea of script-taping. Experts consistently wrote what the teacher said and did. There were also some "exceptional" student responses noted by the experts. One novice supervisor followed the same method of script-taping.

The majority of novice supervisors said they script-taped. When the documents they wrote during observation were reviewed, the researcher found they had done something different. They recorded:

1. What they observed (e.g. "Jason leaning back--feet on table," "proximity to student," "webbing," "Tom never did figure out the process," "Classroom very bright and
colorful. School rules and daily schedule posted," "All students working," "Climate--very comfortable").

2. Reactions to what was observed ("Very good control of the class," "Stars help keep on task," "Good strategy to take book around to the kids," "Do special ed. students do a diff. program?", "Would doing the process step by step together save on 'down' time?").

3. Teacher quotes.

4. Suggestions (e.g. "Maybe small class discussion about electricity," "Might want to only do 15 min. of instruction before activity").

The novices wrote down what they were consciously aware of during observation with the goal of preparing for the post-observation conference with the teacher. Novices saw part of their job as supervisor to "critique," help teachers improve, determine what the teacher could change, and what the teacher did well so teachers can make conscious decisions to continue to do it if they were not already.

The novice experience was not unlike going to the State Fair for the first time. There is so much to see and you want to take it all in, but your primary focus has to be not to get lost. The novice evaluator needs to complete the appraisal form and is trying to acquire knowledge of the person and the context as well as determining what to look for, what it means, and how to talk about it.
Swanson, O’Connor, and Cooney (1990) observed, in their study of expert and novice teachers, differences in dealing with problem behavior in the classroom. The novice teachers were primarily concerned with solving the problem rather than thinking of possible aspects of the problem and the consequences.

Novice supervisors were concerned about their role as a supervisor and their credibility with teachers. One novice put it plainly, "I don’t feel real comfortable in that kind of content (talking about areas for growth) and how to word those things to elicit from the instruction—Why did you do this? What were you getting at? and Where were you trying to go? . . . a concern I have is do they feel I’m qualified to find an area of growth?"

Another novice talked about his "fear and uncertainty" of appraising someone who had been a teacher 30 years when he had been in the classroom for only five years. Uncertainty was created by the difference in years of experience and also the kind of experience. "I mean, how can I truly observe and critique an instrumental music teacher when I don’t even play an instrument? I don’t even know note A from note B. I mean that’s how little I know." It was fear and uncertainty that created "the motivation to search for information and answers" to improve his skills for one novice.
Rust (1988) found his novice subjects more tentative and concerned about other people’s perceptions that was also found in this study. Rust (1988) found expert subjects drew upon what they had learned from their mentors when making decisions and problem-solving. This research found experts did not have mentors to lean on for support in the appraisal process. The novice supervisors were the ones who had mentors and used them heavily.

Expert supervisors viewed their role differently. A contrast, from the novices, was the absence of suggestions, reactions, and general observations in what experts recorded during observation. The experts’ script-tapes were teacher quotations. The expert’s role was professional rather than bureaucratic. An expert in the pilot said it was attitudinal and "goes back to the fact that teachers are professional and they can do the right thing." Experts supervisors’ objective of growth rather than improvement became clear when they spoke of the post-observation conference phase of appraisal. Data about the feedback conference phase of appraisal identified three ways experts encourage growth.

1. Experts viewed their role as a partner, not a critic. The expert supervisor and teacher relationship is like a director and performer. They are tied together, working toward a perfect performance. An expert reported that the teacher decides if he or she will change and the
supervisor cannot change anyone or make them do anything. Teachers "get out of appraisal what they put into it."

Another expert said, "You can make people willing to go but you can’t make them go against their will."

A third expert talked about how easy it is to get to a mindset that it’s my job to make this teacher a better teacher but really none of us can externally make somebody, we can be the catalyst that makes it happen, but we can’t make them better unless they’re ready to recognize it and want to grow.

The real goal was to do some "data gathering that you’re trying to sell to the teacher . . . they buy into this is valuable information to them and they can use it to make themselves better teachers."

Experts saw their job to encourage the teacher to reflect, do self-research, experiment or "take risks" and self-evaluate—to help teachers grow. A strong theme—a good teacher is a "learner"—emerged from the majority of experts. An expert describing a master teacher said, "If a teacher’s a real learner, they’ll want to try everything, and so I’ll say, ‘what things did you have in it that made it go so well so that I can share with somebody else.’" We need reflection to learn and the summative process places teachers in a position to think about their teaching before they are observed and again after the fact thus creating a possible vehicle for change. This self-evaluation is exactly the qualitative change in skill emphasis proposed by Taylor (1986) and Glasser (1990) for students and schools.
One expert said looking for "improvement" was negative because it has the connotation that what they saw wasn’t good. He compared it to going to someone’s house, having a nice dinner, then saying thank you but I want to help you get better. "The purpose (of appraisal) is to work together for growth." Other experts referred to appraisal as a "duet," "a natural back and forth" or a "blend" between the supervisor and teacher. The post-observation conference allowed the teacher to see their lesson through the eyes of another person. The post-observation conference also provided a setting to make sense of the data together. Experts found teachers could analyze their lessons well, and many times teachers identified the same change as the supervisor had thought.

When experts talked about the "ultimate in teacher appraisal," they spoke in terms of this partnership. Experts expressed a desire to "coach," "collaborate," and have appraisal become "collegial." An expert said,

If they are able to take what I say and I’m able to present it in such a fashion that they can take what I’m offering them and use it or discard it as they choose, then that’s, that’s how they’ll benefit. It’s the coach and professional athlete frame of mind.

2. Experts took into account the individual teacher and where they are developmentally in order to maximize growth. Experts referenced Glickman and his developmental stages for teachers in their thoughts about planning post-observation conferences. Experts considered the experiences
of the individual teacher, the supervisor/teacher relationship, and the lesson as they made decisions.

Most expert supervisor did not feel they needed to have a performance improvement objective for each teacher. If the teacher was able to identify changes, then the supervisor reinforced them and their analysis. Experts reported times when a performance improvement objective would be "nit picking" for a master teacher. Sometimes performance improvement objectives were omitted because "it was not the best way to help the teacher at a particular developmental stage." A trust level needs to be built before growth objectives could be heard by the teacher according to one expert. Another expert reported that in post-observation conferences with new teachers she lets them go first in the interaction because she does not want to interject her own thoughts and feelings until the teacher has had an opportunity to share. A pilot study expert advised new supervisors "to know the people (teachers) first. They need to know them well enough to know what they are seeing and be able to understand the subtleties."

3. Performance improvement was also encouraged by experts in the iterative process of appraisal. The post-observation conference led to discovery for both the supervisor and teacher rather than just telling what was seen. The theme of surprise emerged again as a stimulus for attention and reflection for the supervisors.
An expert reported,

I guess that’s the fun part of it (observation), you get surprised. Sometimes you are working with somebody in committees or talking in the hall frequently, and maybe it’s the third, fourth, fifth, to tenth time you’ve been in their room for an observation, you see something totally different from anything you’ve ever seen before from that person and you think—WOW, where did they pull that one from?

Another expert referenced surprise when he said,

You can go 19 minutes of a 20-minute observation and have everything just be exactly right and then all of a sudden something will happen and, that, it will really help the teacher if you sit down and talk to them.

A discussion of post-observation conference brought to light the many places and times expert supervisors analyzed the lesson. Analysis occurred during observation, after observation, and with the teacher in the post-observation conference. "I want to hear what the teacher consciously did to make that part of those things a good lesson."

Experts gave examples of what they perceived as a possible performance improvement objective changed when the teacher shared what made them choose to do it the way they did. For example, the expert noticed a teacher gave absolutely no wait time, that was a thing I wanted to go back to, now why did you consciously choose to do that? And I say consciously choose whether or not they consciously choose, and she said, because those kids don’t know how to use wait time yet because I’ve tried it and I have to keep them with me all the time and she said so that’s why I move fast. (It was a) special ed class, made sense. I understood it, she explained it for me. So what I had thought was a refinement objective turned out to be a reinforcement objective because she actually had a conscious reason for doing that.
Another expert explained a supervisor's role as "reinforcing the teacher for seeing the whole and what needs to be done." Experts seemed comfortable and felt it is necessary to continue to collect information during the post-observation conference and allow the analysis to continue to emerge.

An expert supervisor, from the pilot study, was able to put the analysis steps he used into words. His description as well as the emergence theme found in experts' analysis resembled the qualitative research process. His words and underlined phrases which follow qualitative methodology follow:

I read through it first, to make sure I have a general flow. As I'm reading through it the first time through is to identify activities. You are watching the room, the teacher is using a particular tool, whatever it is, and you can tell, okay this is the beginning of this activity and this is the end of this activity. When you read in the tape it may not be so clear. So I'll go back in and go back with my minutes noted and get an idea. Okay, you spent four minutes going through the first step of this two step equation process. You spent a couple of minutes, kind of doing a checking for understanding with kids doing their seat work. And then you went back and introduced material for the second step you wanted to do and then you can kind of see the time variable and (chops down with his hands about 12 inches apart) chunk it out by activities. That's the second step I do and then I'll go back and start looking for, by then I'll have some feel for what the lesson is like and where it's going what strikes me as good about it or what strikes me as something I need to dig into a little more. And I'll go back and start labeling some stuff. Now I'm not real head up about labeling every damn thing in the lesson. I got away from that some time ago. It was just a lot of waste. I started using more subjective judgment to come towards what is it that I want to pull out of this thing. It clouds the issue if you follow a strict clinical type of evaluation. If you're going to use
this Hunter approach or something, you go back and label every damn thing like you're supposed to do, the person—it ends up to being just too much data to deal with in terms of a conference. So I'll have made a decision of what I want to look for and work with and key in more on that and let some things go.

Eisner (1991) encouraged people to use thematics and descriptors as tools when evaluating teachers in their complex settings. It appears the expert supervisors let themes emerge from their analysis. They began with collecting data through teacher quotation and constructed meaning with the teacher. They sought understanding. The novice supervisors began with the schema of good teaching, then reacted to the teaching they observed in light of the schema.

Another practice that follows qualitative methodology is triangulation of data. All experts and some of the novice supervisors who are following the process established by their mentors moved toward collecting data from the teacher in portfolio or self-evaluation form in addition to observation to help them make sense of their data. This requires supervisors to interpret what they see (Eisner, 1991) and collect data from a variety of sources to support or give meaning to what they observe. A next step will be to collect data from a variety of perspectives formally as well (Hyman, 1975; Stanley & Popham, 1988). Data collection formally drawn from peers, students, and parents was shared by experts as they projected into the future about the appraisal process.
The schema and appraisal process helped supervisors make sense of their data. Novice and expert supervisors came to the task of observation with different agendas, different experiences, and different developmental levels. Experts viewed observation and the post-observation conference as an opportunity for the teacher and themselves to learn. Novices felt responsibility to be accountable and "in charge" of the evaluation process. The next section examines the developmental theme of novice to expert supervisors.

**Novice to Expert Development Theme**

Half of the expert participants in this study reported that they were observed and given feedback when they were a teachers, but not with the process used by supervisors today. Their experience consisted of the supervisor observing them and then writing up an evaluation form for them to sign. It did not include the criterion-based expectations and descriptors used in contemporary appraisal, nor was there a format for collecting their reflections in a pre- or post-observation conference. The other three expert supervisors were never observed by their supervisor when they were teachers.

I was a classroom teacher from 1954 til about 1965... and I never, never ever had anyone come in and observe me and give me feedback on teaching or say anything about my teaching, at all. Period, the end. The emphasis on helping people grow as professionals through some kind of appraisal process just wasn't in place and I had lots of questions about whether I was
doing things or what I did well and, or what I didn't do very well or what I could do differently.

The appraisal experience of the experts gave them an idea about appraisal to build upon, but it did not provide a structure or process.

I considered myself to be a good teacher, but I always got real nervous because there was so much emphasis placed on the one observation . . . so I decided that when I became a principal . . . I was going to do a lot of visitations to classes so that I could see over a long period of time.

The experts shared a strong interest in appraisal and an attitude/belief about the importance and difference appraisal could make for teachers and students. "I believe it (appraisal) is the single most important thing that I do," said one expert. Another expert said that if "I'm helping them (teachers) move toward excellence, frankly there isn't anything as a supervisor in my job that's more important than that. So I don't care if I have 50 of them if I'm accomplishing that, that is the most important thing in this whole job." All of the expert supervisors in this study reported that they seek out training and continue to learn and grow in the area of supervision.

Another expert shared that the appraisal should not only be important to the supervisor. He said, be sure the staff knows that it's a priority and then it would become a priority for them. (It is important to)--talk a lot about it, and make sure they know that it's one of the more fun parts of your job because it really is for me. Then the second thing I would say is if you truly believe that, you better not only act like it, you better make sure you have lots of observations and that you don't slide it to the back burner . . . I
just really love watching them teach and I always tell them that it builds up my data bank for when I share with other teachers.

That data base puts the supervisor in a position "as a non-teller" because he can ask if the teacher would like to know how other teachers have handled a similar problem, he said.

There were first and second generation novice supervisors. First generation supervisors were not appraised as teachers themselves. Second generation novice supervisors have experienced the current appraisal process when they were teachers. Their appraisal experience provided them with a framework and structure upon which to build their own process.

One of the novice supervisors interviewed was a first generation novice. The other five novice supervisors were second generation novices and all of their supervisors had been identified by District Office personnel as "experts." These second generation novices had an idea of a procedure and a schema from what was modeled for them as teachers which in turn gave them confidence about themselves. By the third year of using the appraisal process, a second generation novice described himself, "I feel very confident at this point."

All of the second generation novice supervisors credited the supervisors they had as teachers as giving them the best and in some cases the only information they had on
which to base their supervision process. Many of the
novices referred to their teaching supervisor as their
mentor. The first generation novice found the principal as
her mentor. She thought she was extremely lucky because not
all principals would have taken the time to share and
mentor. Not only did novices have questions about the
process but also the skills required to gather data.

Another part of the novice to expert theme is the skill
of recording data. Both experts and novices referred to
their special "shorthand," "codes" (stars, pluses, notes in
the margin, parentheses, brackets, different colors of ink,
time indicators), and labeling as part of the process.

The basic skill of writing fast enough and being able
to decipher what they had written, then "organizing the data
and making sense of what was seen" were areas of concern
reported by novices. Two novices reported they needed to go
back and rewrite their notes after observation or they would
not be able to figure out what it said later.

Then I try to script what's going on even though I'm no
good at it. I need to find some way to learn how to do
that to be able to write quickly or abbreviate it in
writing but try to get what the teacher's saying and
how the students are responding and then how the
teacher responds. So, I try to get that and what it
ends up being--I'll be able to do it for a minute or
two and then I'll have to catch myself up and I'll go
on, you know, skip some lines and go on to another
situation so it's kind of hit and miss scripting
because I'm just not efficient enough to just continue
to do that. . . . Then I'll go back, I'll retyping those
up so that I can read it. If I'd let it go for a day,
I probably wouldn't be able to read it because I'm
writing so fast, it's hard for me to read my writing
and then have the post-conference within 24 hours.
In addition to mechanics, skills, and feelings--logistics of setting up, completing observations, and balancing other work responsibilities overloaded novice supervisors. The balancing of work demands was a concern shared by supervisors.

An expert shared those feelings by saying,

that as important as appraisal if its' the kind of thing that can be put on the back burner and the day to day pressures . . . staff pressure, parent pressure, or district pressure or deadlines from whatever part of central office or deadlines by parents (get in the way) . . . I spend an awfully lot more time doing all of those other things than I do on appraisal and that’s really hard. It’s really hard, its’ really easy to feel terribly guilty about it and then also feel helpless.

Experts re-traced their development with the appraisal skills and process. An expert in the pilot study looked back on herself as a novice supervisor and said, "Maybe the internal, intrinsic feeling is the same (for novice and expert supervisors). (As a novice) I didn’t always have the ability to know what it was and I may not have communicated that as well, but I knew when something wasn’t quite right (and also when it was)."

The experts were able to make inferences and see what was happening differently because their schema were well-developed and they had an organized knowledge base. Berliner (1986) says experts have "tacit knowledge" which allows them to make inferences from their knowledge base and see patterns. The experience gained through doing observations developed the knowledge base and allowed
experts to see patterns. This skill allows the experts to watch teachers with unique styles or methods, glean what is or is not working, then interact with the teacher about the lesson.

The experts formally observed more than 20 teachers each year for more than three years and had a more complete composite picture of good teaching. The schema of good teaching was not as developed in the novice supervisors because of their lack of experience. The novices had not articulated their concept of good teaching. One novice responded that her concept of good teaching was not organized to be able to say it off the top of her head. She knew there would be obvious additions that she would recognize if someone else said them.

There is a change from novice to experienced supervisor. One novice had made that transition. He described himself as "very confident" and could remember the fear and uncertainty he had experienced. He was the only novice I interviewed who was in the third year of appraisal experience. The other novices had zero, one, or two years of experience. Additional research may be able to determine if the third year of experience is a common time for confidence to emerge.

It seems a few years later the confidence wanes again because a model has been internalized and the supervisor
sees a need to learn how to adapt to individuals requiring adjustment and refinement of their model.

One expert shared that the year after he thought he knew it all he realized how much he didn't know. Another expert talked about being dependent on a model for organizing data and referenced the learning curve saying "that part of the learning process is behind me and I'm ready to retire... it's like teaching—you finally learn how and you're not in the classroom anymore."

All the experts spoke of being frustrated early due to a lack of training. They saw a need for "a model or strategy to gather data." Another need was to have "some kind of a model of what good teaching is to help take care of that randomness so you're focusing on teacher behavior much more so than you're focusing on the total environment."

The next developmental phase experts identified was becoming "too dependent on it (the model or strategy) for a while" and building a repertoire. "First of all you are very artificially practicing the format." At this stage the experts remember doing everything by the book—if the model called for a growth objective for everyone, they did it. "I used to go through and mark everything according to the appraisal instrument and all that kind of thing as to what I saw and labeled. I don't do that any more because I have IDM so much in my head" As they were practicing the format they recalled sounding like a broken record and being too
structured. When supervisors don't have a repertoire in their head, an expert said, "a novice gets shocked and surprised about what teacher can't do" and when teachers ask for suggestions the novice supervisor is not prepared to respond.

An expert said, "Like I was saying earlier about me, that I didn't have any different words and the teachers looked at me like why don't you just play a tape if you're going to answer these, you know, do this same stuff, or you always look for one thing because that's all you know off of that appraisal."

One expert created a file of ideas (e.g. "900 different ways I could tell them to do active participation") in case a teacher wanted to know what to try to improve in the growth objective area. As an expert, now, one supervisor said she knows that "content of what it is that describes that good teacher" and can now begin to "vary it for the individual."

Experts continue to learn as they observe and "don't know when or where the transition between novice and expert" is because "there are always new experiences." The ability to leave the model and adapt or refine the process marks another developmental phase experts recall. There are attitudinal differences about appraisal between novice and expert supervisors. The experts developed confidence which allowed them "to relax," "become much more flexible," and to
realize they didn't have "to have all the answers and know everything and be able to teach and/or preach in teacher evaluations."

Experts talked about the purpose of growth in evaluation and the "most important thing is attitude." An attitude of "helping the teacher" by building a relationship as a partner. After the development of skills and knowledge, one expert found "attitude brought to the process is the most important thing I bring to the process . . . my primary concern is your (teacher) growth" which is shown by the fact that both the supervisor and teacher have "taken time out to reflect and talk about enhancing learning of children."

All expert supervisors sought out training and found Instructional Decision Making and Clinical Supervision "had the greatest impact on how I supervise" and best matched to their needs. The training helped them "streamline" and "codify the teaching process a little bit more" and provide a "procedure" for collecting data. The experts' ability to see patterns quickly allows them more time to gather information and see more subtle aspects of teaching. As mentioned previously, the experts were able to record more during their observation than novices. The other benefit to these models "is that your teachers can speak the same language." That aspect is what gives the process meaning according to the experts.
A majority of the expert supervisors found peer appraising very helpful. Again this was something they sought out for self-improvement. Administrators paired up and observed each other through the entire appraisal process with a teacher, then gave feedback to one another about appraisal skills. For this kind of training to be successful, it is necessary for the supervisors to know each other well enough and have a "trust level . . . great enough for openness," reported an expert. The element of practice was also important in their training. "You can read about it, you can take all the classes in the world, but until you get in there and do one observation and one feedback after another . . . it's not going to come."

The developmental phases in learning the appraisal process identified in this study were: (a) logistics of the task (e.g. time lines) and becoming familiar with the instrument and the people, (b) creating a structure to gather and analyze data, (c) creating a model of good teaching, (d) practicing a process artificially, (e) knowing the content and being able to vary it according to individual teacher needs, and (f) refining and becoming flexible with the process.

The experts did not have mentors to look to in training. An expert described his experience:

When I came, there was nothing. It was just sink or swim, and a really hard part of this job is to look like you're swimming when you're really sinking because perception is a big issue. When you're working with
people . . . it's very stressful to look like you know what you're doing when you don't, but I made it through the first year and now it's okay.

Experts built a process to encourage growth, relying on their interest and striving to seek out information through reading, workshops, and experiences they created. The novice supervisors had mentors modeling a procedure and process. They were able to enter a classroom with a framework to collect data. They also continue to have mentors to check with as they learn more and run into questions.

The most frequent response of novices to the question of training was "none at all" initially. Some reported "bits and pieces" of training in university course work but all reported they wished they had more. As they described what they do in appraisal, most credit it to the help of a mentor. "My training is just what other people have done with me . . . I only had one good model . . . and I keep in contact with that person." Sometimes when I asked questions about how things were done, the novice supervisors would report what their mentors do or did.

The novice supervisors saw a benefit to easing into supervising with just a few teachers at first so they had time to find what works for them. They also thought "there needs to be some inservice on just plain communication, group dynamics and how you listen" to improve their ability to talk about areas of growth with teachers.
The expert supervisor’s approach was more eclectic than the novices simply because they had not experienced evaluation as teachers themselves. Most novices had a recent personal experience as a teacher to provide a starting point for evaluation.

**Summary of Findings**

**Pay Attention Theme**

1. Experts and novices paid attention to elements of instruction, climate, classroom management, and interpersonal skills during observation.

2. When asked to tell how they knew good teaching, the first response of both experts and novices was classroom climate.

3. Experts chunk information to reduce redundancy, then organized it vertically in deep strands. The chunking made them less sensitive to information they had that others lacked. Experts’ schemata made their searches for information more efficient. They focused on what the teacher said and did and unexpected student response or non-response to provide a tape to replay the lesson in their mind.

4. Novices focused on the total environment. Their knowledge was organized in horizontal and separate patterns. Their descriptors jumped from one category to another.

5. All supervisors had a course in Instructional Decision Making. The experience of conducting many teacher
evaluations helped experts verbalize the standards of instruction they paid attention to during observation.

6. Classroom climate is very important, but difficult to describe. Symbolic language was used to help in the identification and description of climate.

7. Classroom Management was a separate category with strong agreement about on-task behavior, but not much elaboration.

8. The interpersonal skills category was an important category linked closely to instruction, climate, and classroom management. Supervisors used different words to describe aspects of this category.

Making Sense of the Data Theme

Schemata or Templates.

9. It is important for the supervisors to have a model of good teaching so they are able to help teachers discover for themselves ways to improve. The experts' models of good teaching was more flexible, better developed, and broader than the novices' models because they saw so many right ways to teach. Experts thought it was dangerous if the model was used as a checklist to measure teaching against.

Appraisal Process.

10. Experts' appraisal process was iterative. They chose to write down what the teacher said and did during the evaluation. Notes were also made of student responses or non-responses that were outside the norm. The script-tape
was used as a tool to re-create the observation for analysis. Experts continued to collect data in the teacher post-observation conference again using their notes to replay the lesson. Experts suspended judgments as they collected and analyzed data. They sought understanding.

11. Novices' purposes for data collection and analysis was the appraisal conference. They chose to write down observations, teacher quotes, questions, praise, suggestions during the observation to share at the conference. This provided snapshots or segments of the lesson.

12. Experts identified working together for understanding as the purpose of appraisal. "Teacher as learner" and the supervisor as helper and partner emerged as an important themes.

13. Second generation novices learned from the appraisals they experienced as teachers. Mentors were a major influence in what novices did.

14. Supervisors used pre-observation conferences, observation, analysis, and post-observation conferences in the appraisal process to make sense of the data they collected.

15. Experts' data collection, triangulation of data, analysis, and decision-making process followed qualitative research methodology.
Novice to Expert Development Theme

16. The appraisal process has changed and emphasizes helping people grow as professionals. This change has created a second generation of novice supervisors. The second generation have experienced the objective of growth in appraisal as teachers. This has afforded them an opportunity to see an appraisal method modeled. They do not need to begin development at ground zero. First generation novices did not experience any observation or had a non-participatory appraisal.

17. Experts have had a strong interest in appraisal. They believe and have an attitude that shows the importance and difference appraisal can make for teachers and students. Perhaps this is a theme that can help distinguish the experienced from the experts.

18. There are developmental phases in learning the appraisal process:

   a. Logistics of the task and becoming familiar with the instrument and the people.
   b. Creating a structure to gather and analyze data.
   c. Creating a model of good teaching.
   d. Practicing a process artificially.
   e. Knowing the content and being able to vary it according to individual teacher needs.
   f. Refining and becoming flexible with the process.
19. Novices were tentative in the feedback process and concerned about the perception of others.

20. Experts were self-motivated and sought out information and training. They agreed IDM and Clinical Supervision training met their needs best, because they were more streamlined than other procedures and incorporated a vocabulary teachers know. They have since adjusted and refined those models to suit their needs.

21. Peer coaching in appraisal was a helpful tool to the experts. It provided a real life situation as compared to the simulations of training. A trust relationship was essential.

Implications

Looking at this study with the backdrop of school restructuring makes us look at teacher evaluation differently. The focus on teacher empowerment, shared decision making, site-based management, and professional autonomy fits nicely with the model provided by the experts in this study. They do not seem to be measuring individuals to an external standard, but are striving to provide an opportunity and relationship that invites self-research, risk-taking, and exploration for success.

The findings of this study have implications for the training of supervisors. Novices want and need information about the appraisal process and some strategies for creating a process if one is not formally adopted so they can feel
secure and have a framework for collecting data. Experienced supervisors could benefit from support groups of on-going workshops to expand their expertise about teaching, their skills, and refresh their interest in appraisal.

Trainers need to be aware and adjust for developmental and generational differences of supervisors and their corresponding training needs. Exploring information about participants and their experiences would help everyone discover the base from which they operate. It is important for the trainer to develop relationships of trust with participants, to model partnership, to encourage self-discovery, and to withhold judgment so the supervisors-in-training can experience what they will implement.

Some tools for training:

1. Becoming familiar with the appraisal instrument, the teachers to be observed, and logistics of the task. Novices could collect data, then discuss and analyze the different strategies and the advantages and shortcomings of what they used. Another method would be video-taped interviews, class discussions, or shadowing experiences with experts to learn from their wisdom and tips about teacher growth.

Supervisors need a foundation for recognition of teacher uniqueness and begin to establish themselves as a partner in the process rather than a critic. They need to
feel secure enough in a process or routine so it does not consume all their attention and energy.

2. Increasing supervisors' attention and reflection on surprises they find in the observation could expand schemas. If supervisors enter an observation aware of the element of surprise, then they will be more likely to recognize, analyze, and articulate its meaning. Experience will reduce the number of surprises encountered and allow the supervisor to focus more on what the teacher says and does.

3. Creation of a mental model or schema of good teaching. Experiences, reflection and articulation may help build their repertoire of ideas and recognition of the many right ways to teach. Discussion groups about good teaching among master teachers and novice supervisors could facilitate model expansion. Reflective journals could help supervisors record their growth about good teaching and what it looks like.

4. Develop an iterative evaluation process by improving skills for collecting, analyzing, and making decisions about data. Qualitative method tools, script taping skills, observation skills, IDM, Clinical Supervision, vocabulary development, and symbolic or thematic language could be incorporated in this phase of training.

5. Develop systems for talking about and understanding the instruction, climate, interpersonal skills, and
classroom management categories. Helping participants develop patterns for organizing data could be a useful tool for reinforcing teachers and helping them self-analyze. Supervisors would begin with a vocabulary and build toward a rich symbolic and thematic language of understanding to capture the uniqueness of the classroom.

6. A peer coaching or mentoring component could allow supervisors access to view themselves through someone else's eyes or provide them with ideas to reflect upon and measure their beliefs and attitudes against. Experts found this type of training helpful in validating and expanding what they were doing.

7. Focus on learning and partnerships. Participants could be provided time to identify what has contributed to their growth in the training and what they could use and adapt in the teacher appraisal process. Hopefully the ideas of building trust, facilitating self-discovery, and withholding judgment will have been modeled strong enough for participants to recognize and incorporate them in their own model.
Chapter 5
A Comparison of Novice and Expert Supervisors

The shift toward teaching more process and relationship building skills creates a need for evaluation tools which are different from the ones currently employed with knowledge transmission. To evaluate processes, it is important to know the classroom environment and how it supports the variety of interacting factors, such as toleration of ambiguity, risk-taking, encouragement, and decision-making (Eisner, 1991; Day, Whitaker, & Wren, 1987). Schon (1983) sees a shift from objective measures to student progress toward independent, qualitative judgments and narrative accounts of experience and performance.

Simultaneously school restructuring is asking teachers to become risk takers, to experiment, and to change so more students can find success in school. Supervisors must anticipate the changes in teaching by altering their supervision approaches. Eisner (1991) acknowledges the differences in contexts, students, and teachers. These dimensions have added complexity to teaching, making it impossible to set up a single ideal performance from which to compare. The task of teacher evaluation is not like Olympic diving judging, where the goal is for everyone to look like and fit a single form, but to help teachers
develop their talents and enhance what is distinctive about their teaching.

This may necessitate supervisors to have different cognitive schemata of what makes for good teaching. Neisser (1976) reported on how the skill of making sense of multiple input develops through the use of schema. Schema enables people to perceive present events, store information about the past, create patterns, and help them recognize those patterns again (Branford & Vey, 1989).

Schon (1983) explained schema as a tool to make sense of a situation. The person perceives a situation as unique and at the same time sees it as similar to something already in their repertoire. The new situation modifies the existing schema. The teacher supervisors' schema will need to be flexible and broad enough to accommodate changes in education and facilitate teacher growth.

Schema helps connect the study of thought processes and experience. It is assumed people's experience forms schema and thus lets experts see things more adequately and comprehensively than the novice. Leinhardt and Green's (1986) expert/novice research with teachers found experts had a large repertoire of routines which were flexible and required little or no monitoring or explanation. These routines freed them to focus on other aspects such as lesson flow and content. Other scholars of expert/novice comparisons found additional differences.
Schon (1983) found management experts, because of the whole of their experience, watch for responses and analyze the consequences to see a new end. Neisser (1976) and Lesgold (1983) saw experts' ability to anticipate decreased the effort needed to understand. This helped them read the context more efficiently and be attuned to the event as a whole. Leinhardt and Smith (1985) found experts had more elaborate and deeper categories for problem solving compared to the novice teacher's horizontal, separate category system.

This qualitative study was to investigate to what novice and expert elementary school supervisors pay attention during the observation of teaching performances and how they made sense of the data they gathered. This information has implications for supervisor training and teacher appraisal.

**Method and Design**

To investigate to what supervisors pay attention and how they make sense of what they observe, data came from novice and expert elementary supervisors through interviews. The researcher transcribed interviews and returned them to participants for review and to collect additional comments or clarification. The documents supervisors wrote during an observation of a teaching performance and a reflective journal kept by the researcher to document observations, thoughts, and study progress also provided data for this
study. The researcher used a pilot tested interview schedule in the spring of 1991 and the study began in the fall of 1991.

A total of 12 supervisors participated in this study. A two-step process identified participants. The associate superintendent for instruction and the assistant superintendent for human resources generated the list of experts. A midwest city of 191,972 people with 43 building administrators and 1,141 certified teachers at the elementary level was the site of the study. Three male and three female expert participants came from the pool. The three male and three female novice participants came from a pool of elementary supervisors with 0-3 years experience with the appraisal instrument used by this district.

Three interviewing strategies emerged from the interview questions and guided data collection:

1. **Stimulated recall** gleaned what they paid attention to and the processes they used for making sense of the information. Participants walked through the recent observation in their mind recalling what they saw, heard, and felt. To assist and expand their recall, supervisors also referred to the notes they had written during the observation and discussed what they chose to write down and why. This strategy helped provide insights into processes that were thought of as automatic or intuitive by supervisors.
2. **Key wording** involved participants telling what they saw, heard, or felt that told them good teaching was going on in the classroom. They were encouraged to brainstorm and say out loud what was popping into their heads. To extend and expand the key wording strategy, participants described what they saw, heard, and felt that signaled that a teacher was in need of assistance—what were the red flags? Schon (1983) found in his study it was easier for managers in his study to recognize what was missing in a performance than to state what goes on in a good performance.

3. **Tracing personal development in appraisal skills** helped participants identify valuable experiences that impacted their cognitive schemas for good teaching and their appraisal process strategies.

**Data Analysis**

The researcher analyzed the transcribed interviews, written artifacts from supervisors, and reflections of the researcher through data reduction, data display, and conclusions (Miles & Huberman, 1984). Transcripts coded by themes helped reduce data for comparison. The researcher found patterns across participants (horizontal) and within individuals and novice/expert groups (vertical). Analysis also involved summarization and comparison of written artifacts.

Data display provided comparisons. Novice and expert responses coded and recorded on large chart paper helped
ease the exploration for similarities and differences. Matrices compared novice and expert frequency counts in the theme areas.

During the third analysis activity, conclusions, inferences, and connections emerged. For instance, the analysis of the kinds of descriptive language made the researcher aware of the common vocabulary and symbolic language used by experts. Emergent themes found in preliminary analysis were shared with participants for reaction, input, and validation.

**Findings**

Commonalities found between the novice and expert supervisors in the categories to which they paid attention fit into instruction, climate, interpersonal skills, and classroom management categories.

The contrasts were in the focus with which supervisors entered the observation. Experts focused on the teacher. They recorded exactly what he or she said. They also recorded the exceptional student response or nonresponse. An expert reported, "I don’t write every (student) response, only for a response that’s kind of different from what the teacher’s probably expecting or if the child is having difficulty . . . if it’s outside the norm." This is the element of surprise Schon (1983) and Eisner (1991) spoke about when they described what drew experts’ attention and reflection when they observe a performance.
Examining the written documents recorded by experts required their assistance for interpretation. They used abbreviations and codes, but were able to read what the teacher had said with ease. They were also able to fill in the student response verbatim, even though they were not written. Their notes provided a tool for replaying the lesson. They withheld judgment and replayed the lesson themselves and again with teachers in the post-observation conference gathering more data. Their process was iterative, to seek understanding.

In contrast, novice supervisors said they focused on the climate or atmosphere of the classroom during the observation. They attempted to pay attention to the global picture. One novice said, "I write down everything. Everything that I can put my hands on and my eyes on, I write down."

Another novice reported writing "things that pop into my head at the moment that I’m sitting there thinking, well why isn’t this or why is this? I’ll make questions, I’ll jot down questions to ask in the feedback session, in addition to what the teacher says, what kids say, and questions kids ask."

Analysis of the novice supervisors’ written documents showed they recorded more than teacher quotations. They also recorded (a) what they observed (e.g. "Jason leaning back--feet on table," "Tom never did figure out the
process," "classroom bright and colorful," "climate--very comfortable"); (b) reactions they had to what was observed (e.g. "very good control of the class," "good strategy to take book around to the kids"); and (c) suggestions (e.g. "maybe small class discussion about electricity," "might want to only do 15 min. of instruction before activity"). This provided them with snapshots or segments of the observation to review.

What supervisors chose to write down helped identify their goal for the observation and influenced their analysis strategies for making sense of the data. Experts entered the classroom focused on understanding. They withheld judgment as they collected data because they saw "many right ways to teach" and they had more to learn from the teacher. Experts recognized the danger of a single prototype (whether it was themselves or a teaching model such as Instructional Decision Making) as a criteria against which to check a teacher's performance, but thought it was important to have a broad schema or model for good teaching in mind.

Data about feedback conferences identified three ways experts encourage growth: (a) experts viewed their role as a partner and professional, not a critic; (b) experts took into account the individual teacher and where he or she was developmentally to maximize growth; and (c) the iterative process of appraisal encouraged discovery for the teacher and supervisor.
Novices entered the classroom with the focus on teacher appraisal. They were concerned about accountability. A novice talked about his "fear and uncertainty" appraising someone who had been a teacher 30 years when he had been in the classroom only five years. Novices felt a need to tell or critique the teacher, "I mean, how can I truly observe and critique an instrumental music teacher when I don’t play an instrument?"

The novice experience was like going to the State Fair for the first time. They wanted to see everything, but had some fear and knew the first priority must be not to get lost. Novices were learning systems for gathering, recording, and interpreting data, in addition to learning about the teacher, students, and context involved.

There were two generations of novice supervisors. The first generation had not been observed or had not experienced an appraisal where they participated when they were teachers. The second generation novices had experienced the current appraisal as teachers before becoming supervisors. These novices had a model from which to build their process.

The experts had started as first generation novices. They found a model, practiced it, then modified it, then found something else that fit and began the process again. Instructional Decision Making (Hunter, 1982) was a model in which experts received training, and the vocabulary fit what
they had been observing. The common vocabulary, ease, and quickness of retrieval and flow of ideas during the interviews were evidence of their training. This allowed experts to chunk information into a few words. The majority of experts identified seven instructional standards: teaching to the objective, teacher behaviors to achieve the objective, modeling, checking for understanding, monitor and adjust, tie learning together--make connections, and active involvement. These words allowed them to reduce redundancy but also hid the depth of their knowledge and understanding. Experts assumed everyone had their knowledge base. Vertical depth was found with probing in these areas.

The majority of novices (four of six) did not use a common vocabulary, although they too had had at least one course in Instructional Decision Making (IDM). Novices wished they had their IDM course notes, because they found the vocabulary meaningful, but had not internalized it to be able to articulate it. A separate, horizontal organization was found in novice responses.

The climate category was described by an expert as a "more nebulous concept which is identified more intuitively." It is interesting to note that all supervisors (novice and expert) identified climate first when asked how they knew they were observing good teaching.

Most of the experts and some of the novices used symbolic, rich language when they described climate. Such
words as "sparkle," "clicking--between the teacher and learner," "joy," "warmth," were used in the description of climate.

The interpersonal skills category had many responses, but neither experts nor novices shared common words or language. It was a critical area and linked closely to the other categories.

The fewest number of responses was in the classroom management category. There was strong agreement among all supervisors that paying attention to whether the students were on task or not was the key to this category.

Some elements to which supervisors paid attention were more open-ended and teacher driven. Supervisors paid attention to what the teacher said or did, to what the teacher had said they wanted the supervisor to pay attention to, or to an element the supervisor and teacher had identified at the previous conference as something that needed attention. Experts had more responses than novices that fit into this flexible category.

Experts' flexibility and understanding orientation in appraisal emerged through training, experience, and self-research. Expert supervisors retraced their development and identified the importance they placed on supervision in their job and their love of learning.

The basic mechanics, logistics, and skills involved in collecting data is an early phase of development. Experts
remember finding a model or strategy, then becoming "too dependent on it for a while" as they built an understanding and repertoire.

After supervisors knew the "content of what it is that describes that good teacher," they began to "vary it for the individual," said an expert. This is where experts realized "they didn’t have to have all the answers and know everything and be able to teach and preach in teacher evaluations." This revelation allowed the supervisor to concentrate on "helping the teacher" and on building a relationship as a partner to assist in growth. One of the most valuable experiences the majority of experts shared was peer coaching during the appraisal process with another supervisor. This provided them with an opportunity for validation and growth.

Experts developed strategies for analysis that resemble qualitative research methodology. They use the natural setting of the classroom, multiple sources of data, coding or labeling chunks of information, and an emergent design for negotiated outcomes.

Implications

School restructuring provides a backdrop to view teacher evaluation differently. The expert supervisors' evaluation focus on developing a partnership that invites self-research, risk-taking, and understanding fits nicely with buzz words such as teacher empowerment, professional
autonomy, and shared decision making from the restructuring movement.
References
References


Teaching (pp.54-78). Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.


Appendix A

Interview Questions
Appendix A

Interview Questions

The questions in parenthesis show effective questions which emerged during the study. An asterisk denotes questions which yielded the greatest and most meaningful responses. The other questions were asked as probes if needed.

May I tape record this interview?

*I would like to collect some background information to begin this interview. Please tell about how many years you taught and the areas, then how many years you have been a supervisor and about those settings.

*Tell me about your training for teacher appraisal. (For novices)

*(Trace your personal development in the area of appraisal.) (For experts)

*You have had a summative appraisal observation recently. I’d like to learn what goes on, from your perspective. Would you please start at the beginning, with entering the room, what you noticed and what you thought, continue to how you decided where to sit and then what happened during the lesson. I’m interested in what you saw, heard, did, and thought through the lesson.

Can you think of other things?

*(You have had a summative appraisal observation recently. I’d like to learn what goes on because the classroom is so multi-dimensional and many things are going on at the same time. I’d like to learn how you choose what to pay attention to. I’d like you to step outside yourself to look and analyze what you pay attention to. What do you see, feel, and hear?)

*Tell me how you record what is going on. Perhaps you could go through what you wrote down during this recent observation and give me some insights about what you wrote down and what you do with that information.

*(What do you choose to write down when you observe?)

*Tell me what you do after the observation and before the teacher feedback.
Tell me the steps of analyzing a lesson.

Tell me how you came to use this process or structure (format, form).

What are the different ways you’ve tried to gather information during observations.

Are there ways you’d like to try to collect information in the future?

Do you have a form you use to give information to teachers during the feedback conference? Would you please walk me through it and tell me about it?

Tell me how your appraising skills have changed?

What do you think are the differences between novice and experienced evaluators?

What do you think the differences, in observation, analysis, and feedback, would be between the first year supervisor and a supervisor new to a building? What are the similarities?

How do you feel about the appraisal process?

What are some of the problems you face in the appraisal process? Tell me how you work through them.

If I would listen to principals talk about observation and appraisal—what would they say?

Suppose I was a new principal, what advice would you give me for observing, recording data and feedback?

If you were in charge of training new principals in teacher evaluation, what would you include in the training?

*(What advice would you give novice supervisors about the appraisal process?)*

Would you please brainstorm key words that pop into your mind when you are observing an excellent teacher, I’ll write them down. Please give me an example.

*In contrast, would you please brainstorm key words that pop into your mind when you are observing a poor teacher.

Explore these lists with me . . . what would you see or hear that would give you information about this?
Do you have preconceived things you look for in the observation dependent upon who the teacher is? (examples)

*What part does informal observation (what you notice in the hallways, in meetings, with parents--away from the classroom) play in evaluation? (examples)

Are there categories listed on the formal, district appraisal checklist which are more important than others? What are they? Why are they more important? (examples)

What are the outcomes of evaluation? What do you learn from it? (examples)

*Tell me about the future of teacher evaluation.

*Do you have a picture in your mind which you use to measure teachers against? Tell me about the picture or "perfect teacher" description you hold.
Appendix B

Pilot Study Findings
Appendix B

Pilot Study Findings

The themes which emerged throughout the interview and documents were identified as:
*What supervisors noticed when they were observing.
  --Teacher communication and behaviors.
  --Student communication and behaviors.
  --Classroom atmosphere.
*The process used in appraisal.
  --Pre-observation.
  --Observation.
  --Analysis.
  --Post-observation conference.
*Novice/Experienced.
*Frustrations.
*Outcomes from appraisal.
*Comments referring to the thought processes.

What supervisors noticed when they were observing.

In a classroom, there are many things happening simultaneously including interactions, decisions, and presentations. This information comes to the observer through visual, auditory or intuitive channels. It is interesting what supervisors chose to pay attention to during a teaching performance.

The four supervisors interviewed generated a list of 90 things they observe in a classroom that give them information on which the appraisal is based. More than half (59) were communications or behaviors of the teacher. There were 15 characteristics which two or more of the supervisors mentioned. It would be interesting to follow-up to explore if some of the characteristics are connected to the experience or gender of the supervisor.

The novice supervisors agreed that teacher voice, expression of caring, active checking and self-evaluation of their lesson were behaviors they noticed during evaluation of good teachers. The experienced supervisors both mentioned they notice if the teacher makes the lesson interesting.

Turning to gender similarities, the female supervisors (one novice and one experienced) both noticed if the teacher created an environment which was conducive to learning and took into consideration the teacher's communication and behavior toward them in settings outside the classroom.
The male supervisor agreed the teacher's comfort level, confidence and body language were keys to judging the teaching performance.

Three of the supervisors interviewed observed the teacher's sense of humor, greeting of students, movement, and ability to adjust their communication and behavior to meet individual needs as important.

Another theme in the area of what supervisors noticed was that of student communication and behavior. It was interesting to note that the female supervisors did not key into the students as often as the men. Of the 16 behaviors, each of the men noticed 10 (five of which were the same ones) and the women mentioned four total. There were six student behaviors which were talked about by two or more supervisors. They were student body language, facial expression, activity level, reaction to the supervisor during the observation, indications of listening and eager anticipation.

One of the supervisors summed up the advantage of watching the students by sharing this observation:

Kids really give a good picture of the teacher. They are honest and have been with the teacher day in and day out. They can give a summary of the teacher because their view of the teacher has evolved. They are also forgiving and if a teacher changes, they will go with it.

The last theme in the area of what supervisors notice when they are observing a teaching performance reflects the atmosphere in the classroom. Supervisors looked for a place which was conducive to learning and a place where people wanted to be.

The Process Used in Appraisal

All of the supervisors interviewed had some knowledge of Madeline Hunter's Instructional Decision Making Model. They each adapted her model, using different components of it. Some used the scripting method to capture what happened during the observation. The Hunter vocabulary was also used in all phases of appraisal by different supervisors.

The pre-conference phase of the appraisal process found commonalities among the novice and experienced supervisors. They gathered information about the teacher's goals and objectives for the lesson which would be observed, as well as input about what kinds of information teachers wanted
from the supervisor. The supervisors also explained what they were going to do.

The observation itself brought a variety of methods to the surface. Some supervisors had a method they always used, others varied within or between observations. The methods used by more than one person included scripting, written snapshots, what comes to mind and mental notes.

They all had a coding system of some sort which acted in some cases as short-hand and in other cases as a tool for categorizing information or analyzing it. Supervisors used words in the margin, letters (e.g. "R" stands for student response), numbers (indicating the number of students the teacher was working with at the time), asterisks, parentheses, or squiggly marks in this process.

I write down an awful lot of what the teacher says and it's a mess. I have to go back fairly soon and read through it and add in the vowels and missed letters. If I see a squiggle—that stands for a concept. After reading the context of it, I can usually put the words back in it. So I do that repair fairly soon, so that I can read it and he can read it when he gets his copy. And, oh, I'll underline anything a student says and I'll put parentheses around any action the teacher does or any action the kids have.

I find myself doing one day of scripting, another day of just observing students and their reactions, and then another day of maybe combinations—not necessarily scripting but observations of students and maybe key comments, observations of teachers and key comments or just what I'm thinking.

The analysis phase of the appraisal was the most difficult one for supervisors to articulate. They all talked about going back over the notes they had taken during the observation. Some used Hunter vocabulary to "focus" or "give words to the observation." One supervisor was able to put the analysis steps he used into words. His description reminded me of qualitative research. The underlined sections follow qualitative methodology.

I read through it first, to make sure I have a kind of general flow. As I'm reading through it the first time through is to identify activities. You are watching the room, the teacher is using a particular tool, whatever it is, and you can tell, okay, this is the beginning of this activity and this is the end of this activity. When you read in the tape it may not be so clear. So, I'll go back in and go back with my minutes
noted and get an idea. Okay, you spent four minutes
going through the first step of this two step equation
process. You spent a couple of minutes, kind of doing
a checking for understanding with kids doing their
seatwork. And then you went back and introduced
material for the second step you wanted to do and then
you can kind of see the time variable and (the speaker
made chopping down motions with his hands about 12
inches apart) chunk it out by activities. That’s the
second step I do and then I’ll to back and start
looking for--, by then I’ll have some feel for what the
lesson is like and where it’s going, what strikes me as
good about it or what strikes me as something I need to
dig into a little more. And I’ll go back and start
 labeling some stuff. Now I’m not real head up about
 labeling every damn thing in the lesson. I got away
from that some time ago. It was just alot of waste. I
started using more subjective judgment to come towards
what is it that I want to pull out of this thing. It
clouds the issue if you follow a strict clinical type
of an evaluation. If you’re going to use the Hunter
approach or something, you go back and label every damn
thing like you’re supposed to do, the person--, it
ends up to being just too much data to deal with in
terms of a conference. So I’ll have made a decision of
what I want to look for and work with and key in more
on that and let some things go.

The last component of the appraisal process is the
post-observation conference. The supervisors agreed the
feedback should be as soon after the observation as
possible. They all used a district form and generally added
a narrative of comments to reflect their observations.
During the post-observation conference, the supervisors
prepared questions to ask the teacher and shared what they
observed. They all emphasized that most appraisals are
positive in nature and they wondered how they would handle
one in which intensive help was needed.

Novice/Experienced

Both novice supervisors expressed frustration with the
lack of training and guidance they have had concerning
appraisal. When they have approached experienced
supervisors, consultants and personnel staff they have not
gotten any specifics except to "just do it." This caused
the novice supervisors to rely on experiences with student
teacher supervision, comparison to themselves as teachers
and the IDM Clinical Supervision Model to provide structure
to the appraisal process. They see close contact with
experienced administrators and experience with good teachers as essential elements in training.

Experienced supervisors shared that their training from the district or through coursework did not help much. Appraisal is not something administrators talk about when they get together to learn from each other either. One experienced supervisor shared that her internal feelings during observation have not changed. When she observed her first years she was able to walk into a room and "feel" if things were good. The ability to "feel" in the classroom has not changed over the years but her comfort level, ability to identify and communicate what is going on have changed and help her explain the feelings.

The experienced supervisors had this advice to give novice supervisors: It is important to know the people you are supervising to know what you are seeing and to understand the subtleties. It is also important to be flexible and to find out what teachers need and to change the appraisal system to reflect their needs. Another piece of advice is to use informal observation to identify the teachers who need help and focus on them. It is important to reinforce everyone, but the time factor requires the supervisor to concentrate appraisal efforts on those needing help. "So I guess, if I was to make a recommendation, I would say, if you hired this person to be a professional in this area, then you let them run it... Say to yourself, well, did I hire this professional to run this room and am I going to give him (or her) a chance to do that or am I going to try to run it from my office?" This supervisor goes on to advise novice supervisors—"The key is that people will do the right thing. You can make people willing to go but you can’t make them go against their will."

**Frustrations**

The frustration capturing everyone’s attention was time and how to balance the time needed for appraisal with all the other demands of an administrator. The other frustration mentioned by both novice and experienced supervisors was the form used in appraisal did not fit the needs or process. The novice supervisors had more frustrations overall than the experienced supervisors. They were frustrated by not knowing what to do, where to turn, by the lack of training and guidance, and by the need to juggle demands.
Outcomes of Evaluation

The supervisors all saw the importance of appraisal and wished they had more time to devote to it. Some of the benefits both novice and experienced supervisors saw were: Better instruction for students, and positive reinforcement, help, support and encouragement for teachers. Experienced supervisors could also see attitudes, expectations, encouragement of risk-taking transmitted through the appraisal process. Appraisal forces the supervisor into the room and gives them a good idea of what is happening so he or she may respond to parent or district personnel concerns, questions or needs.

Thought Processes

One of the questions I had beginning this study was: Could people identify thought processes which they probably had not talked about out loud and which may have been automatic? During the interviews reference was made to being able to "walk into a room and size it up in a minute," "pictures in my mind," "outstanding teacher--I don't know why I said that because I've never been in their room," "it's intangible, but I think I can pick it out." Supervisors were able to brainstorm what they paid attention to during observation of a teaching performance. While they were involved in that process they added phrases such as these: "I never thought of that before." "These are good things, De Ann, I need to--I don't--and these are just, just coming out of my head. I mean I need to write these down." It seemed as though we were discovering their thoughts together, an exciting process!

Reflections

I'm fascinated with the themes which emerged; they are not all ones I anticipated. They were not as varied and diverse as I thought they would be. I thought classroom management, organizational skills, curriculum knowledge and feedback from parents would have shown up and they did not. The literature supports these thoughts. Lewis (1982) identified the six characteristics of teacher effectiveness which are included in evaluation systems as: (a) classroom management, (b) teacher/pupil management, (c) staff relations, (d) preparations of teaching plans, (e) effective use of materials, and (f) interpersonal skills. Hawley (1982) separated teaching tasks from the techniques or strategies which vary from teacher to teacher in a given situation. Teaching tasks remained the same for all teachers and these were the categories which are evident in
teacher evaluation forms. The three categories of teaching tasks included: (a) teacher–student relationships (rapport, productive classroom climate), (b) classroom management (control, organization, routine), and (c) methods of instruction (presentation, motivation).
Appendix C

IRB Approval and Samples of Communication
July 24, 1991

De Ann Currin
Administration, Curriculum & Instruction
UNL

IRB 012-92 EX


Dear Ms. Currin:

I have reviewed your Exemption Information Form for the above-titled research project. According to the information provided this project is exempt from IRB review under 45 CFR 46:101b.3.i.

It is understood that an acceptable standard of confidentiality of data will be maintained. Data must be recorded in such a manner that subjects cannot be identified directly or through identifiers linked to the subjects.

Sincerely,

Ernest B. Prentice, Ph.D.
Vice Chairman, IRB

EDP/Imc
July 18, 1991

Assistant to the Superintendent for Administrative Services
________________ Public School
________________
________________

Dear Mr. __________________,

I am a Lincoln Public Schools' employee currently working on my dissertation for my doctoral degree from the University of Nebraska-Lincoln. I received proposal approval from my faculty committee this week. I was referred to you by the __________ Public Schools' Human Resources Department upon requesting procedures to interview __________ Public Schools' employees.

The purpose of my qualitative study is to investigate the information processing strategies of elementary school teacher evaluators when observing a teaching performance. In-depth taped interviews and analysis of the evaluator's observation notes would be used. I would conduct two separate interviews of approximately one hour with each participant.

The number of people I would like to interview would be probably 12. Six would be expert teacher evaluators selected through reputational sampling techniques involving Dr. __________ and Dr. __________. The other six would be novice teacher evaluators with less than four years experience with the __________ Public Schools' appraisal process.

The interviews would be conducted at a convenient location for the employee. All interviews will be strictly confidential and the names of schools and participants will not be used in the study. I would like to begin collecting data this fall when appraisals begin.
I look forward to hearing from you. I have enclosed a copy of my proposal for your review. If you have any questions please call me at _______ (home) or _______ (Prescott School). Thank you.

Sincerely,

De Ann Currin
To: Dr. __________

From: De Ann Currin

Date: August 22, 1991

RE: Research--Elementary Teacher Evaluators

Thank you for your quick response. I appreciated the "______" listing. Your insights are valuable to me and I hope my research will be helpful to ______ Public Schools as well. I wish I had the time and resources to talk with all the principals listed.

The sample includes:

________________
________________
________________
________________

The novice sample would include: (I have assumed these people have three or less years working with the appraisal process.)

________________
________________

To complete the novice sample I need some additional information. Do _________, _________, and _________ meet the criteria of three or less years experience in the appraisal of teaching? I think _________ may have helped with appraisal at _________ before going to _________. If these people do not meet the criteria, are there certified administrators in coordinator positions from which I could draw? I need to add one female and two male novice evaluators.

I know this is a busy time for you. I appreciate your willingness to support this research and certainly want to be respectful of your time. If you could give me a call or drop me a note at _________, when time permits, about the novice sample it would be most helpful. Thank you!
To: Dr. __________

From: De Ann Currin

Date: September 14, 1991

RE: Research--Elementary Teacher Evaluators

Thank you for the list of people meeting the novice teacher evaluator status. I followed up on your leads to complete the novice sample.

My tentative time line includes contacting each individual, on the list below, by the end of October. The purpose of this contact is to explain the nature of the study, gain their permission to include them in the study and schedule an initial interview. I will wait until Mr. __________ has contacted them about District approval before I proceed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Expert Sample</th>
<th>Novice Sample</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Name</td>
<td>School</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Technical Support

Thank you for your support. If you have any questions please contact me.
September 22, 1991

Elementary School

Dear __________,

I have received approval and support from Mr. _______ and Dr. _______ to conduct a qualitative inquiry involving expert and novice teacher supervisors. From Dr. _______'s recommendation, you were identified as a "novice" teacher supervisor in the _______ Public Schools. I would very much like to include you as a novice participant in my study.

Through this study I hope to gain insights into what teacher supervisors pay attention to when observing teaching performances. The findings may provide information impacting teacher supervision training as well. I will be sharing the findings of this study with Dr. ____________.

The following points outline what participation in this study would mean if you decided to participate:

*I will keep your identity and that of your school confidential.

*There will be an initial (approximately one hour) tape recorded interview. This interview will take place after you have observed a tenured teacher in the summative appraisal process. The observation will serve as a helpful point of reference for you in answering some of the interview questions. If you are not involved in summative appraisals this year, you may need to rely on other experiences or perhaps arrange to observe a tenured teacher before the interview.

If you take notes during the observation, they will also be helpful to reference. I am interested in your thoughts and processes so please mask the teacher's identity and don't worry about the form or neatness of your notes.

*I will transcribe your interview then return it to you to review. I encourage you to clarify, correct and extend the information in the transcript.

*A follow-up meeting will take place to provide time for you to add information and for me to ask questions which may emerge after transcribing your interview.

*I will be glad to share the findings with you.
I will be calling you at the end of this week to see if you have any questions, if you are willing to participate in this study and schedule the initial interview if possible. Thank you for your consideration.

Sincerely,

De Ann Currin
Work phone--
Home phone--
September 22, 1991

Principal
_______ Elementary School
____________
____________

Dear ___________,

I have received approval and support from Mr. ________ and Dr. ________ to conduct a qualitative inquiry involving expert and novice teacher supervisors. Through reputational sampling you were identified as an "expert" teacher supervisor in the ________ Public Schools. I would very much like to include you as an expert participant in my study.

Through this study I hope to gain insights into what teacher supervisors pay attention to when observing teaching performances. The comparison of novice and expert information could impact teacher supervision training as well. I will be sharing the findings of this study with Dr. ________.

The following points outline what participation in this study would mean if you decided to participate:

*I will keep your identity and that of your school confidential.

*There will be an initial (approximately one hour) tape recorded interview. This interview will take place after you have observed a tenured teacher in the summative appraisal process. The observation will serve as a helpful point of reference for you in answering some of the interview questions.

If you take notes during the observation, they will also be helpful to reference. I am interested in your thoughts and processes so please mask the teacher's identity and don't worry about the form or neatness of your notes.

*I will transcribe your interview then return it to you to review. I encourage you to clarify, correct and extend the information in the transcript.

*A follow-up meeting will take place to provide time for you to add information and for me to ask questions which may emerge after transcribing your interview.

*I will be glad to share the findings with you.
I will be calling you at the end of this week to see if you have any questions, if you are willing to participate in this study and schedule the initial interview if possible. Thank you for your consideration.

Sincerely,

De Ann Currin
Work phone--__________
Home phone--__________
Dear ____________,

I have completed all of the interviews at this point in my study. The interviews provided me with a tremendous amount of information and continue to stimulate my thinking. Thank you!

What follows are observations, questions and a copy of your interview transcript. I would appreciate if you could reflect another time on teacher appraisal and react (if you are so moved) to any of this information.

I have left a little space for comments under each piece of information for any thoughts you may want to share. I will be working on analysis into February.

Observations: Several expert/novice themes have emerged.

1. I found generations of novice supervisors. There are first generation novice supervisors who did not experience the observation and feedback appraisal process as teachers. There are also second generation supervisors who have experienced observation and feedback as teachers. Second generation novice supervisors spoke often of their experience as a teacher and what they had learned from their mentors. Experts identified developmental stages they have and are experiencing.

Comments:

2. Experts appear and talk about being relaxed and flexible with teacher appraisal. The feedback conferences are very teacher-oriented. Novice supervisors are more tentative in feedback and are concerned about teacher's perceptions of them.

Comments:
3. Expert and novice supervisors described similar themes when asked what they paid attention to during observation of teaching. The experts' themes were vertical and connected where the novice themes were horizontal and separate. Experts chunked information under a few major topics.

Comments:

4. Experts spoke about seeking out information about teacher evaluation. Their interest, attitude and the priority of teacher evaluation was evident.

Comments:

5. Experts and novices all take notes while observing. The experts' notes were more detailed and most quoted the teacher directly. My impression is they wrote down what would later help them replay the entire lesson. What was written became a tool for remembering the lesson. Experts spoke of being able to repeat verbatim student responses even when they hadn't written them down. The replay of the lesson was analyzed.

Novice supervisors appear to analyze what they write down. Some analyze while observing and write down what they want to say at the feedback conference.

Comments:

Comments:

7. The key word brainstorming of how supervisors know good teaching brought the responses of positive climate or atmosphere and the connection between people in the classroom first and foremost for both novice and expert supervisors. The question about what a supervisor pays attention to during observation brought instruction-related responses.

Comments:

8. Experts spoke about the goal of growth in appraisal. The feedback conference was described as a "duet," "blend," and "trust relationship." Experts found teachers identified areas to work on that generally were the same as what they had identified.

Comments:

Questions:

1. The Teacher Perceiver and Appraisal Instrument are not connected nor built on one another. There seems to be a connection between what supervisors described as "good teaching" and the Teacher Perceiver themes (e.g. Rapport Drive). What part, if any, should the Teacher Perceiver themes play in the appraisal process or supervisor training?

Comments:
2. The summative evaluation process and the presence of the supervisor causes the teacher to reflect and analyze their lesson before they teach and again after teaching. In contrast, I read and hear the formative evaluation is a more powerful tool for change when compared to summative evaluation. Where do you see more teacher effort and interest? Which has a bigger impact on what happens for students?

Comments:

Transcription:

Are there insights, additions and clarifications triggered by your transcript?

Comments:

Thank you again for sharing! Please place any responses or comments you may have in the envelope provided and drop it in the mail.