Feedback for Teacher Learning and the Improvement of Instruction:
Conceptualization, Preparation, and Practice

by

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DEDICATION

This dissertation is dedicated to Elliot and Quincy Alvarez, for all of their love and support. There might be no better sound than a two-year-old telling you, "Great job, Mommy."

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ABSTRACT

Although the term "feedback" is used pervasively in current efforts aimed at the improvement of teaching in the United States, what constitutes feedback seems to be assumed and, thus, not adequately conceptualized or operationalized. Through two distinct essays that investigate feedback theory and practice, this dissertation offers feedback as a promising high-leverage practice for the improvement of instruction.

The first essay explores the underconceptualization of feedback in the discourse on the improvement of teaching through a representative review of the feedback literature in the fields of education, performance management, and organizational psychology. The aim of this study was to uncover what researchers know, and still need to learn, about feedback in order to inform the development of feedback practices, processes, and environments that can effectively support teacher learning and instructional improvement.

The second essay is a case study of the school supervision course within one graduate-level school leadership preparation program. This study explored: (1) what students in the course were taught about feedback as a means to improve teaching, and how they were taught these things, and (2) what five focal students from the course took up from the learning opportunities provided in the course, including their opportunities for practice.

Findings from these studies indicate that feedback for the improvement of instruction is a complex, interactive practice composed of multiple practices. Though feedback has not been sufficiently conceptualized in the literature of any field to be a thorough guide to effective practice (Boud & Molloy, 2013; Sutton et al., 2012), there is an extant research base that can inform future research and practice in teacher learning and school leadership. The studies in this dissertation point to the need for further research to identify the constituent practices, strategies, and techniques that compose effective feedback practice in order to inform high-quality preparation and support of both teachers and school leaders.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In recent years, teacher quality in the United States has received unprecedented attention from policymakers, the media, and citizens. Teachers and teacher educators across the nation are under scrutiny for the perceived failures of the American educational system and the underachievement of its students. This scrutiny has resulted in widespread reform across the country of teacher evaluation systems, modifications to tenure policies, interest in performance-based compensation, and heightened scrutiny of teacher education. Because research indicates that, among in-school factors, teachers have the greatest impact on student achievement (e.g. Nye, Konstantopoulos, & Hedges, 2004; Rivkin, Hanushek, & Kain, 2005), these reforms are meant to serve as levers for the improvement of teacher quality and, therefore, the improvement of student achievement (Hallinger, Heck & Murphy, 2014). For example, since 2008, 49 states and the District of Columbia have altered their teacher evaluation legislation or guidance (American Institutes for Research, 2014) in an attempt to boost student achievement.

Throughout the discourse on teacher quality and the improvement of instruction, feedback is hailed as essential to teacher improvement (e.g. Coggshall, Rasmussen, Colton, Milton, & Jacques, 2012; Gates Foundation, 2013, 2014; Weisberg et al., 2009). As one publication from the Gates Foundation's Measures for Effective Teaching Project, titled "Feedback for Better Teaching," states:

Our district partners are beginning to build and implement systems for teacher

feedback and evaluation...They see feedback as the path to better teaching. They

understand that the measures, while focused on teaching, are able to provide

feedback at all levels of the system—school leadership, coaching support,

professional development, and even central office administration—to align efforts

in support of more effective teaching and learning. (2013, p. 3)

This sounds very promising. However nowhere in this publication—a publication

focused on feedback—is feedback defined or explained.

The advocacy of this practice is simultaneously ubiquitous and vague. Although

the term "feedback" is used pervasively in efforts aimed at the improvement of teacher

quality, the definition of what constitutes feedback seemed to be assumed and, thus, not

operationalized. Therefore, I began to wonder: if feedback for teachers is to improve

instruction, then what is known about feedback focused on supporting teachers' learning,

and what does such "feedback" sound or look like when done well? Further, as reforms to

teacher evaluation systems increasingly called for principals to be the providers of high-

quality feedback, I wondered: if these systems are going to deliver on their promises to

support teachers' growth, then what do principals need to know about feedback and be

able to do in order to effectively engage in feedback about teaching practice? And, how

should they be prepared to do this work?

Thus, this dissertation comprises two essays that investigate feedback for teacher

learning and the improvement of instruction in two distinct ways. The first essay (Chapter

2) explores the underconceptualization of feedback in the discourse on the improvement

of teaching. I claim that the focus on feedback as a promising means for the improvement

of teaching is problematic because what constitutes high-quality feedback is underspecified and undertheorized. To address the underconceptualization of feedback, the aim of this study was to uncover what researchers know, and still need to learn, about feedback in order to inform the development of feedback practices, processes, and environments that can effectively support teacher learning and instructional improvement. To do this, I completed a representative review of the feedback literature in the fields of education, performance management, and organizational psychology. I sought to integrate bodies of literature that rarely intersect in order to further conceptualize feedback and create a cross-disciplinary understanding of feedback that could inform educational practice. Findings from this investigation of the feedback literature can be used to inform the curricula of both teacher education and school leadership preparation programs, as well as programs aimed at the ongoing support and professional development of teachers and leaders. In addition, this study aims to contribute to the body of research that can inform ongoing policy development on teacher learning.

The second essay in this dissertation (Chapter 3) is based on a case study I conducted in 2013 of the school supervision course within one graduate-level school leadership preparation program. This essay explores two things: (1) what students in this course are taught about feedback as a means to improve teaching, and how they are taught these things, and (2) what five focal students from the course took up from the learning opportunities provided in the course, including their opportunities for practice.

To investigate the first component of the study, I drew on qualitative data from the course, including the syllabus, agendas, assessments, and field notes. I analyzed these

data using Glatthorn's (2000) framework on curriculum to review four elements of the P3 school supervision curriculum: the written curriculum, the supported curriculum, the taught curriculum, and the assessed curriculum. In addition, I drew on Grossman and colleagues' (2009) framework for the teaching of practice in professional preparation to examine the students' opportunities to learn about practice through practice within the supervision course. This includes Grossman et al.'s (2009) descriptions of representations, decompositions, and approximations of practice in professional education. I also drew on Lampert's (2009) conceptions of practice in teacher education, applying her conceptions of practices and practicing to school leadership preparation. In doing so, my goal was to begin to open up the "black box" of what is taught in leadership preparation and to further inform ways in which practice can be used to prepare school leaders, specifically in regard to feedback practice.

For the second component of the study, my aim was to examine what a subset of students from the supervision course took up from their preparation to engage in feedback with teachers, including their opportunities for practice. To do this, I drew on qualitative data from ten approximations of practice (Grossman et al., 2009) and ten interviews that I designed and conducted with five focal students. The approximations were used to analyze what the focal students took up from the course, as evidenced by practice, while the interviews were used to analyze what the students took up, as articulated. These different data sources revealed that there was a gap between what the focal students were able to enact in practice as novice feedback givers versus what they were able to express when reflecting on their preparation and practice. Findings from this

study can be used to inform leadership preparation curricula, as well as research and

policy related to preparing novice school leaders to be leaders of instruction.

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CHAPTER II
CONCEPTUALIZING FEEDBACK FOR TEACHER LEARNING

"Giving teachers more feedback" is a persistent theme throughout recent writing on teacher learning and evaluation (e.g. Coggshall, Rasmussen, Colton, Milton, & Jacques, 2012; Gates Foundation, 2013, 2014; Weisberg et al., 2009). Throughout this discourse, including legislation, policy briefs, research, and practice, feedback is hailed as essential to teacher improvement. However, despite its pervasiveness, it is unclear what exactly is meant by "feedback." The term is used as a catchall to describe a variety of practices, thus it is unclear how one might operationalize these practices or conduct meaningful research in this area.

Therefore, the focus on feedback as a promising means for the improvement of instruction is problematic because what constitutes high-quality feedback is underspecified and underconceptualized as a means to support teacher learning. There is no shared practical knowledge about how feedback might be used effectively to support the learning of teachers in schools. Jim Spillane (2015) contends that this is not uncommon in education. He argues:

> ...one problem we face is that core constructs in our work are often variably and weakly defined. While variability is inevitable and indeed potentially generative for scholarship, it is problematic when coupled with poorly defined constructs. Loose constructs pose problems for all of us contributing to fuzzy research, especially if constructs...are weakly (or never explicitly) defined and

operationalized. Fuzzy conceptualization makes comparing across studies,

essential to the development of a robust empirical knowledge base, difficult if not

impossible. Fuzzy conceptualizations can also contribute to a false sense of

agreement among practitioners and policymakers as they use the same words

(e.g., leadership, teaching) to denote distinctly different understandings of these

phenomena. (p. 278)

Boud and Molloy (2013) question, how can we justify the time (and, I would add,

money) spent on teacher assessment if it does not positively impact learning for teachers

or students? Thus, a greater understanding of feedback, both theoretical and practical, is

needed if it is to be used to effectively support teacher learning and the improvement of

practice within and outside of the context of teacher evaluation. Otherwise, the

imprecision with which feedback is used in the current policy and practice discourse is

likely to undermine efforts to support teacher learning and the improvement of practice.

Despite considerable research on feedback in various fields of research, the

concept of feedback remains ill-defined and inadequately understood (Boud & Molloy,

2013; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Sutton et al., 2012; Scheeler, Ruhl, & McAfee, 2004).

"Mythologies of feedback" (Adcroft, 2011) and feedback "nostrums" (Molloy & Boud,

2013a) inform feedback beliefs and practice. These include the nostrums: (1) all feedback

is good feedback, (2) the more feedback, the merrier, (3) feedback is telling, and (4)

feedback ends in telling (Molloy & Boud, 2013a). However, these notions are not borne

out by research. For example, systematic reviews on feedback conducted by Kluger &

DeNisi (1996) and Hattie & Timperley (2007) indicate, "feedback is frequently

ineffective and even counterproductive" (Sutton, Hornsey, & Douglas, 2012, p. 1).

Although it is not well defined in its usage, many argue that comments on performance can be a promising means by which to improve practice when used effectively. Feedback plays a crucial role in knowledge acquisition (Mory, 2004) and is critical for improving job performance (Farr, Baytalskaya, & Johnson, 2012; Osterman & Kottkamp, 1993). When done well (although what this means is not specified), feedback "directs behavior, influences future performance goals, heightens the sense of achievement, increases employees' ability to detect errors on their own, sets performance standards, increases motivation, and increases the amount of power and control employees feel" (Levy & Thompson, 2012, p. 217; see also Latham, Cheng & Macpherson, 2012). In addition, it can stimulate employees' creativity (Zhou & Shalley, 2008). If these goals are to be realized within the context of improving teaching practice, feedback needs to be clearly defined, jointly understood, and enacted well.

To address the underconceptualization of feedback, the aim of this study was to uncover what researchers know, and still need to learn, about feedback in order to inform the development of feedback practices, processes, and environments that can effectively support teacher learning and instructional improvement. To these ends, this study was guided by two research questions. First, what does the literature across the fields of education, performance management, and organizational psychology reveal about effective feedback? Second, how can extant research about effective feedback be used to inform theory, research, and practice in teacher learning?

To do this, this study further conceptualizes feedback by integrating bodies of literature that rarely intersect in order to create a cross-disciplinary understanding of the concept. This includes research in the fields of education, performance management, and

organizational psychology. This cross-disciplinary approach builds on goals identified by editors Sutton et al. (2012) in their recent volume *Feedback: The Communication of Praise, Criticism, and Advice*. Compiling articles from various research fields, the authors identified a need to draw from the insights of other fields and to address the risks of disciplinary specialization. Sutton and colleagues (2012) call for more work in this tradition, and my own work is inspired by their call to bring together research and practice in different domains of research to inform our understanding of feedback. My interest in looking across fields of research to understand feedback comes from the opportunity afforded by bringing different research traditions into conversation that are typically isolated from one another to try to address gaps within the education research literature.

This is particularly important because few studies within the educational research literature have taken up the study of effective feedback for teachers, despite the longstanding recognition that high-quality feedback for students is an effective means to improve their learning (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Mory 2004). In their 2013 review of literature on the topic, Thurlings, Vermeulen, Bastiaens, and Stijnen point to this gap, finding that only one previous published review (Scheeler et al., 2004) had ever even focused on performance feedback given to teachers, and that review had only generated 10 articles between 1970 and 2000 meeting the authors' criteria. The Thurlings et al. (2013) review only generated 60 articles, the preponderance of which were focused on feedback to students due to the paucity of research available on feedback to teachers.

Methodology

This study is not an exhaustive review of the bodies of literature outlined; instead, it aims to be a representative review of this literature. In order to assemble a representative review, I used constrained "snowball" sampling, which limits the percentage of literature collected at each level of the search to assemble a sample of key publications (Lecy & Beatty, 2012). I have conducted a broad review including peer-reviewed journals, edited volumes, policy documents, and conference presentations. The review included keyword searches in the databases ERIC and PsycINFO, as well as Google Scholar. Keywords included, in various combinations: feedback, feedback-seeking, performance appraisal, performance management, teacher evaluation, clinical supervision, teacher observation, coaching, and formative assessment. As part of my snowball sampling, I also followed citations found in texts, recommendations, and my own prior knowledge of the fields to assemble a representative review of the extant research.

I constrained my search to research from the past 20 years, with the exception of the most cited and comprehensive works, because these three disciplines have seen considerable growth both in quality and volume, particularly in the past decade. My search was conducted over three years, and persistent themes and findings lead me to believe that I hit a saturation point in my research indicating that I had reasonably surveyed the literature in these three disciplines.

Additionally, this study and the conceptual framework it offers draw from multiple theoretical traditions to craft a conceptual framework that might be used to build a shared understanding of feedback. These include sociocultural theory (Vygotsky,

1978), situated cognition (Chaiklin & Lave, 1993; Lave & Wenger, 1991) goal-setting theory (Locke & Latham, 2002), implicit person theory (Dweck, 1999), and self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1986). I draw from these various theories and point to the contributions and shortcomings of the historical traditions of feedback research to offer a frame upon which we could begin to build research and practice using feedback for teacher learning.

Though the body of research on feedback across fields is large (e.g. Levy & Thompson, 2012), there is considerably more work to be done in educational research to inform the proliferating work on the assessment and improvement of teaching practice and teacher learning (Thurlings et al., 2013). I contribute to the literature in this area by using multiple fields to further conceptualize feedback in education, specifically as it relates to teacher learning, in order to build the theoretical underpinnings of this concept and contribute to much-needed theory, research, and practice in this area.

In this paper, I first discuss the definitions, purposes, and value of feedback. Then I examine what we know, and do not know, about feedback and offer a conceptual framework based on these findings to inform research and practice on feedback for teacher learning. At the conclusion of each section of the paper, I offer implications for practice and suggest avenues for future research. Though I found that much remains to be learned about feedback, as it has not been sufficiently conceptualized in the literature of any field to be a thorough guide to effective feedback practices (Boud & Molloy, 2013; Sutton et al., 2012), there is much we do know that can inform our understanding and operationalization of feedback for teacher learning.

What is Feedback?

Feedback is used in so many ways in everyday conversation, and there are so many feedback mechanisms, that it is not necessarily clear what is meant when the term is used. Vaguely, people seem to most often be referring to information they are receiving or conveying about the state of things. Feedback can come in many forms and from many sources, with many aims and values. Mory (2004) offers that without some type of feedback mechanism at work, "one could venture to say that no learning would occur" (p. 777). For example, when driving down the road, a lighted sign flashing your speed is feedback to you as the driver to slow down in this zone. Stepping on a scale and seeing your weight displayed in front of you is another form of feedback, as is the silence or raised voice of an angry spouse. In classrooms, grades and teacher comments on student work are two of the most common forms of feedback. As these examples illustrate, feedback may be verbal, non-verbal, or written and may include considerable or little interaction with the feedback source. Feedback of various types permeates nearly every aspect of our lives.

Derived from engineering and used across multiple fields, feedback is the information about the difference between actual and expected performance or behavior (Ramaprasad, 1983); it is a consequence of performance (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). Feedback, in its essence, is meant to affect the gap between the actual performance and the expectation (Ramaprasad, 1983). In the definition I offer here, it is significant that the emphasis is on closing the performance gap (i.e. focus on effect), not merely the identification of the gap. As Hattie & Timperley (2007) note in their comprehensive meta-analysis of feedback research, "...because feedback can be

accepted, modified, or rejected, feedback itself may not have the power to initiate action"

(p. 82; see also London & Smither, 1995). Therefore, in the conceptualization I offer,

feedback includes the effective identification of the gap in performance *and* suggestions

for the improvement of performance.

Though feedback is underconceptualized, ironically research about it is

voluminous.[1] Within the field of organizational psychology, for example, feedback is the

largest concept of study (Levy & Thompson, 2012). However, as Locke and Latham

(1990) argue, "Few concepts in psychology have been written about more uncritically

and incorrectly than that of feedback" (p. 224). Much of the feedback research comes out

of the behaviorist and cognitivist traditions using study designs based on "contrived

experimental learning situations" (Mory, 2004, p. 745) which did not take into account,

for example, human behavior or context (Mory, 2004).

The rise of constructivist learning theory in the 1980s and early 1990s, however,

marked a paradigm shift in the history of feedback. Though feedback studies and the

vernacular are still dominated by conceptions of feedback from the behaviorist and

cognitivist traditions, constructivism challenged the objective knowledge of those

theories. In this theoretical tradition, feedback serves to facilitate learners' construction of

their own knowledge within the context of their lived experience (Jonassen, 1991; Mory,

2004; Thurlings et al., 2013).

Therefore, over the last thirty years, feedback research and theory (particularly in

the domains of organizational psychology and performance management) have

increasingly explored feedback in a more complex way. I build upon research and theory

from this tradition in order to develop a model of feedback that can support teacher

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[1] Though not as voluminous as perhaps it should be given its centrality in learning, argues Sadler (2010).

learning and the improvement of instruction. Next, I further define feedback in the workplace and describe the purposes and components of feedback.

Feedback and Job-Based Performance Appraisal

From this point forward, I refer to "feedback" specifically with a focus on job performance and improvement. Though feedback research has applications to a variety of feedback one gives or receives (e.g. feedback to/from a spouse), I focus here on job-based performance appraisal because feedback to teachers is job-based. Within this domain, the definition of feedback I have offered maintains: it is a consequence of performance that indicates the gap between actual and expected performance, behavior, or understanding (e.g. Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996; Latham et al., 2012). If a gap is not identified, the information is not feedback. Likely, it is praise. The overarching aim of feedback is to reduce the discrepancy between the current state of understanding or performance and a goal through action for improvement (Ramaprasad, 1983; Hattie & Timperley, 2007). However, the connection between feedback and change can be "strong and direct or weak and indirect" (Leary & Terry, 2012, p. 16).

In workplaces, most employees find themselves in a feedback vacuum (Ashford, Blatt, & VandeWalle, 2003). Research indicates that individuals say that feedback is crucial to their development, but that their employer is poor at providing it (Cannon & Witherspoon, 2005). Managers, too, indicate that feedback is important for them and the employees they manage. Yet, despite their espoused beliefs in the value of feedback, both managers and employees avoid feedback and/or indicate that it is not effective (Farr et al., 2012).

Purposes of Feedback

Research conducted by Farr and colleagues (2012) indicates that job-based performance feedback has two primary purposes: administrative and developmental. The administrative purpose of feedback is to communicate the rationale for administrative actions and decisions—for example, relaying to an employee the relationship between his or her performance and a promotion decision. Feedback with a developmental purpose aims to enhance the receiver's skills and competencies in order to achieve improvement. Developmental feedback, Farr and colleagues (2012) claim, is "more likely to be accurate and less lenient or inflated than that provided for administrative purposes" (p. 204). This, they argue, is because managers perceive developmental feedback as lower-stakes and longer term. Bettenhausen and Fedor (1997) and Smither, London, and Reilly (2005) claim that performance appraisals with a developmental purpose are more likely to produce positive performance outcomes in employees than feedback for administrative purposes. Other research (e.g. Farr et al., 2012), however, indicates that it not clear which type is more impactful on performance, pointing to a need for more research.

Most performance appraisal systems attempt to address both the administrative and developmental purpose in one feedback session, as this is an efficient use of limited time. However, there is the risk that this may lead the feedback receiver to misunderstand what end is desired by the feedback giver. This danger has led researchers (e.g. Stone & Heen, 2014) to long advocate for the separation of feedback exchanges based on purpose—i.e. coaching sessions vs. evaluation/outcome sessions. But other research indicates that both purposes can be addressed in one session "if the feedback messages and system are well-designed" (Farr et al., 2012, p. 204; see also Rynes, Gerhart, &

Parks, 2005). This has been an enduring point of debate in feedback for decades (Rynes et al., 2005). Interestingly, in a study of teachers, Kimball (2003) found that most teachers did not believe there was a conflict between accountability and growth. And, further, that it was appropriate for evaluations to encompass both. In either instance, studies indicate that it is important for the feedback giver to be deliberate in his or her identification of the purpose(s) of the feedback exchange and discussing that purpose with the receiver (Molloy, Borrell-Carrió, & Epstein, 2013; Stone & Heen, 2014).

Components of Feedback

In addition to the two primary purposes of feedback, there are three essential components of feedback: 1) information on the goal of performance, 2) information on executed performance, and 3) strategies to address the gap between the goal and performance (Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Sadler, 1989). Hattie and Timperley (2007) term these three components "feed up," "feed back," and "feed forward" (Table 1). Unfortunately, feedback exchanges frequently lack all three components—particularly feed forward.

Feed Up	Where am I going? (What are the goals? What is the standard?)
Feed Back	How am I going? (What progress is being made toward the goal?)
Feed Forward	Where to next? (What activities need to be undertaken to make better progress?

Table 1. Components of effective feedback (Hattie & Timperley, 2007)

Although "covering" all of these components is a meaningful start toward effective feedback, in and of itself, it is not enough. Feedback is complex and

emotionally charged because it involves information about one's self (Ashford & Cummings, 1983). The feedback process is about more than the delivery of information. "It is also about the active management of self-hood by both the recipient and deliverer" (Sutton et al., 2012, p. 7). It depends on relationships, communication skills, and a consideration of the social psychological processes of the giver and receiver (Leary & Terry, 2012). It is to these facets of feedback that I now turn my attention.

Conceptualizing Feedback as Interaction

Based on the research on effective feedback, which I will examine, I offer the following conceptual framework: feedback as interaction (Figure 1). This framework draws on Ball and Cohen's (1999a) description of the instructional triangle and their assertion of the interactive nature of instruction.[2] Ball and Cohen (1999a) argue, "Rather than seeing instruction as something the teacher does, or curriculum as resident in books and standards, or students as recipients of teachers' and books' opportunities and inputs, we see what happens in classrooms as a function of the interaction among these elements in instructional environments" (p. 1). In the same way that Ball and Cohen (1999a) assert that teaching is not something that is "done to" students, I argue that feedback is not something that is "given to" employees (London & Smither, 2002), thus challenging persistent input-output conceptions of feedback. I use the foundation of the instructional triangle to offer a situated conceptualization (Chaiklin & Lave, 1996: Lave & Wenger, 1991) of feedback, arguing that feedback, like teaching and learning, is an interactive and complex process composed of multiple practices over time situated in a dynamic

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[2] Like Ball and Cohen, I acknowledge the ways in which others including Magdalene Lampert and David Hawkins have used the instructional triangle to represent teaching and learning. Min Yang and David Carless (2013) have also used a triangle to create a framework for feedback in higher education. In addition, I wish to acknowledge Jim Spillane's work on distributed leadership, which similarly highlights the interactive nature of practice and informed my thinking.

environment.
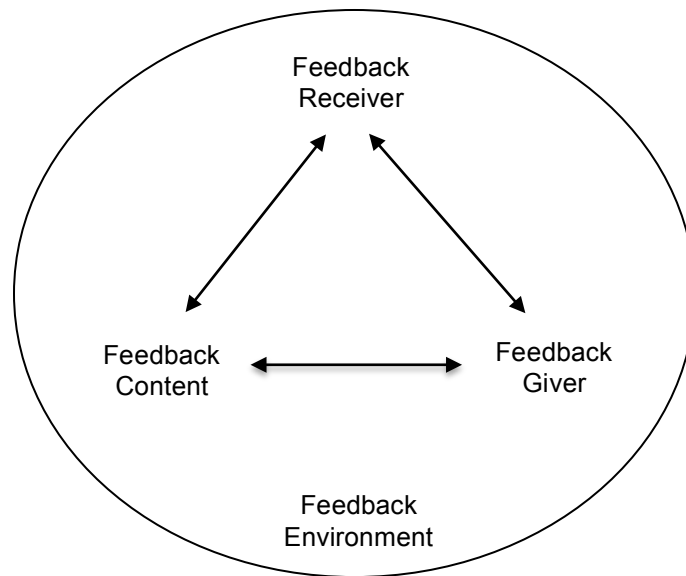
Figure 1. Feedback as interaction

The feedback as interaction framework builds on more recent research on feedback and professional practice. This includes Boud & Molloy's (2013) assertion that "feedback constitutes a set of practices, framed by purposeful and dual intentions (to improve immediate work and future work), nestled within conditions favorable for uptake and use" (p. 5). This framework also draws on Carless's (2013) notion of dialogic feedback, defined as "interactive exchanges in which interpretations are shared, meanings negotiated and expectations clarified" (p. 90). Dialogic feedback involves the building of trusting relationships and consistent opportunities for interaction about learning and quality for all members of the feedback environment (Carless, 2006, 2013; Yang & Carless, 2013). Further, it draws on Grossman and colleagues' (2009) conception of "relational practice" and professional practice, derived from the work of Chaiklin and

Lave (1996). Feedback is a relational practice, and I adopt their definition of professional practice "that incorporates both intellectual and technical activities and that encompasses both the individual practitioner and the professional community" (Grossman et al., 2009). Rather than focusing practice on skills alone, this definition of practice incorporates identity, relationship, cognition, environment, *and* skills.

The feedback as interaction conceptualization challenges common conceptions and misconceptions about feedback (Molloy & Boud, 2013a). These include the misconceptions that feedback is a stand-alone event or something that is "given" with an expectation that change will occur. I contend that the misconceptions and underconceptualizations of feedback that persist in our workplaces and our lives, such as these, limit learning and growth. It is my aim that this framework offers an opportunity to consider how a more robust, complex understanding of feedback can maximize learning for all members of the feedback environment.

To date, feedback *givers* are the overwhelming focus of policy and practice related to feedback. These feedback givers—administrators, supervisors, coaches—are directed to give more feedback and policymakers call for improving feedback givers' skills. This is consistent with some of the misconceptions about feedback identified in the literature (Boud & Molloy, 2013; Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Molloy & Boud, 2013a). The focus on feedback givers in policy and practice reinforces the passivity of the receiver and emphasizes the one-way, hierarchical transmission of feedback from "expert" to "novice" (Molloy & Boud, 2013b; Sutton et al., 2012).

Therefore, in the feedback as interaction framework, I have intentionally located the feedback receiver at the apex of the triangle (see Figure 1). My aim is to draw

attention to the feedback receiver as central to this series of complex interactions. This is akin to the way in which more recent learning theories (e.g. constructivism, sociocultural theory) have located the learner centrally in the teaching and learning process. As Archer (2010) argues, "The individual is the focus; the feedback is the modality" (p. 103). Thus, as part of the framework of feedback as interaction, I call for a more feedback receiver-centered conception of the process (Boud & Molloy, 2013; Butler & Winne, 1995).

In addition, this framework highlights the situated nature of feedback exchanges through its focus on the feedback environment. Feedback occurs within the context of interpersonal relationships nested within the context of schools as organizations. Research indicates that the effectiveness of feedback exchanges lives and dies within these contexts (e.g. London & Smither, 2002; London, Smither, & Adsit, 1997). The environment in which one works affects one's view of feedback and vice-versa (Levy & Thompson, 2012; Rosen, Levy, & Hall, 2006). Levy and Thompson (2012) assert, "Without considering the influence of contextual factors, we are not able to understand the feedback process or improve performance management programs" (p. 218). Despite its significance, the way in which context shapes feedback is under-examined in most models (Archer, 2010). Thus, in the feedback as interaction framework, I draw attention to the feedback environment as a powerful force that interacts with individuals, inhibiting and supporting learning and professional growth (Borko, 2004; Putnam & Borko, 2000).

I will now examine each element of the feedback as interaction framework: feedback receiver, feedback giver, feedback content, and feedback environment. Two caveats: First, "feedback giver" and "feedback receiver" are commonly used terms in the feedback literature. For that reason, and because using too many terms (e.g. learner,

supervisor, etc.) may cause confusion, I have chosen to use "giver" and "receiver" in the framework. With the selection of these terms, however, it is not my goal to reify the passivity of the receiver and the expertise of the giver. Second, this framework emphasizes interaction, complexity, and the dialogic nature of feedback, thus each of the four elements I identify are not as clearly delineated as I have made them for the purposes of this paper. The elements of the framework are interwoven and contextualized, and I have aimed to convey that complexity throughout the discussion.

The Feedback Receiver

Research on feedback receivers is overwhelmingly clear—they are primarily motivated by the protection of ego (e.g. Kluger & Nir, 2006; London & Smither, 2002; Sherman & Cohen, 2006). Although the feedback giver's primary aim is to change behavior, the feedback receiver's primary aim is to protect their self-esteem, self-worth, and identity (Hepper & Sedikides, 2012; Leary & Terry, 2012). Gilbert, Pinel, Wilson, Blumberg, and Witley (1998) coined this the "psychological immune system." When under threat, real or perceived, people respond so as to protect their ego, restore a sense of security, minimize uncertainty, and manage others' impressions of them (Kluger & Nir, 2006; Sherman & Cohen, 2006).

This natural tendency for ego protection is adaptive, in the sense that it protects the self from harm. However, Sherman and Cohen (2006) indicate that the defensive tendency to reject threatening information is maladaptive when it forestalls learning. This desire to attenuate the psychological impact of feedback (Leary & Terry, 2012) often results in the avoidance, distortion, or discounting of feedback (Ashford, Blatt, & VandeWalle, 2003). Hepper and Sedikides (2012) claim, "People go to great lengths to

avoid, minimize, and get over negative feedback" (p. 48) with negative consequences for their development. Thus, individuals' needs for ego protection often conflicts with their needs for self-actualization via feedback (Kluger & Nir, 2006).

The receiver's view of self. Because feedback receivers are primarily motivated by the maintenance and protection of their ego (Kluger & Nir, 2006; London & Smither, 2002; Sherman & Cohen, 2006), one's self-image impacts how feedback is received and interpreted (Alicke & Sedikides, 2009; London & Smither, 2002). Individuals seek feedback that is consistent with their existing view of self (Ashford, Blatt, & VandeWalle, 2003). Chang and Swann (2012) claim, "People desire and need feedback that is congruent with their own self-views to both make sense of the world and to function better in their social relationships. People function best when they look into the mirror and see themselves" (p. 39).

However, the perceptions that individuals have of themselves are typically inaccurate. Research indicates that people see themselves more positively than others do (e.g. Cannon & Witherspoon, 2005). "People are over-optimistic in their predictions of future success, and in their estimations of their current knowledge and competence" (Sherman & Cohen, 2006, p. 4). Despite available data that could better inform their view of self, Hepper and Sedikides (2012) claim, "adults do not possess commendably accurate or objective views of themselves. Moreover, this inaccuracy is not random: it is systematically biased in a self-flattering manner" (p. 43).

But the "judgment gap" (Butler & Winne, 1995) between one's assessment of self and others' assessment can cause conflict or dissonance in feedback sessions (Molloy et al., 2013; Stone & Heen, 2014). Feedback receivers use prior beliefs to assess the validity

of incoming feedback and "easily reject belief-incongruent evidence" and accept evidence that is "belief congruent" (Sherman & Cohen, 2006, p. 14). A lifetime's worth of experience "leads them to decide whether they should modify their perceptions and evaluations of themselves on the basis of new feedback" (Leary & Terry, 2012, p. 17). They use "feedback strategically, in the service of self-enhancement and self-protection" (Hepper & Sedikides, 2012, p. 44; see also Alicke & Sedikides, 2009), selectively dismissing or minimizing feedback that is inconsistent with their sense of self (Chang & Swann, 2012; Leary & Terry, 2012). Because individuals typically hold positively-biased views of self, critical feedback can appear inaccurate and threatening (Cannon & Witherspoon, 2005) and favorable feedback (or feedback that is consistent with one's view of self) can often lead individuals to believe there is no need for change (Smither et al., 2005).

This challenge, however, points to one of the primary values of feedback. Individuals hold biases about themselves that make them poor assessors of self. Thus, external feedback can help individuals understand the gaps in their understanding or performance in a more accurate way. Over time, it is hoped that external feedback will help individuals become better able to accurately self-assess and self-regulate (Butler & Winne, 1995; Molloy et al., 2013; Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006). Abilities Ashford (1989) argues are necessary to increasing individual and organizational outcomes.

The receiver's view of ability. Feedback receivers' views of self are tied to their views of their ability. These perceptions then affect their receptivity to feedback. To explore this relationship, feedback researchers (e.g. Latham, Cheng, & Macpherson, 2012; Ashford et al., 2003) have found it useful to draw from Dweck's (1999) implicit

person theory. Dweck's theory asserts that there are two views of ability: (1) that ability is a fixed and innate attribute that is challenging to develop and change (what Dweck calls entity implicit theory), and (2) that ability is malleable and can be developed with effort (what Dweck calls incremental implicit theory). In later work, Dweck (2006) labels these a "fixed" mindset and a "growth" mindset (Figure 2).

Dweck (1999) argues that these theories correspond to two types of goal orientations that individuals can hold: a performance goal orientation or a learning goal orientation. Individuals with a performance goal orientation seek to avoid negative judgments about their ability and validate their self-worth through positive judgments from others. Individuals with a learning goal orientation, on the other hand, seek to develop ability and demonstrate competence through effort and the acquisition of new skills.

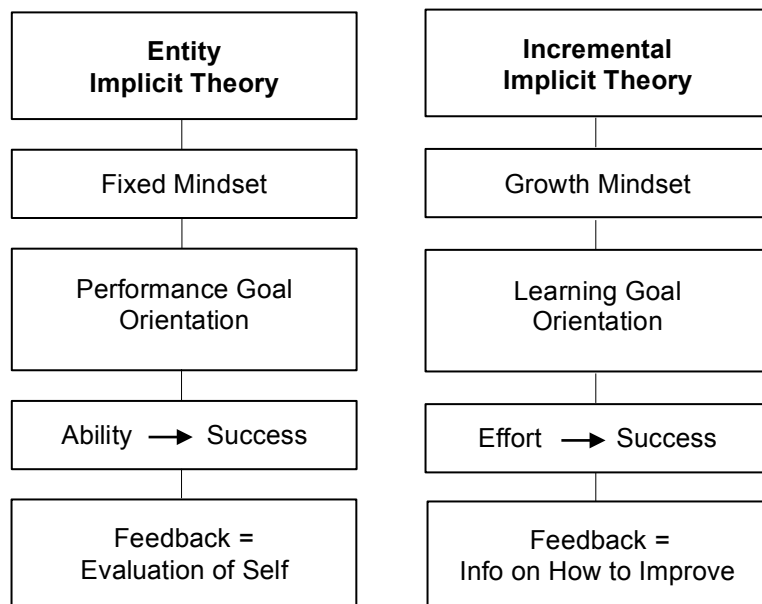| Entity Implicit Theory	Incremental Implicit Theory
Fixed Mindset	Growth Mindset
Performance Goal Orientation	Learning Goal Orientation
Ability → Success	Effort → Success
Feedback = Evaluation of Self	Feedback = Info on How to Improve

Figure 2. Implicit Person Theory, Dweck (1999)

These orientations have implications for people's perceptions of feedback. "With a learning goal orientation, feedback is viewed as information on how to improve; with a performance goal orientation, feedback is viewed primarily as an evaluation of aspects on the self such as one's competency and worth" (Ashford et al., 2003, p. 791; see also VandeWalle, 2003; Dweck, 1999). Individuals with learning goal orientations are more open to feedback and more apt to actively seek feedback due to their desire to and belief in their ability to improve (Ashford et al., 2003). Further, people with learning goal orientations are better able to process and neutralize negative feedback so that it does not destroy their self-esteem, instead using this data for growth (VandeWalle, 2003). Individuals with performance goal orientations, however, are more likely to perceive feedback as an attack on their ability. Thus, they avoid feedback that could negatively impact their sense of self (Northcraft & Ashford, 1990).

Therefore, though all individuals have a psychological immune system that seeks to mitigate feedback threats, a learning goal orientation can serve as a mediating variable in the uptake of feedback. Importantly, a growth mindset and learning goal orientation can be developed; they are not fixed constructs (Dweck, 1999). Thus, studies indicate that it is important to consider how workplaces can develop growth mindsets in their employees so that employees see ability as malleable and improvement as possible (Smither et al., 2005).

The receiver's self-efficacy. In addition to considering overall perceptions of ability in the form of their goal orientation, feedback researchers also explore the relationship of receivers' self-efficacy to their uptake of feedback. Drawn from Bandura's (1986) social cognitive theory, self-efficacy is "task-specific self-confidence that the

mastery of a task and/or the attainment of a high goal are doable" (Latham, Cheng, & Macpherson, 2012, p. 188). People with low self-efficacy are likely to believe that change will be fruitless; therefore they will have little motivation and exhibit minimal effort—even when they think that change is needed (Smither et al., 2005).

People with high self-efficacy, on the other hand, are likely to use feedback information more effectively. They use feedback to increase motivation and effort, and they are able to self-defeat negative thoughts related to the feedback they receive (Ashford et al., 2003). Though self-efficacy is specific to perceived competence particular to a task, there is a correlation between low self-efficacy and a fixed mindset, and high self-efficacy and a growth mindset. This again points to the finding that efficacy can be cultivated in feedback receivers.

The receiver's feedback orientation. Together, all of these dimensions make up a receiver's feedback orientation. London and Smither (2002) contend that feedback orientation is a construct that determines "an individual's overall receptivity to feedback and the extent to which the individual welcomes guidance and coaching" (p. 82-83). Levy and Thompson's (2012) model of feedback orientation includes four dimensions: (1) utility- the belief that feedback leads to other outcomes of value, (2) accountability- the sense of obligation to use feedback, (3) social awareness- the use of feedback to increase one's awareness of others' views of self, and (4) self-efficacy- one's own confidence in effectively using the feedback.

Positive feedback orientation is positively correlated with feedback acceptance and a belief in continuous learning (Rutkowski, Steelman, & Griffith, 2004).[3] Further, a high learning goal orientation is linked to a high feedback orientation and high feedback-seeking (Levy & Thompson, 2012; VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997). Levy & Thompson (2012) argue that future research is likely to bear out that feedback orientation is one of the "strongest and most consistent predictors of feedback-seeking behavior" (p. 225) and the uptake of feedback.

The receiver's responses to feedback. Feedback orientation, and all of the dimensions that compose it, shape the feedback receiver's responses to feedback. Some of these responses are adaptive, helping the receiver to change, and some are maladaptive, preventing change. In a feedback conversation, Stone and Heen (2014) argue that there are three potential triggers to our psychological immune system: truth triggers, relationship triggers, and identity triggers. I will first describe each type of trigger, then explain the maladaptive responses that can be caused by these triggers, and then examine more adaptive responses to feedback.

Truth triggers. When feedback receivers feel that the feedback they are being given is inaccurate or unhelpful, it triggers feelings of anger or being wronged (Stone & Heen, 2014). A belief that feedback is incorrect may also create feelings of unfairness or injustice. Perceptions of injustice can then lead to doubts about the legitimacy of the feedback giver, as well as the content of the feedback (Cupach & Carson, 2002)

Identity triggers. Critical feedback is seen as a threat to identity, which threatens one's overall sense of self-integrity (Sherman & Cohen, 2006). For example, if one's

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[3] The propensity for continuous learning and a positive feedback orientation are also aligned with the research on the development of expertise and deliberate practice (e.g. Ericcson, 2008; Dreyfus, 2004; Berliner, 1994).

identity is bound up in being a "good teacher," then any critical feedback about one's teaching may threaten that identity and trigger a maladaptive response to the feedback (e.g. defensiveness). Identity triggers can also relate to differences in race, class, gender, and culture between the feedback giver and receiver. For members of marginalized groups, there may be an increased sensitivity to identity-based judgments (Piff & Mendoza-Denton, 2012).

     Relationship triggers. Relationships are integral to the uptake of feedback. Thus, what we think about the giver (e.g. their credibility, values, identity, trust) and how we feel treated by the giver (e.g. acceptance, autonomy, appreciation) (Stone & Heen, 2014) profoundly impact our receptivity to their feedback. Relationship triggers, in fact, can defeat feedback conversations before they even start because receivers may enter into the conversation with pre-existing beliefs about the giver. Studies indicate that distrust, for example, is negatively related to feedback use (Smither et al., 2005). Similarly, the credibility of the giver is a factor in uptake. Leary and Terry (2012) claim that even though a feedback giver may be in a position that legitimizes the giving of feedback (e.g. manager), that does not mean that the giver will be perceived as credible.

     Research also indicates that people's "self-esteem is directly linked to the degree to which people believe that others value and accept them and, thus, to the feedback that they receive" (Leary & Terry, 2012, p. 18). Leary and Terry (2012) argue that social acceptance is so important to humans that, "As a result, they react positively to feedback that conveys that they have high relational value and negatively to feedback that connotes low relational value whether or not the feedback has direct pragmatic consequences" (p. 17). Further, because of the power asymmetry that is frequently at play in the giver-

receiver dyad—often the giver may represent a different group from the receiver (e.g. social, cultural, racial, gender, organizational)—differing perceptions of fairness and feelings of injustice may come into play (Umlauft & Dalbert, 2012). These findings have implications for both feedback givers and receivers. Stone and Heen (2014) claim that for receivers, for example, it is important to internally recognize the difference between relationship concerns and feedback content concerns in order to remain open to the content of the feedback.

   Maladaptive responses to feedback. Stone and Heen (2014) claim that feedback receivers listen to feedback with one question in mind: What is wrong with this feedback? This tendency, which they call "wrong spotting," defeats wrong feedback, but it also defeats learning (Stone & Heen, 2014). This is the case because receivers often skip trying to understand the feedback and where it is coming from and, instead, jump immediately to judgment of the feedback or giver. According to Stone and Heen (2014), relationship triggers create a very easy form of wrong spotting that immediately shuts down dialogue. For example, though a receiver may have decided the feedback giver has no credibility (based upon prior interactions or not), it does not mean their feedback is inaccurate; and dismissing their feedback may lead to a missed opportunity for growth.

   Wrong spotting is consistent with the maladaptive responses to external feedback outlined by Chinn and Brewer (1993 in Molloy et al., 2013, p. 56-57):

1. Ignore the feedback
2. Reject the feedback
3. Review the feedback as irrelevant
4. Refuse to see the connection between internal and external feedback
5. Re-interpret the feedback to align with internal judgment
6. Act on the feedback in a superficial way

Research by Leary and Terry (2012) and Cupach and Carson (2002) further reinforces the notion that feedback receivers may try to minimize or reject critical feedback. Or when it cannot be rejected, receivers may claim that the feedback, though accurate, is unimportant and thus reject it (Alicke & Sedikides, 2009). London and Smither (1995) point out that higher credibility of the giver and reliability of results makes denial harder.

These findings are consistent with those of attribution theory (Heider, 1958). Attribution theory posits that people "view themselves as selectively responsible for producing positive rather than negative outcomes" (Sherman & Cohen, 2006, p. 4; see also London et al., 1997). Individuals tend to deflect criticism to external forces or situational causes, placing blame on others while attributing success to themselves (Alicke & Sedikides, 2009; Cannon & Witherspoon, 2005; Hepper & Sedikides, 2012). Attribution enables people to disassociate themselves from negative feedback. In doing so, they can choose not to take the feedback seriously (Hepper & Sedikides, 2012) and not incorporate it into their self-view.

Adaptive responses to feedback. Instead of wrong spotting and other maladaptive responses to feedback, Stone and Heen (2014) suggest a more adaptive response to feedback: difference spotting. This is an attempt to understand the feedback giver's views as we are aware of our own. Instead of asking, "why is this feedback wrong?," receivers should ask, "why do we see this differently?" This, contend Stone and Heen (2014), opens the receiver up to dialogue and change. Recognizing, for example, that the giver may have different data and thus a different interpretation of the situation is a crucial form of difference spotting.

Additionally, Stone and Heen (2014) offer that it is important for the feedback receiver to honestly self-reflect to assess their own blind spots regarding their presence in feedback conversations, the ways in which their temperament affects the way they react to feedback, and the ways in which they learn best. Molloy and colleagues (2013) contend that self-evaluation of this type may be one way to counter maladaptive responses, as it gives the feedback receiver the opportunity to voice his or her own assessment. This, they claim, may enable more productive difference spotting and consideration of alternative assessments. Further, Stone and Heen (2014) encourage receivers to offer these observations to the giver, thus increasing the likelihood that receivers will stay open to the feedback conversation.

However, this stance requires risk for the feedback receiver. Feedback conversations are often a form of performance appraisal, typically in a hierarchical relationship (i.e. manager—employee). Research indicates that feedback receivers are often complicit in the one-way transmission of knowledge from giver to receivers (Molloy, Borrell-Carrió, & Epstein, 2013; Molloy 2009). This is often due to perceived or real risk of challenging the giver, fear of vocalizing inaccurate assessments, or fear of revealing weakness. Ashford and Cumming's 1983 study on feedback-seeking behavior indicates that people will not seek feedback or will avoid feedback due to fears about others' perceptions of them or when others expect competence and confidence from them.

Though research encourages dialogic feedback, reflection goes against the grain in most organizations, where a premium is placed on appearing competent. Pointing out one's own challenges, especially to superiors, may be seen as a sign of weakness

(Osterman & Kottkamp, 1993; Argyris, 1990). Further, pointing out to a superior why you see a situation differently (e.g. pointing out the data they are lacking) is a risk requiring both confidence and trust. "In public contexts, individuals must weigh the instrumental or ego benefits of feedback against potential image costs" (Ashford et al., 2003, p. 781; see also Leary & Terry, 2012). Therefore, both feedback receivers and givers need to be mindful of the ways in which receivers weigh personal risks and potential rewards in the feedback process.

Despite fear and a desire for self-protection, Stone and Heen (2014) suggest that receivers need to open themselves up to the feedback process and to the feedback giver in order to transform the relationship. "Not just because you learn," they argue, "but because the interaction itself creates connection and shifts both of your roles inside the relationship" (p. 282). This, then, affords the receiver the opportunity to drive his or her own learning in the feedback process, thus shifting feedback to a learner-centered interaction.

The receiver's self-regulation. Taking control of one's own learning is one of the ultimate goals of dialogic feedback. This goal is also consistent with the goal of self-regulation in learning (Butler & Winne, 1995; Boud & Molloy, 2013; Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006). Research indicates that one of the aims of feedback is to empower the receiver to self-regulate their own thinking, behavior, and motivation (Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006), thereby increasing self-determination (London & Smither, 2002).

Effective external feedback processes support individuals to construct a more accurate view of self and internalize the use of effective feedback process. Over time, this

process then empowers employees to self-regulate through the construction of internal feedback, including the active setting of one's own goals and the assessment of the effort needed to reach them (Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006). Butler and Winne (1995) assert that individuals who are more effective at self-regulation are better able to generate internal feedback and couple it with external feedback to reach self-generated goals. This in turn makes these individuals more effective learners (Pintrich, 1995) and, by inference, better employees.

Ashford (1989) argues that self-regulation is crucial for the improvement of self and of organizations. "Rather than portraying employees as reactive agents who merely respond to environmental stimuli and who need to be directed and given feedback by others, the proactivity literature views employees as active agents who have proactive control over their own goals and development" (De Stobbeleir & Ashford, 2012, p. 249; see also Grant & Ashford, 2008; Muijs et al., 2014). However, proactivity and self-determination are not traditional facets of the performance appraisal process, which points to a gap in current practice. If self-regulation is in fact a goal of feedback, then these processes need to be revisited to more effectively incorporate the self-determination of goals by feedback receivers.

Implications for practice and research. Studies on the social psychological processes of feedback receivers indicate that feedback is about more than cognition and transmission; feedback receivers actively make meaning of the feedback that they receive. Feedback interacts with individuals' feelings and beliefs about self, including their self-efficacy, self-esteem (Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006), and learning goal orientation (Dweck, 1999). Receivers choose to accept or reject the feedback, act upon or

ignore it, integrate it into their self-concept or not, often with little respect to its accuracy (Leary & Terry, 2012).

Psychological reactions to feedback point to the profound impact of the internal processes of the receiver upon the effectiveness of the feedback process. Therefore, I argue that there needs to be considerably more research on how these processes manifest themselves in teachers receiving feedback. For example, there is a need for further exploration on the extant research on the malleability of goal orientation and mindset. If a teacher's goal orientation can shift over time (Dweck, 1999), and if feedback orientation is a mutually reinforcing construct (Levy & Thompson, 2012; VandeWalle & Cummings, 1997), then further research needs to be conducted on the types of feedback environments and interventions that can support a learning goal orientation and positive feedback orientation in teachers (Smither et al., 2005).

Further, little research focuses on the ways in which feedback receivers can be better prepared and supported to engage in feedback dialogue and the performance appraisal process. Stone and Heen's (2014) *Thanks for the feedback: The science and art of receiving feedback well* is a notable exception to this, and that text was only released in the past year. For decades, there has been excessive attention paid to the skills and tools that should be employed by managers, but a lack of attention to the other half of this dyad—the receiver. This points to a gap in the research and practice landscape that is in need of investigation. For example, how might teacher preparation programs more explicitly equip pre-service teachers to understand their feedback triggers, how to overcome maladaptive responses to feedback, and how to articulate engagement with critical feedback? Or, how might job-embedded professional development support in-

service teachers to do the same? Because feedback naturally involves risk, fear, and threat, research and practical support on how teachers can be better prepared to anticipate these responses and become empowered to address them proactively would advance the effectiveness of feedback. Further, I posit that work in these areas would increase the likelihood that teachers could become drivers of their own learning, as the feedback research endorses.

There are also implications for normalizing reflection and openness so that receivers feel less risk when engaging in these acts. Throughout the history of teacher supervision and evaluation, there has been a tension between accountability and development. As new teacher evaluation systems attempt to address these dual purposes, there is a need for research to address whether performance appraisals can or should effectively do both (Hallinger, Heck, & Murphy, 2014; Hill & Grossman, 2013). As some researchers have warned (e.g. Darling-Hammond, Wise, & Pease, 1983; Hill & Grossman, 2013), it is possible that accountability will decrease risk-taking, openness, and trust in the relationships and exchanges between teachers and supervisors, thus undermining the effectiveness of feedback. With the mass reform of teacher evaluation across the U.S., this is an important area in need of exploration.

Similarly, because research indicates that the relationship between feedback giver and receiver is foundational to effective feedback, there needs to be considerably more research on this relationship in the context of feedback for the improvement of teaching. Stone and Heen (2014) assert, "You can't 'metric' your way around the fact that feedback is a relationship-based, judgment-laced process...the feedback lives (or dies) amid the trust, credibility, relationship, and communication skills between giver and

receiver" (p. 294). In this area, the existing research on instructional leadership (e.g. Le Fevre & Robinson, 2015), school effectiveness (e.g. Bryk, & Schneider, 2002), and relational trust (e.g. Tschannen-Moran, 2014) is the most informative and the most tied to extant feedback research. However, there is considerably more research to be done on the hierarchical relationships in schools between teachers as feedback receivers and principals as feedback givers, how this intersects with evaluation and development, and the appropriateness of other roles (e.g. instructional coaches, peers) as feedback givers. Because of the importance of this relationship, I now turn my attention to the existing research on the feedback giver in the context of the feedback as interaction framework.

The Feedback Giver

Both feedback receivers and givers experience similar psychological responses to the feedback process. Despite often being in positions of hierarchical power, feedback givers also experience stress and anxiety surrounding feedback, including fears about their competence and concerns about their identity (Yariv, 2006). Though researchers have identified this reality, "traditional management education has focused more on analytical tools and skills that are not well matched to the psychological aspects of giving feedback" (Cannon & Witherspoon, 2005, p. 122). Thus, feedback givers are neither equipped to manage their own psychological responses to the feedback process, nor the emotional responses of their employees.

Managers' skills in the feedback process are not without use or not worthy of development (as I will discuss in the feedback content section of this paper), however research on feedback tells us why feedback givers ought to focus on developing their emotional intelligence skills. Foremost, research indicates that, despite the persistence of

input/output conceptions of feedback, "Giving is not receiving" (Hattie, 2012). As studies

on feedback receivers point out, responses to feedback do not hinge solely on the skill of

the giver or even on what is being communicated (Stone & Heen, 2014). Rather, the self-

concept, self-efficacy, feedback orientation, and goal orientation of the receiver—and

giver—are large determinants of how feedback is received. For example, even when

recipients of feedback report that feedback was useful, that doesn't necessarily lead to

change or even intention to change on the part of the receiver (London, Smither, & Adsit,

1997). Thus, managers' lack of preparation for these integral aspects of feedback has

negative impacts on feedback effectiveness, the relationship between giver and receiver,

and the self-concept of both individuals.

   The giver's view of self and ability. As I explored in my discussion of feedback

receivers, feedback givers' mindsets and identities inform the feedback process. Givers

often harbor concerns about being seen as mean, possess fear about being disliked, or

have anxiety that they are not good at giving feedback (Stone & Heen, 2014).

Additionally, the increased span of managerial control makes it challenging for managers

to provide timely feedback to employees (Ashford & Northcraft, 2003). And, further,

they may lack the experience necessary to effectively do this work (De Stobbeleir &

Ashford, 2012) or the content knowledge (LeFevre & Robison, 2015; Nelson & Sassi,

2005; Stein & Nelson, 2003), raising internal concerns about their own credibility.

Because of these concerns, giving feedback is one of managers' least preferred tasks,

especially when feedback is critical (Manzoni, 2002; Audia & Locke, 2004). Like

feedback receivers, givers avoid feedback due to fears of others' perceptions of them

and/or because of others' expectations of competence in leaders (Ashford & Cummings, 1983).

Due to the anticipation of negative emotions for both themselves and receivers, feedback givers tend to engage in two behaviors that undermine the effectiveness of feedback: (1) the inflation of favorable feedback, and (2) the delay, withholding, or avoidance of negative feedback. In the literature, this has been identified as "vanishing feedback" (Ende, 1983)—the failure to raise an important issue with the feedback receiver because of fear of the negative reaction that you may get as the giver—or the "mum effect" (Rosen & Tesser, 1970)—the tendency to keep mum about unpleasant messages and avoid the transmission of bad news.

Both the inflation and withholding or delay of information by the giver is done with the intention to protect one's self and/or protect the receiver (London et al., 1997). These tendencies may be particularly acute when the manager is the single-source of feedback (London & Smither, 1995). Inflation of favorable feedback is typically borne out of a manager's fear of damaging relationships and the manager's own doubts about his or her ability to effectively engage in the feedback process (Farr et al., 2012). Withholding critical information prevents conflict and, by avoiding negative emotional responses, allows the feedback giver to remain in control of the feedback session (Osterman & Kottkamp, 1993; Argyris & Schön, 1974).

The mum effect may also derive from the giver's belief that the receiver will not use the critical information to improve, or from lack of understanding and/or aggravation about why prior feedback did not have the desired effect (Cannon & Witherspoon, 2005). This points to attribution bias among feedback givers. Like receivers, they have a

tendency to blame others (for example, employees) for failures and may find the performance of others, rather than themselves, lacking (Cannon & Witherspoon, 2005). Thus, givers may attribute a failure of feedback uptake on the receiver, not on the shortcomings in their own feedback giving. In either case, the giver may decide it is not worth the personal risk to relay this information when it will only serve to damage the receiver's feelings and the giver's relationship with them.

Research specifically within the area of instructional leadership and teacher supervision and evaluation indicates that school leaders exhibit these same avoidance tendencies. Le Fevre and Robinson (2015) found that principals struggle with conversations about staff performance issues and "typically work around the issues rather than directly address them" (p. 61). Similarly, Pejak and Arrington (2004) and Bridges (1992) found that avoiding confrontation and tolerating poor performance were common principal responses to ineffective teaching. In dealing with teachers' performance issues, principals find themselves in what Le Fevre and Robinson (2015) call a "task-relationship dilemma." Like other researchers (e.g. Farr et al., 2012; London et al., 1997), Le Fevre and Robinson (2015) indicate that principals feel that they have the choice to protect the relationship and sacrifice performance improvement or vice-versa. Yet, to improve teaching practice, it is important that school leaders be equipped to do both.

The giver's view of receivers and their ability. All of these behaviors anticipate the worse case scenario in the sharing of critical feedback. Argyris (1990) notes that these strategies, though often borne from a desire to protect, actually undermine trust and create defensive relationships that inhibit the development of a learning organization. Bryk and Schneider (2002) found that, in schools, a leader's competence in dealing with

poor teacher and staff performance was a key determinant of trust in the leader. Instead of avoiding difficult conversations, studies suggest that openly sharing information and believing in employees' ability and desire to improve is what actually nurtures problem solving and the improvement of practice (Osterman & Kottkamp, 1993; Argyris, 1990; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1990; Argyris & Schön, 1974).

This raises two interesting questions regarding feedback givers: Does the manager believe in an employee's ability to improve? Does the manager maintain first impressions of employees and/or stereotypes of certain groups of employees? (Ashford, Blatt, & VanderWalle, 2003; Heslin, Latham, & VandeWalle, 2005; Latham, Cheng, & Macpherson, 2012). Scholars argue that nurturing reflective practice in the feedback process is contingent on the giver's belief in the development of a growth mindset and the potential that expertise can be developed in others and oneself (Dweck, 1999; Molly & Boud, 2013). Osterman and Kottkamp (1993, p. 46-47) contend that the facilitator in the reflective process must be someone who accepts six beliefs about professional development:

1) Everyone needs professional growth opportunities.
2) All professionals want to improve.
3) All professionals *can* learn.
4) All professionals are capable of assuming responsibility for their own professional growth and development.
5) People need and want information about their own performance.
6) Collaboration enriches professional development.

Research indicates that this stance has important effects on the uptake of feedback. If the feedback giver expresses a developmental intent, it increases the likelihood that the receiver will actually use the feedback (Cannon & Witherspoon, 2005). Further, individuals who "receive feedback conveying that they are efficacious will be motivated

to act, whereas those whose self-efficacy is lowered by feedback will lose motivation"

(Leary & Terry, 2012, p. 17). In essence, it is important that feedback givers have a

positive feedback orientation in order to increase the effectiveness of the process.[4]

__Pulling, not pushing.__ Feedback givers are taught to "push harder" on the

feedback receiver in discussions about performance (Stone & Heen, 2014). But this focus

is wrong, the researchers argue. Instead, the focus should be on "pulling" feedback from

the receiver. This, they claim, will make receivers more skillful learners and lead to

greater growth and improvement for both parties.

In this process of pulling feedback, managers may also open themselves up to

acknowledging gaps in understanding between themselves and the receiver. People are

overconfident in the accuracy of their own perceptions; therefore, individuals expect

others to see things as they do. "Feedback givers tend to forget that they may be missing

something as a result of incomplete data, misinterpretation, or relying on a faulty

assumption" (Cannon & Witherspoon, 2005, p. 126). In the giving (and receiving) of

feedback, everyone makes inferences and these should be acknowledged and discussed

openly (Cannon & Witherspoon, 2005). In recognizing this potential feedback pitfall,

givers can avoid the triggering of maladaptive responses in receivers that may be used as

reasons not to engage in feedback conversations (Stone & Heen, 2014). Additionally, by

viewing resistance and/or the identification of differences as something valuable rather

than as something to be overcome, givers are engaging in what researchers argue is a

positive managerial behavior (Tourish & Tourish, 2012; Ashford, 2003). By opening

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[4] Interestingly, research has not revealed a direct relationship between supervisors' feedback orientations and the feedback orientations of their subordinates. However, it is not clear why this was the case in studies conducted and more research is needed in this area (Levy & Thompson, 2012).

themselves up to dialogue about both their perceptions and those of the receiver, givers are more likely to breed the trust and open communication that are so critical in feedback relationships.

Developing relationships with receivers. As highlighted in the discussion about feedback receivers, relationships are crucial to feedback effectiveness. Leary and Terry (2012) assert, "the interpersonal context has a powerful effect on how people respond to feedback...how people deal with a particular piece of evaluative feedback often depends as much on who gives the feedback and how it delivered as on the content of the evaluation" (p. 19). Thus, it is imperative that the feedback giver be intentional and proactive about nurturing the relationship, particularly the relational trust, between him or herself and the receiver.

Because of the likelihood that feedback exchanges will take place in uneven relationships of power, and because of the behaviorist roots of feedback, there is a tendency for both givers and receivers to defer to authority and rely on the more experienced person telling the less experienced person what to do better (Molloy & Boud, 2013a). This tendency, however, does little to nurture a structure that empowers employees as learners, nor to increase honest, two-way communication (Tourish & Tourish, 2012). To combat this, studies suggest that managers can do things like sharing their philosophy about feedback, articulating their own strengths and weaknesses in feedback giving and receiving, and inviting the receiver to coach them during the process (Drago-Severson & Blum-DeStefano, 2014; Osterman & Kottkamp, 1993; Stone & Heen, 2014). In addition, they can ask the receiver to share information about their temperament and strengths and weaknesses (Drago-Severson & Blum-DeStefano, 2014;

Stone & Heen, 2014) so that emotional and developmental differences can be openly discussed at the onset and then monitored throughout the dialogue.

Actions such as these accomplish, at a minimum, three important goals. First, they enable the manager to model learning, setting a non-hierarchical and open tone that decreases feelings of risk for the receiver. Second, they encourage upward feedback. As managers move up, honest feedback to them becomes less frequent (Ashford et al., 2003) and this has been deemed a "silent killer" of organizations (Beer & Eisenstadt, 2000; Tourish & Tourish, 2012). Third, they build relational trust. Due to the emotional nature of feedback, "Trusting virtues such as empathy, tact, and a genuine willingness to listen are ways in which positive feedback messages can flourish and more critical ones can be softened" (Carless, 2013, p. 90). In the absence of trust, Carless (2013) claims, the likelihood of feedback uptake is limited. Findings on relational trust in schools echo these findings (e.g. Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Robinson, 2010; Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2015). It should be noted, however, that all of these goals might go against the grain of organizational cultures and personal leadership values that place a premium on control, competence, and authority. Thus, there are implications for the ways in which we conceive of vulnerability in management and leadership.

Implications for practice and research. Research indicates that giving feedback is one of the most challenging and avoided tasks of managers. In a 2014 survey of New York City school and district leaders conducted by Drago-Severson and Blum-DeStefano (2014), 75% of respondents indicated that "giving feedback was the 'most important skill' they want to build and grow, particularly in relation to having difficult conversations" (p. 18). And for good reason—feedback giving, like receiving, is difficult

and emotional work for which most leaders feel underprepared. Kluger and Nir (2006) argue, "... a manager wishing to improve performance has to gauge the personality of employees receiving the feedback, the nature of the task, the way the employees construe the task, and the level of self-efficacy in the task that the employee possesses" (p. 16). Further, managers must grapple with their own affective responses, feelings of self-efficacy, and self-concept in this process. This, claim Kluger and Nir (2006), suggests that a "one size fits all" approach to feedback is not possible, despite a focus on skills in leadership preparation and practice that suggest it is.

These studies suggest implications for how we think about feedback giving in the context of teacher learning. First, this line of research indicates that a considerable amount of the ineffectiveness of feedback is due to managers' lack of understanding about the social psychological processes at play for both givers and receivers. This often manifests itself in the anticipation of negativity, feedback avoidance, and overly positive feedback (Yariv, 2006). Currently, many of the popular texts and handbooks used in supervision and evaluation courses (e.g. Acheson & Gall, 2010; Blase & Blase, 2003; Glickman, Gordon, & Gordon, 2013; Zepeda, 2007) do not sufficiently unpack these challenges, nor do they align with much of the existing research on feedback in the other disciplines reviewed here. In fact, many contradict each other.

Hence, research points to a need for more robust leadership preparation in this domain. This includes leaders' surfacing of their own conceptions of and experiences with feedback, exploring their identity and self-worth, probing their self-efficacy and feelings of credibility, and examining their beliefs about their own and employees' abilities and development. All of this could be done with supported reflection, including

coaching, journaling, and field experiences (Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, Orr, & Cohen, 2007). Such preparation and practice would help move leaders away from a one size fits all approach full of negative expectations and, instead, nurture a self-reflective, growth-oriented, and dialogic approach that research indicates is more effective.

School leaders are also in need of sustained support as they work to improve the feedback process with teachers, collectively and individually, at their school sites; an assertion supported by feedback research (London & Smither, 2002). The recent development of the principal supervisor role in some district offices could be valuable in this regard (e.g. Honig, 2012). Principal supervisors could be useful partners in both the evaluation of and accountability for principals' feedback and in their development of this practice through coaching. For example, principal supervisors might observe leaders as they conduct a post-observation conference with a teacher, followed by engaging in "feedback on feedback" and reflection with the principal. A third party, such as a principal supervisor, is useful for identifying gaps in perception between giver and receiver and helping the giver to improve, argue Cannon and Witherspoon (2005).

Further, the leadership preparation and sustained professional learning of principals (and others charged with leading feedback conversations) could include more opportunities for practice in this domain. This includes what Grossman and colleagues (2009) call "approximations of practice." These are opportunities for practice that are proximal to those of professional practice; in this case, approximations of dialogic feedback. Grossman et al.'s (2009) conception of approximations of practice is particularly useful because it takes into account the deeply relational nature of the

feedback process. I believe that leaders' engagement in approximations of practice

(Grossman et al., 2009) could have multiple benefits. These include, among others,

grappling with and reflecting upon their own identity and credibility in a lower-stakes

environment, focusing their attention on particular aspects of feedback practice, and

encountering and responding to resistance (Grossman et al, 2007). All of which could

enable leaders to develop a growth mindset in regard to this work. Likewise, teachers

could benefit from approximations of practice of this type. For both teachers and school

leaders, learning in and from practice, as advocated by Ball and Cohen (1999b), could

substantially advance professional learning.

Principal supervisors might also engage in approximations of feedback practice

with school leaders. Additionally, they could organize and facilitate groups of practicing

school leaders to engage in approximations or the discussion of video representations of

practice. Similar opportunities could present themselves between principals, instructional

coaches, and department chairs, or groups of instructional coaches and department chairs,

forming communities of practice (Lave & Wenger, 1991) for this work. All of these

examples illustrate opportunities for feedback givers to become better prepared and better

supported for the complexities of engaging teachers in feedback discussions about

performance. Job-embedded professional development opportunities of this sort also

present opportunities for research, as this is an area in school leadership research sorely

in need of examination (Goldring, Preston & Huff, 2012; LaPointe & Davis, 2006).

The extant social psychological and organizational scholarship could also be used

to further study the relationships between teachers and principals (or supervisors and

subordinates) (Price, 2012). It is clear from the research that one way to improve learning

in schools for both students and teachers is to focus on improving relationships between principals and teachers (Price, 2012) so that trust is built and, in turn, credibility and receptivity to feedback is increased (Carless, 2013; Kimball, 2005; Le Fevre & Robinson, 2015). However, more research in education is needed to understand *how* this occurs in schools and how principals' relational skills can be effectively developed. I second Le Fevre and Robinson's (2015) call for more research on leaders' skills in the context of the realities of their work in school contexts, rather than research on scenario-based role-plays (as are many of the studies to date).

Finally, exploring the realities of school leaders' lived experiences in relationship building and feedback giving is likely to point to practical implications regarding the time principals have to do this important work. Conversation with any school leader will likely highlight how they feel stretched thin by the various tasks on their daily to-do list, often bemoaning what little time they have to focus on teaching and learning; research supports this common complaint (e.g. Hallinger, 2005). In light of recent overhauls to teacher evaluation systems that typically make greater demands on principals' time (Hallinger, Heck & Murphy, 2014; Marshall, 2005) and make big promises about the effectiveness of feedback (e.g. Coggshall et al., 2012; Gates Foundation, 2013, 2014), this is an area that is in need of further research, improvements to practice, and policy discussion. Teacher evaluation reform highlights a variety of factors related to effective feedback including principals' preparation for this work, the amount of time that principals need to do this work well, the constraints on who can supervise and evaluate teachers, and if, in fact, principals should be both supervising and evaluating teachers.

Feedback Content

As I have asserted thus far, common discussions of and research on feedback tend to focus disproportionately on the "telling techniques" of feedback givers, the content of feedback messages, and what some researchers (e.g. Molloy et al., 2013) call the micro-conditions of feedback. These include things such as timing, specificity, and language. Research indicates that these micro-conditions and the actual content of feedback messages have minimal impact on the effectiveness of feedback in comparison to the macro-conditions, including the relationship between giver and receiver and the quality of the feedback environment. As Carless, Salter, Yang, and Lam (2011) assert, "...tinkering with feedback elements such as timing and detail is unlikely to be sufficient. What is required is a more fundamental reconceptualization of the feedback process" (p. 2).

Though these features cannot be crafted into a feedback formula (Kluger & Nir, 2006; Sutton et al., 2012), as many are wont to do, these features *are* relevant to the receivers' and givers' construction of meaning and relationship building. Accordingly, I turn next to explore this facet of the feedback as interaction framework. As I will highlight, many of these features are in need of further research generally, and all are in need of more research within the context of teacher learning specifically.

Purpose-setting. In feedback exchanges, it is important to orient the feedback receiver to the purpose of the feedback (Molloy et al., 2013; Stone & Heen, 2014) and then discuss this purpose jointly. Stone and Heen (2014) call this "getting aligned." This provides an opportunity to explicitly discuss the purpose of the feedback and what would be most helpful to both parties. They claim it is important for both the giver and receiver

to check in throughout the feedback discussion in order to stay focused on the purpose discussed at the onset. This prevents the conversation from veering into other types of feedback, offering the opportunity to remain focused during what is likely limited time.

The two primary purposes of feedback are developmental and administrative. As previously noted, there is debate over whether it is appropriate to include both developmental and administrative feedback in the same feedback discussion (e.g. Rynes et al., 2005). However, it is worth noting that research indicates that the nature of feedback discussions (i.e. personal, involving self-concept and self-esteem) makes it challenging for feedback receivers to focus on how to improve until they know where they stand. Thus, whether combined in one session or over multiple discussions, it is important that some level of evaluation is addressed prior to the exchange of developmental feedback. This is important, Stone and Heen (2014) argue, so that feedback offered as coaching is not heard as evaluation. And, further, so that the receiver is not fixated on figuring out where they stand, rather than where they need to go.

Judgment and bias. To be clear, however, there is some degree of evaluation in all feedback (Stone & Heen, 2014); to imply otherwise is disingenuous. The focus on supervisor "objectivity" in the instructional leadership and supervision literature falls into this trap. Molloy and colleagues (2013), drawing from Carless (2009) and Boud (1995), add that positioning "feedback information as fact, rather than as a subjective construct...can inhibit the learner's agency...leaving the learner with no room for maneuver or self-regulation" (p. 63). This, they argue, may also exacerbate power differentials between the giver and receiver.

In truth, feedback is based upon data selected and interpreted by the feedback giver. The data that is selected is inherently biased, as is the interpretation. Feedback receivers, too, make judgments about the feedback giver and the quality of the feedback that they are being given. Judgment is an inherent part of the process. Hiding behind a mask of data, rubrics, and objectivity does little to nurture authentic relationships that support improvement for the feedback receiver, nor for the giver.

Instead, subjectivity ought to be acknowledged as a reality of the feedback process and that the biases of the giver and receiver (e.g. selection of data, differences in interpretation, values) should be openly discussed in feedback exchanges. Stone and Heen's (2014) conception of difference spotting, for example, is instructive on this point. This transparency can help to increase perceptions of fairness and perceptions of the motives of the giver—two factors that influence reactions to feedback and can undermine the credibility and legitimacy of the giver (Cupach & Carson, 2002; Douglas & Skipper, 2012; Leary & Terry, 2012; Umlauft & Dalbert, 2012). Additionally, it can support the two-way communication that is so critical to effective feedback, disrupting the expert to novice power and control dynamic that is typical in feedback exchanges (Molloy, 2009).

The feedback literature provides useful direction on how to balance the subjective nature of feedback and the injury that can occur from judgment or feelings of injustice. With this in mind, I will review types of feedback and the significance of language; the role of specificity in feedback; the timing, amount, and frequency of feedback; and the importance of goal-setting.

Feedback about self. In their meta-analysis of feedback, Hattie and Timperley (2007) identify four levels of feedback: task, process, self-regulation, and self. Of these,

Hattie and Timperley (2007) found that feedback about the self as a person is the least effective. This includes feedback about self that is negative, as well as positive. For example, praising someone for doing a "good job" or being a "great teacher" is ineffective in advancing practice. Similarly, person attacks should be avoided (Cannon & Witherspoon, 2005). For example, calling someone a "weak facilitator," "poor communicator," or worse. Cannon and Witherspoon (2005) assert that this type of feedback does not advance performance because it relays little information about how the employee is doing in relation to established goals or how they need to improve. It also is too bound up in individual self-concept and deflects attention from the task or process at hand (Hattie & Timperley, 2007).

Further, feedback about self is abstract, and research indicates that vague, abstract, or global feedback should be avoided (Cannon & Witherspoon, 2005; Douglas & Skipper, 2012; Kamins & Dweck, 1999). Feedback that is abstract is synonymous with person feedback, focusing on ability and personal characteristics. This is problematic according to Kamins and Dweck (1999) because it supports a fixed mindset in receivers. Abstract feedback indicates stable and unchangeable traits, fostering a sense of contingent self-worth and what Kamins and Dweck (1999) call a "helpless pattern" of response to failure. This means that, when faced with failure, individuals perceive that failure as a measure of ability. For example, argue Kamins and Dweck (1999), though the linguistic difference between saying, "You are a great teacher" and "You did a good job explaining the concept of imperialism through..." seems minor, the impact on the receiver and observers is great (Douglas & Skipper, 2012).

This challenges common perceptions held by both managers and employees about the impact of praise. Feedback receivers, unsurprisingly, like to hear information about themselves that is positive and abstract (i.e. praise) (Douglas & Skipper, 2012). And feedback givers think that giving praise of this sort is a good thing because they (1) get a positive response from it, (2) think that it is motivational, boosts self-esteem, and demonstrates caring (Blase & Blase, 2004), and (3) believe it supports relationship-building. Thus it is not surprising that most teachers in a study of feedback to teachers (Kimball, 2003) reported that the feedback that they received was "positive and affirmative in nature" (p. 259) and that the "evaluator said they were doing a good job and should keep up the good work" (p. 254). In their *Handbook of Instructional Leadership,* Blase and Blase (2004) report, "Most frequently, principals' praise positively and strongly affected teachers' motivation, self-esteem, and confidence" (p. 127; see also Cupach & Carson, 2012; Farr et al., 2012).

However, other research contradicts the use of feedback of this type. Findings from recent studies on feedback to students have shown that "abstract feedback leads to less liking for the teacher and greater feelings of interpersonal distance between the teacher and the pupil" (Douglas & Skipper, 2012, p. 78). Kimball (2003) also found that many teachers who reported receiving abstract feedback "wanted more depth or critical analysis" (p. 254; see also Milanowski & Heneman, 2001). Further, research indicates that person feedback ultimately negatively affects self-esteem and decreases motivation (Kamins & Dweck, 1999). Some of these contradictions may arise from a lack of clarity in the literature regarding the type of positive feedback being discussed. Positive feedback can be either concrete or abstract, and that difference is likely to matter.

For either positive or negative feedback, it is important for managers to give concrete feedback that focuses on process and effort (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). This, claim Kamins and Dweck (1999), nurtures a growth mindset that supports a mastery orientation, resilience in the face of challenge, greater motivation. In addition, argue Douglas and Skipper (2012), it increases rapport and understanding between feedback giver and receiver. Thus, information about performance that is accurate may be what is actually desired by receivers and is most effective for the improvement of practice (Shute, 2008).

Specificity of feedback. A near universal credo in effective feedback is "be specific" (e.g. Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996, Scheeler et al., 2004). However, as the discussion regarding abstract feedback indicates, it is rare that feedback actually is specific or that clear language is used. This is often due to the avoidance desire that givers experience, resulting in vanishing feedback (Ende, 1983). Boud and Molloy (2013) warn that fear of judging too harshly, for example, leads the feedback giver to be "mealy-mouthed" and indirect in their feedback. Alternatively, the feedback giver may think that he or she is being specific when, in fact, the receiver would not describe the feedback as so.

But, what does it actually mean to be specific? This itself is vague. Stone and Heen (2014) claim that this feedback often comes in the form of generic labels. They contend that these labels are a result of the combination of data and interpretation of that data, and they are omnipresent in feedback. For example, "Be more clear" or "Be more assertive" are labels. Using them is likely to leave a large gap between what was heard by the receiver and what was meant by the giver, creating confusion.

Stone and Heen (2014) argue that "be specific" is one such label. They ask, "What does it mean to be specific, and specific about *what*?" (p. 52). To clarify, they offer that it is important to be specific about (1) where the feedback is coming from (what was noticed), and (2) where the feedback is going (what needs to be done). In other words, collaboratively unpacking the data and interpretation that led to the label and judgment, and then examining and clarifying the advice or consequences of the feedback. This, argue Cannon and Witherspoon (2005), enables the giver to avoid the pitfalls of lack of examples and global assertions that can undermine feedback.

Discussing where the feedback is coming from empowers the receiver to understand the feedback, rather than engage in a maladaptive, self-defensive response. Discussing what needs to be done empowers the receiver to clarify the advice so that they actually understand the expectations of the giver, know how to enact the advice (e.g. what does it look like? what are examples?), and comprehend the consequences, if any, of not following the advice (Stone & Heen, 2014). As Nicol and Macfarlane-Dick (2006) claim, exchanges of this type challenge the assumption that feedback information is easily decoded and translated into action. From evidence in a study of students, they argue, "There is strong evidence that feedback messages are invariably complex and difficult to decipher, and that students require opportunities to construct actively an understanding of them (e.g. through discussion) before they can be used to regulate performance" (Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006, p. 201).

Timing, amount, and frequency of feedback. One of the most focused upon aspects of feedback is timing. Generally, the adage is that immediate feedback is more effective than delayed (e.g. Scheeler et al., 2004). However, it is not clear how immediate

"immediate" is and what is meant by "delayed." Research on this topic is so mixed as not to be a useful guide to practice (see Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Shute, 2006 on this topic). Most likely, argues Shute (2006), both immediate and delayed feedback have positive and negative effects on learning depending on the context. This is an interesting line of study to pursue given more recent interest in "in the moment" feedback that is unsubstantiated by research (e.g. in ear systems and supervisor interruptions of instruction, including directive text messages or oral interventions). Yet, as Carless, Salter, Yang, and Lam (2011) assert, focusing on timing is tinkering on the periphery of effective feedback practice and there are more important factors to consider.

There is one additional, and perhaps under recognized, facet of time that is interesting to consider—the time needed to digest feedback. Hepper and Sedikides (2012) found, "...given an undesired message (as opposed to desired), people require more time and information in order to accept it as true, and they are more liable to claim that the message is inaccurate" (p. 48). This is consistent with the aforementioned finding that feedback is complex, requiring time to actively construct meaning from the message (Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006), as well as research on the self-protection strategies triggered by negative feedback (e.g. Ashford et al., 2003).

Less debated is the amount of feedback that ought to be shared with receivers at one time. There is broad consensus that less feedback is more (e.g. Hattie & Timperley, 2007; Scheeler et al., 2004; Zepeda, 2007). Research indicates that people have a limited ability to process information and attend to change (van Merrienboer & Sweller, 2005), thus messages should focus on one or possibly two specific areas for improvement. If

more than this are presented, Stone and Heen (2014) suggest that, through discussion, the receiver should help the giver identify "headlines" of the feedback so that it is actionable.

The frequency with which feedback ought to be given to employees is also less debated. Though there is no optimum number of feedback interactions specified in the literature, "the more, the better" is a feedback mythology. Findings indicate that the quality of the feedback (e.g. credibility, specificity, clarity), the challenge of the task (Hattie & Timperley, 2007), and the support provided before and after the feedback (Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006) are more important determinants. Accordingly, there is a need for balance between frequency and quality. All too often, warn Hattie and Timperley (2007), minimal feedback is given with too much frequency in order to fulfill external accountability measures. More feedback is simply not the answer, they contend, but instead making high-quality feedback integral to teaching and learning.

One goal of feedback is the self-regulation of the individual. Self-regulated learners seek feedback from external sources, including peers and managers, and are better able to self-identify gaps in performance and how to address them (Butler & Winne, 1995). Consequently, one of the goals of effective external feedback (from a manager, for example) is to empower the employee to begin to generate high quality internal feedback and feedback-seeking behavior. This, it seems, has implications for the frequency of manager-generated feedback conversations and the amount of feedback that self-regulating employees need to be given to improve.

Goal-setting in feedback. A benchmark of effectiveness in feedback is the establishment and quality of goals. As I have discussed, the conceptualization of feedback I offer includes the effective identification of gaps in performance and, more

importantly, the improvement of performance. As Locke and Latham (1990) assert, feedback does not cause change, goals in response to feedback do. Without effect, feedback is meaningless. Accordingly, unclear impact and implications for action should be avoided in feedback exchanges (Cannon & Witherspoon, 2005).

Hattie and Timperley (2007) highlight this in the components of feedback that they offer: feed up (information on the goal of performance), feed back (information on executed performance in relation to goal), and feed forward (strategies to address the gap between the goal and performance) (Table 1). All three of these components of feedback are goal-focused and also identified by Sadler in his paper on the topic (1989). Hattie (2012) argues that for feedback to be powerful it is important for individuals to have goals, understand them, and know what success at those goals looks like.

Given this, it is worrying that goals are often unclear or missing from feedback. This is likely because of misconceptions about feedback (i.e. ends in telling) and/or an effect of supervisors' discomfort with feedback. In education, it may also be because there is a gap in the education research literature about the power of goals (Hattie, 2012); ground that is well covered in the management and psychological literatures, Hattie points out. Molloy and Boud (2013a) indicate that there is considerable focus in the education literature on providing diagnostic information (or replaying/mirroring) to the feedback receiver, but little time spent on discussing how one can move forward in his or her practice. Sadler (1989) argues that this is not feedback, this is "dangling data" (p. 121). Molloy and Boud (2013a) claim that it is problematic that education focuses on improving the "telling techniques" of the feedback giver "so that they can more skillfully dangle the data" (p. 16) in front of the receiver. This, they argue, omits the most

important aspect of the feedback process, reinforces the notion that feedback ends in telling, and deprives both receiver and giver the opportunity of closing the feedback loop.

Goal-setting theory (Locke & Latham, 1990; 2002) illustrates the relationship of goals and feedback, focusing on motivation. This theory states that feedback is useful only to the extent that it is acted upon. Therefore, feedback improves performance only to the extent that it leads to the setting of and commitment to goals. Challenge and commitment are the two elements of goals, according to Hattie and Timperley (2007; see also Hattie, 2012). Specific, high goals, Locke and Latham (1990) found, lead to higher performance than easy goals, no goals, or vague goals (see also London et al., 1997). In addition, Locke and Latham (2002) argue that motivation requires feedback and feed forward so that individuals can set continuously higher goals as goals are achieved.

Bandura's (1986) self-efficacy theory is also symbiotic with, and important to, goal-setting theory. Locke and Latham (1990; 2002) found that individuals with high self-efficacy set higher goals than individuals with low self-efficacy, are more committed to goals, use better strategies to reach goals, and respond more positively to negative feedback. This is consistent with London and Smither's (1995) finding that change is more likely when individuals see themselves as competent and have a clear understanding of goals (London & Smither, 1995). Consequently, both goals and self-efficacy serve as mediating variables to feedback (Bandura, 1986; Latham et al., 2012).

The active of engagement of feedback receivers in the goal-setting process is also integral to the effectiveness of feedback. First, goal commitment is a predictor of performance improvement (Locke & Latham, 1990, 2002). The greatest way to increase an individual's commitment to goals is to have them gain ownership of the goals by

setting the goal(s) themselves. Second, establishing one's own learning goals or co-crafting goals empowers an individual to become a self-regulated learner over time (Muijs et al., 2014). Therefore, it is important that goals are not only established and revisited, but that the feedback receiver is integral to the setting of specific and ambitious goals.

Finally, closing the feedback loop through goal-setting has important effects on future feedback exchanges, feedback-seeking, and the feedback environment. Outcomes of one feedback interaction become predictors of the next feedback interaction (Ashford et al., 2003). Thus, their effectiveness is significant to future outcomes, relationships, and the overall feedback environment (which I will discuss in the final section of the paper). For example, an employee leaving a feedback exchange feeling efficacious, committed to a sufficiently specific goal, and supported in reaching that goal is more likely to enter positively into the next feedback conversation, as well as to reach their goal. Further, the accuracy and value of the feedback provided by the feedback giver is a key determinant of whether someone will seek feedback from that individual again in the future (De Stobbeleir & Ashford, 2012); goals are integral to this assessment. With each completed feedback loop, London and Smither (2002) found, the work "becomes deeper, more complex, more engaging, and more successful in generating positive outcomes" (p. 95).

Content focus in feedback to teachers. In addition to all of the areas addressed above, which are generic to feedback practice, there is an aspect of feedback content that is specific to feedback given to teachers. Studies indicate that the content of feedback that is given to teachers is more often related to instructional processes, for example classroom management and interactions with students, than subject matter or content

(Hill & Grossman, 2013; Kimball, 2003; Nelson & Sassi, 2000). There are a number of possible causes for this imbalance. Here, I will outline two causes that are discussed in the literature: inadequate leadership content knowledge (Stein & Nelson, 2003) and evaluation instruments (Hill & Grossman, 2013).

Leadership content knowledge is defined as "that knowledge of subjects and how students learn them that is used by administrators when they function as instructional leaders" (Stein & Nelson, 2003, p. 445). This concept integrates pedagogical knowledge, curricular knowledge, and administrative decision-making (Robinson, 2010), and it impacts instructional leadership practice (Stein & Nelson, 2003). In the data offered regarding leaders' content feedback to teachers, content-specific feedback is disproportionately underrepresented. Thus, a gap in leadership content knowledge appears to be evident (LeFevre & Robinson, 2015), forming a barrier to deep feedback about instruction and effective instructional leadership. Given that school leaders, particularly at the high school level, are charged with supervising and evaluating teachers in areas in which they may have no content background or experience, it makes sense that their feedback tends to focus on more global areas, like classroom management. Yet, this is problematic for the advancement of instructional and leadership practice. Spillane and Seashore Louis (2002) claim, "Without an understanding of the knowledge necessary for teachers to teach well—content knowledge, general pedagogical knowledge, content specific pedagogical knowledge, curricular knowledge and knowledge of learners— school leaders will be unable to perform essential school improvement functions such as monitoring instruction and supporting teacher development" (p. 97).

But perhaps the expectation that school leaders will be able to be content experts in all areas is unrealistic. Robinson (2010) contends that "the leadership content knowledge required to improve learning and teaching is so great that it cannot be located in the head of any individual leader, nor even in the combined cognitive resources of a leadership team" (p. 3; see also Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2004). Robinson's (2010) argument raises important questions about the expectations placed on school leaders and who is charged with the work of teacher supervision and evaluation, particularly in the current reform era.

Evaluation instruments may also play a role in producing the gap in feedback to teachers around the content of their instruction. Despite widespread adoption of the Common Core State Standards in the U.S., which identify discipline-specific competencies, most teacher observation tools adopted in new teacher evaluation systems are generic (Hill & Grossman, 2013); generic across grade levels, as well as subject areas. Hill and Grossman (2013) highlight the problems that this creates for teacher evaluation and the quality and specificity of the feedback that teachers can receive as a result of generic instruments. They maintain:

> One of the challenges for any observation instrument is getting the grain size right. By grain size, we mean the scope and level of detail around desired practices...Grain size matters in both the design and use of observation instruments. The more specific the grain size, the more specific the feedback for teachers can be. However, in order to create an instrument that can work across multiple content areas and contexts, we suspect that many designers have been pressed toward more global descriptions of practice. (p. 375)

Hill and Grossman (2013) go on to argue that rubrics and tools powerfully shape the feedback teachers receive. Therefore, they claim it is likely that the adoption of generic evaluation tools will result in feedback that "skirts the subject matter of instruction" (p. 379). This is despite extant research that indicates that coaching and professional development should be subject-specific (e.g. Cohen & Hill, 2001). In light of the research on the importance of specificity in feedback content, Hill and Grossman (2013) raise important questions about the relationship between evaluation instruments and the quality of feedback. Specifically, has the adoption of generic observation tools largely undermined the opportunity for teachers to receive high-quality, subject-specific feedback that will advance practice?

Implications for practice and research. Extant feedback research highlights that the content of feedback conversations cannot be formulaic or one size fits all. As Sutton et al. (2012) offer, "Different recipients, in different situations, may require different formulations (p. 332). This finding debunks many of the common feedback mythologies, such as the "feedback sandwich" or "the more, the better." These myths, however, are persistent, and the research presented here needs to be shared with practitioners in order to change feedback practice and orientations.

However, in many cases, the research literature on feedback content is mixed or contradictory. Even within the supervision and evaluation and instructional leadership literatures themselves, one can find contradictions regarding what constitutes effective feedback. Hence, it is important for significantly more research to be done regarding all facets of the facets of feedback content that I have outlined here, particularly in the context of teacher feedback in the context of schools and the teacher-principal

relationship. This is not to say, though, that researchers should pour endless time and resources into studying, say, the timing of feedback and not attending to the various other components of the feedback as interaction framework. More research is needed, but the historical tendency to over-emphasize the micro-conditions of feedback is not likely to advance practice—feedback, teaching, or leadership practice—significantly. In addition to these suggestions for research, I offer five implications for practice based on the existing body of research.

Bias and judgment in feedback. I argue that bias and judgment are intrinsic parts of feedback and that to imply otherwise is misleading and a barrier to dialogic feedback. Standards, rubrics, and data are positive forces within education broadly and within teacher supervision and evaluation more specifically. They push educators to be learning-oriented and to share common criteria for success. However, it is dishonest to imply that they are not value-laden and subjective. So, for example, a supervisory approach that encourages the supervisor to "remain objective by providing the teacher with observational data that is value-free and nonjudgmental" (Zepeda, 2007, p. 174) and "avoid making inferences" (p. 176) is concerning. Instead, I offer that both teachers and principals should openly acknowledge and discuss the existence of subjectivity in order to effectively challenge it. Feedback givers need to invite teachers into the conversation about their assessments, and teachers need to actively clarify and question the data and inferences that givers relay. The implication of this assertion for practice is multi-faceted and requires considerable confrontation of the data and metric culture in which teachers and principals conduct their work.

Using positive and negative feedback. There seems to be a pervasive belief in education that positive feedback is good and negative feedback is bad. In reference to students, Molloy and colleagues (2013) assert, "The very labeling of 'positive' and 'negative' feedback provides students with not-so-subtle messages that praise is good and useful and that highlighting an aspect of performance that needs improvement is negative" (p. 60-61). When, in actuality, the feedback literature seems to suggest the opposite. In performance-based discussions between principals and teachers, the avoidance of critical feedback and emphasis on praise is well-documented (e.g. Le Fevre & Robinson, 2015; Weisberg et al., 2009). As I have discussed at length in this paper, this avoidance has deep psychological roots for both teachers and principals (or other feedback givers) that are important and not easily overcome. Yet, to advance practice, these challenges must be confronted through the preparation and support of both teachers and leaders. For example, the research of Kamins and Dweck (1999) on abstract and concrete language could be incredibly helpful in equipping leaders to more effectively talk about practice with teachers and to cultivate learning goal orientations.

The importance of specificity. Relatedly, there are implications for practice regarding the specificity of feedback that is given to teachers. Currently, feedback tends to be unspecific and global (e.g. Kimball, 2003). Saying "great job" or "keep up the good work" to teachers does not help them advance their practice, nor does it increase their motivation (Locke & Latham, 2002). Again, this may have its roots in some of the social psychological dimensions of feedback giving. But also it is likely that leaders do not know what it means to be specific, or they may think that they are indeed being specific. This presents another opportunity for leaders and teachers to view representations of

practice, engage in approximations of practice (Grossman et al., 2009), and receive support from principal supervisors or coaches. Leaders could benefit from seeing models of specificity and being coached in this practice. And teachers could benefit from learning and practicing questioning and clarifying techniques that push leaders to be more pointed (Stone & Heen, 2014).

Likewise, this applies to goal-setting. As Latham and Locke (1990; 2002) and Hattie and Timperley (2007) found in their research, goal-setting has incredible potential for advancing teachers' learning, practice, and motivation. Teachers and leaders could unpack the three components of feedback offered by Hattie and Timperley (2007) and Sadler (1989)—feed up, feed back, and feed forward—in supported professional learning. This is yet another opportunity for leaders and teachers to review representations of practice and engage in supported practice opportunities that better prepare them to craft goals that are specific and ambitious, as well as jointly assess goal-progress. These opportunities to engage in practice aim to meaningfully impact individual learning and the greater feedback environment.

The impact of evaluation instruments. Yet, all of the potentially powerful practice opportunities I suggest here will inevitably be shaped to some degree by the evaluation system and observation tools of the schools and districts in which leaders and teachers do their work. As Hill and Grossman (2013) warn, these instruments may be fixing educators' attention on the wrong thing and/or avoiding the core of instruction altogether. Thus it is important for participants at every level of the educational system, including at the research and policy levels, to examine the ways in which evaluation milieus powerfully shape, and perhaps undermine, feedback and improvement.

Evaluation, feedback, and role. My final implication regarding content derives from findings regarding the weakness of subject-specific feedback for teachers (Kimball, 2003; Nelson & Sassi, 2000). As I have noted, this may be related to evaluation instruments. In addition, it may also be a result of a lack of leadership content knowledge. This raises questions about who should be evaluating and engaging in feedback conversations with teachers.

Most evaluation systems place the responsibility of evaluation squarely on the shoulders of certified administrators. In many places, this means that principals and vice-principals are the only individuals allowed to conduct formal observations of teaching. But, as Robinson (2010) notes, it might be impossible for a school principal or even an administrative team to have sufficient leadership content knowledge to provide high-quality feedback to teachers. And, as Hill and Grossman (2013) point out, principals may not have the content expertise needed to advance teaching practice. Nor may they need it given new evaluation frameworks that focus on generic practice, leaving a gap in subject-specific support. Therefore, both policymakers and practitioners ought to think about how these gaps in subject-matter support for teachers are being filled, what other content experts can be leveraged to do this work, and the impacts of divorcing content from evaluation. All of this is shaped by and shapes the feedback environment of schools, the final element of the feedback as interaction framework to which I now turn my attention.

The Feedback Environment

A unique contribution of the feedback as interaction framework is the way in which it engages the concept of a feedback environment, or feedback culture, in the feedback process. The quality and effectiveness of feedback lives and dies in the

relationship between giver and receiver, to be sure. But the social context of feedback deeply affects feedback effectiveness as well (Levy & Williams, 2004). The inclusion of the feedback environment in this framework is responsive to calls in the literature to move beyond a focus on individual factors in the feedback process to include contextual factors (Ashford et al., 2003; De Stobbeleir & Ashford, 2012). The focus on the feedback environment in this framework also responds to the longstanding gap in school leadership literature regarding the organizational and contextual factors necessary to support the improvement of instruction. Levy and Thompson (2012) contend, "Without considering the influence of contextual factors, we are not able to understand the feedback process or improve performance management programs" (p. 218). Thus, the feedback environment is integral to the feedback as interaction framework in order to support teacher learning and the improvement of instruction.

Defining the feedback environment and its effects. But what *is* a feedback environment or feedback culture? Leading researchers on this topic, London & Smither (2002), offer, "A strong feedback culture is one where individuals continuously receive, solicit, and use formal and informal feedback to improve their job performance. This may be linked to effective policies and programs for performance management, continuous learning, and career development" (p. 84; see also Steelman, Levy, & Snell, 2004). London and Smither (2002) assert that feedback culture can be shaped by three types of organizational practices and interventions: (1) practices to enhance the quality of feedback, (2) emphasis upon the importance of feedback in the organization, and (3) providing support for feedback use. These practices and interventions, however, are not

simple solutions; they are time-intensive, deliberate, and complex for leaders attempting to affect such changes to the organization (e.g. Drago-Severson, 2012).

A positive feedback environment also has many effects on both employees and managers in the organization. It can lead to increased feedback-seeking, increased job satisfaction, increased feelings of control, and decreased defensiveness (Anseel & Lievens, 2007; Levy & Thompson, 2012; London et al., 1997; Miller, Steelman, & Levy, 1999; Sparr & Sonnentag, 2008; Steelman et al., 2004).[5] A strong feedback environment also affects employees' attention to, processing of, and motivation to use feedback (Levy & Thompson, 2012; London et al., 1997). This is important because, as I have previously argued, feedback can only be effective if used.

Conversely, a sense of control over one's environment leads to increased effectiveness of and receptivity to feedback (Smither et al., 2005). Furthermore, job satisfaction and organizational commitment lead to the likelihood of feedback uptake (Smither et al., 2005). Thus, there is interplay between the contextual and individual variables of feedback; they are mutually reinforcing constructs.

Likewise, feedback orientation is positively related to the feedback environment. One's feedback orientation can shift over time based on the feedback culture (London & Smither, 2002). The environment in which one works affects one's view of feedback and vice-versa (Levy & Thompson, 2012; Rosen, Levy, & Hall, 2006).

Leadership and the feedback environment. Research shows that supervisors can enhance or depress feedback seeking and the feedback environment (Ashford et al.,

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[5] Studies in education have found similar connections between school climate and dimensions such as teachers' effectiveness, sense of efficacy, and commitment (e.g. Cohen et al., 2009; Drago-Severson, 2012; Goddard, Hoy, & Hoy, 2004; Price, 2012).

2003; Levy, Cober, & Miller, 2002; VandeWalle, Ganesan, Challagalla, & Brown, 2000).

This finding is consistent with research in the school leadership literature about the importance of establishing school cultures that can support adult learning (Borko, 2004; Cohen, McCabe, Michelli, & Picheral, 2009; Drago-Severson, 2012; Kegan & Lahey, 2009). Bryk and colleagues (2010) argue, for example, that principals are in a structural position to initiate and sustain relationships, thus their contributions are worthy of focus and research. Research by Price (2012) adds that the principal establishes the tone of the school climate. These findings are a starting place, however there is considerably more research to be done on how principals shape learning climates for adults in schools.

One practice that Drago-Severson (2012) highlights is for leaders to model learning. This could include seeking upward feedback (Bettenhausen & Fedor, 1997). A leadership practice such as this is important, according to Ashford and Northcraft (1992), because contexts can shape whether feedback-seeking is a sign of strength or a sign of insecurity. Ashford, Blatt, & VandeWalle's (2003) findings reveal that "...an organization's culture can make inquiry for feedback more or less acceptable, thereby affecting the extent of image costs associated with it" (p. 784). By modeling learning, leaders can decrease the risks associated with the feedback process and increase the strength of the feedback environment. Further, through this practice, leaders dismantle the deference to expertise that is part of the hidden curriculum of the workplace (Molloy et al., 2013) and reconceptualize leadership as a "*mutual influence process*, rather than as a one-way process in which leaders influence others" (Hallinger, 2010, p 346). By situating oneself as a learner, a leader contributes to an environment of continuous learning. "Learning becomes an essential part of the way the organization does business"

and feedback is viewed as "an essential part of the way work is accomplished" (London & Smither, 2002, p. 86).

Reflective practice and trust. Reflection is integral to the conception of feedback that I offer. This includes reflection on practice by all members of the school as a learning organization. Through feedback, among other avenues, teachers have the opportunity to examine teaching and student learning, assess their progress, and construct goals for improvement. As Osterman and Kottkamp's (1993) research revealed, "Reflective practice *can* take place anywhere, but, to thrive, it requires a nurturing environment, an environment characterized by openness and trust" (p. 44).

Schools are complex and interdependent organization, argue Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2015), thus trust is critical to the development of a positive feedback culture and reflective practice (see also Price, 2012). According to Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2015), "Trust can be defined as a willingness to make oneself vulnerable to someone else in the belief that your interests or something that you care about will not be harmed...educators make these judgments based on the confidence that their colleagues and clients are benevolent, honest, open, reliable, and competent" (p. 68). Research indicates that the collective trust between the members of a school organization is "a significant variable in facilitating the achievement of educational outcomes for students" (Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2015, p. 68). Hence, trust is not only important to increasing outcomes for teachers (e.g. job satisfaction), but also for children.

Through both reflective practice and collective trust, and hence an effective feedback environment, professional practice is shaped. In schools specifically, "Ongoing collaborative inquiry and learning becomes central to teachers' images of being

professional and through this process becoming self-regulated learners" (Muijs et al., 2014, p. 249). And self-regulation is one of the ultimate goals of an effective feedback process (Butler & Winne, 1995).

Accountability. In many conceptions of feedback, accountability and development are at odds. And, in the current education reform milieu, accountability has a negative connotation. However, accountability is positively linked to feedback effectiveness, trust, and the feedback environment (Levy & Williams, 2004; London, 2002). Accountability is a means by which givers and receivers can strengthen feedback and the feedback environment (Levy & Williams, 2004). Accountability is not a simple construct, however. It has been referred to as "the Achilles heel of feedback" (London et al., 1997). This is, in part, because individuals tend to want "low accountability for themselves but high accountability from others" (London et al., 1997, p. 165).

To combat this dilemma, London and colleagues (1997) contend that it is important to construct an environment of accountability that is intrinsic to the greater feedback culture. An accountability environment has three components, they argue: (1) clear objectives for givers and receivers, (2) sensitivity to process, (3) accountability forces and mechanisms that strengthen feelings of accountability (London et al., 1997). "Individuals feel accountable when they recognize and care about each others' expectations of them and they recognize the positive or negative consequences of their actions" (London & Smither, 2002, p. 93). A positive feedback environment includes accountability not only for employees, but for leaders as well. Here again, there is a two-way conception of the process and interdependence in the organization.

Accountability is crucial to goal-setting and monitoring which, as has been discussed, are integral to the effectiveness of feedback. Feedback is easy to ignore, especially when there is no accountability or consequences for managers or employees. Therefore, managers need to set performance goals with employees and monitor progress toward these goals (Levy & Williams, 2004; London, et al., 1997). Since feedback is meaningless without impact on performance, accountability for all members of the organization enables the closing of feedback loops. It also offers an opportunity for employees and managers to check in about goal progress and the effectiveness of their efforts in the process. Research indicates, "Raters are more observant and evaluate performance behaviors more carefully [and accurately] if they know that their ratings will have important consequences" (London et al., 1997, p. 169; see also Mero, Motowidlo & Anna, 2003). One reason for this is that feedback givers believe they will have to justify their choices and feedback to a variety of organizational sources, including the employee. To be clear, though, punitive systems of accountability do not strengthen positive feelings of accountability and interdependence, damaging the development of trust in organizations (Tschannen-Moran & Gareis, 2015).

Implications for practice and research. Over the past 25 years, performance appraisal research and practice has moved from a focus on measurement to a focus on the understanding the social context of performance appraisal (Levy & Williams, 2004). As Ashford and colleagues (2003) indicate, "...an environment is not just a puzzle to be cognitively understood, but it is also a social milieu in which a person hopes to thrive; that there is an emotional component to the process that is fed by positive messages from the environment" (p. 794). With this in mind, more recent research on feedback and

performance appraisal points to the necessity of understanding the social context of the feedback environment in order to develop effective performance management systems and feedback-rich environments in which employees feel, and are, efficacious and satisfied.

Interestingly, over roughly the same period of time in education there has been a movement toward increased measurement and punitive external accountability. Neither of which are borne out by research on effective work environments or strong feedback cultures. Thus, it is worth pursuing research about the impacts of the implementation of high-stakes accountability and teacher evaluation systems on feedback environments and feedback practice, as well as their concomitant effects on measures such as motivation, self-efficacy, job satisfaction, instructional improvement, and student achievement.

This could also be researched internally in order to enrich the feedback environments in schools. A useful resource for an assessment of this sort could be something like Steelman, Levy, and Snell's (2001; 2002) Feedback Environment Scale. This empirically validated scale measures employee perceptions of the feedback environment in their workplace. Dimensions assessed include: credibility of feedback giver, feedback quality, feedback delivery, frequency of positive and critical feedback, and feedback seeking. Data from an assessment like this could be informative to district and school leaders seeking to cultivate more effective feedback, and thus more effective feedback environments, in their schools. Given that research indicates that feedback and feedback environments are mutually reinforcing constructs (Levy & Thompson, 2012; Rosen et al., 2006), school leaders' knowledge of teachers' perceptions of the feedback environment are central to the improvement of practice (Levy & Williams, 2004).

As the evidence presented thus far indicates, an effective feedback environment is shaped by feedback practice and by the individuals that are part of the environment. But feedback through the formal evaluation process, for example, is only one part of the greater feedback environment. Optimally, both teachers and leaders have multiple venues across the school or district organization to engage in professional learning (Borko, 2004; Drago-Severson, 2012). Yet in a study of teachers' experiences with new teacher evaluation systems, Kimball (2003) found that teachers did not see a clear connection between the goals of the evaluation system, their professional development, or structured professional development offered by the district. Consequently, for a strong feedback culture to exist, there needs to be systematic alignment across all parts of the organization (London & Smither, 1995); something that has not historically existed in schools. These connections need to be explicit to all members of the organization and alignment needs to be created between hiring, mentoring, coaching, professional learning, accountability, evaluation, and compensation (Kimball, 2003). Consistency and relevance among these elements indicates the importance of these things to the organization (London & Smither, 1995). Their current disconnectedness in most schools and districts, it could be argued, points to the low relative importance of these things to the organization despite their importance to student and teacher learning.

Schools should be places for "deliberate and systematic professional learning" (Muijs et al., 2014, p. 249). Yet, as Drago-Severson (2012) asserts, "we still need greater knowledge about shaping school climates that support teacher learning and the effective strategies principals employ today to do so" (p. 3; see also Price, 2012). Research indicates that school culture affects teacher learning but, as Spillane (2006) argues, we

need to know *how* to effectively build positive adult learning environments. Further, we need to know how to prepare and support leaders to do this work. And, because school cultures and feedback environments are not built by leaders alone, we need to know more about how teachers can be prepared and supported to do the same.

This is particularly challenging because, as Drago-Severson (2012) asserts, it is important for "growth-enhancing climates" to take into account the various developmental stages of teachers and leaders in order to effectively support their learning. The findings presented herein on the social psychological processes at play for people within the feedback environment reinforce Drago-Severson's focus on intellectual and emotional differentiation. Throughout this paper, I have attempted to offer suggestions for the research, preparation, and support of how school leaders and teachers so that they can more effectively build strong feedback cultures. Feedback and performance appraisal are opportunities to shape culture and initiate cultural change (London & Smither, 1995), however there is considerably more work to be done to understand the interrelated facets of this construct as they play out in schools.

Conclusion

Research on feedback is plentiful. And, yet, there is considerably more work to be done to increase the effectiveness of feedback for teacher learning and directly influence teachers' and leaders' practice in this area. Muijs and colleagues (2014) contend that nascent "understandings about processes and conditions that promote student learning are typically not used to construct appropriate learning environments for their teachers" (p. 246). This is despite a developing body of evidence (e.g. Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000) indicating that these conditions have a lot in common. And, I would add, a fruitful

and growing body of literature in performance management and organizational psychology that could inform research and practice in this area. However, there is a tremendous need for research that brings together these areas to inform feedback practice.

In this paper, I have sought to contribute to this gap in the research by bringing together these rarely intersecting literatures and drawing from various psychological and educational theories to craft a conceptual framework that can advance feedback for teacher learning. It was my goal to unearth and challenge existing conceptions and misconceptions about feedback that pervade both our lives and the rapidly emerging work in the reform of teacher evaluation and accountability. In conceptualizing the feedback as interaction framework, my aim was to highlight the challenges these reforms may bring, but also to offer ways in which to navigate this new reality.

I contend that my research offers three overarching findings that can contribute to future research, practice, and policy in this area. First, feedback is a dynamic, complex, ongoing process composed of practices in which relationships and social psychological processes are central. The relationship between teachers and leaders as feedback receivers and givers is foundational to effective feedback (e.g. Stone & Heen, 2014). Further, the psychological processes at play for both teachers and leaders as they engage in feedback are powerful forces on the effectiveness of feedback (Nicol & Macfarlane-Dick, 2006). These processes profoundly shape and are shaped by the relationships between givers and receivers. Therefore, there needs to be considerably more research on how these processes manifest themselves in teachers receiving feedback, as well as in leaders giving feedback. There also needs to be considerably more research on this relationship in the context of feedback for the improvement of teaching (Price, 2012). This includes the

roles best situated to effectively engage in feedback with teachers about the improvement of their instruction and the complexity and time involved in building relationships to do this work well. In the leadership and teacher preparation settings, this could involve unpacking the psychological dimensions of feedback and engaging in and reflecting upon practice giving and receiving feedback.

Second, to be effective, feedback should be a process that is receiver-centered, giving active agency to teachers so that they can grow as reflective, self-regulating professionals (Butler & Winne, 1995). Feedback receivers (in this case, teachers) actively make meaning of the feedback that they receive (e.g. Kluger & Nir, 2006). By placing teachers, rather than leaders, at the center of the feedback exchange, teachers can become the drivers of their own learning through effective facilitation by the leader. However, little research focuses on the ways in which feedback receivers can be better prepared and supported to engage in feedback dialogue and the performance appraisal process. For decades, there has been excessive attention paid to the skills and tools that should be employed by managers, but a lack of attention to the skills and dispositions required of feedback receivers. Because feedback naturally involves risk, fear, and threat, research and practical support on how teachers can be better prepared to anticipate these responses and become empowered to address them proactively would advance the effectiveness of feedback and teachers' engagement in the process.

Third, feedback is situated in a social context that affects its quality and uptake, and that is affected by the interaction between individuals and organizational/environmental dimensions. Thus, a "one size fits all" approach to feedback is not possible (Kluger & Nir, 2006), despite a focus on skills in leadership preparation

and practice suggesting that it is. Understanding the social context of the feedback

environment is essential to the development of effective performance management

systems and feedback-rich environments in which employees feel, and are, efficacious

and satisfied. Moreover, for a strong feedback culture to exist, there needs to be

systematic alignment across all parts of the organization (London & Smither, 1995) and

these connections need to be clear to all members of the organization. This type of

systematic organization to support learning is, however, not common to school as

organizations or workplaces. As Drago-Severson (2012) asserts, "we still need greater

knowledge about shaping school climates that support teacher learning and the effective

strategies principals employ today to do so" (p. 3).

To not only manage this complexity, but to flourish in the midst of it, I argue that

both leaders and teachers need to be better equipped to interact around feedback. This

includes improved preparation for feedback that is interactive, embedded support for the

enactment of interactive feedback practice, and collegial examination of and reflection

upon practice—all embedded in the context of school sites as workplaces and learning

environments. For feedback to powerfully advance teacher learning, we have

considerably farther to go to uncover *how* we collectively do this work and provide this

continuum of professional support to teachers and leaders in schools.

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CHAPTER III

FEEDBACK: PREPARATION AND PRACTICE FOR SCHOOL LEADERS

Research from the last three decades points to the significant influence of school leaders[6] upon student learning. Among school-based factors, the impact of school leadership upon student achievement is second only to that of classroom teachers (Hallinger & Heck, 1998; Leithwood, Louis, Wahlstrom, Anderson, Mascall, & Gordon, 2007; Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004; Murphy, Elliott, Goldring, & Porter, 2006; Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2003). Further, the influence of school leaders upon student learning is even more profound in the schools that are the lowest performing (Leithwood et al., 2007). Thus, it is imperative that school leaders have the skills and knowledge necessary to positively affect student learning (Barth, 1986; Darling-Hammond, LaPointe, Meyerson, Orr & Cohen, 2007; Hess & Kelly, 2007; Vogel & Weiler, 2014).

As Leithwood, Patten, and Jantzi argue (2010), now that significant evidence has accumulated to point to these leadership effects, it is important for researchers and practitioners to turn their attention to how those effects occur (see also Salo, Nylund, & Stjernstrom, 2015; Spillane, 2015 on this point). Further, researchers and practitioners need to understand how school leaders can best be prepared and supported to positively affect teacher and student learning (Darling-Hammond et al., 2007; Hess & Kelly, 2007).

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[6] I use the term school leaders and principals interchangeably throughout this paper but note that there are other school leadership roles, for example assistant principal and dean that might be school leaders or certified school administrators.

Thus, this study examines how students in one school leadership preparation program are prepared to engage in feedback with teachers to improve teaching practice, including how they take up their preparation. Feedback has been selected as the focus of this study because research and standards for practice identify it is a key practice of effective instructional leaders (Brazer & Bauer, 2013; Darling-Hammond, Meyerson, LaPointe, & Orr, 2010; Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2013; Leithwood et al., 2004; Professional Standards for Educational Leaders, 2015; Robinson, Lloyd, & Rowe, 2008).

Instructional Leadership as Effective Leadership

Research indicates that a school leader's ability to positively impact student outcomes is largely dependent on his or her efforts to improve instruction and the creation of conditions that support these improvements (Bryk, Sebring, Allensworth, Luppescu, & Easton, 2010; Goldring, Porter, Murphy, Elliott & Cravens, 2007; Leithwood et al., 2004).[7] These findings have shifted leadership practice and research over the last thirty years from a conception of the effective school leader as manager to school leader as instructional leader (Barth, 1986; Brazer & Bauer, 2013; Hoy & Hoy, 2006; Vogel & Weiler, 2014; Wahlstrom, 2011).[8] Instructional leadership frameworks emphasize leadership practices that more directly influence teaching and learning, including: the development of a clear school mission and goals; the principals' selection, development, supervision, and evaluation of teachers; the nurturing of professional

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[7] As Spillane (2015) and Salo, Nylund, & Stjernstrom (2015) argue, there is more research to be done to further establish strong causal inferences between school leadership and student outcomes. And, more importantly, there is a need for more research to open up the "black box" of how this impact occurs.
[8] Conceiving of the principal as instructional leader is widespread, however there are competing conceptions. For example, the transformational leadership model (e.g. Hallinger, 1992; Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000; Leithwood, 1994) or the distributed leadership model (e.g. Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2001; Spillane, Diamond, & Jita, 2003). I agree with Marks and Printy (2003) that a theoretical framework combining *shared* instructional leadership and transformational leadership holds considerable promise. However, as Hallinger (2003) warns, and I agree, it is important to not get distracted by the adjectives or faddism of conceptual models of school leadership.

community; and the monitoring of student progress and curriculum implementation (Blase and Blase, 1999; Hallinger, 2000, 2005; Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2013; Knapp, Mkhwanazi, & Portin, 2012; Marks & Printy, 2003; Robinson, Lloyd, & Rowe, 2008).[9]

The conception of effective school leadership as instructional leadership is also embedded in leadership standards across the United States. Created in 1996, the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC) standards have emphasized the knowledge and skills that effective school leaders should possess (Young & Mawhinney, 2012). As of 2013, 40 states have adopted the ISLLC standards (National Conference of State Legislatures, 2013) and all 50 states include the ISLLC standards either implicitly or explicitly in their individual state standards (Vogel & Weiler, 2014). Consistent with developments in the research literature (Hallinger, 2005), the recently adopted 2015 revision to the standards emphasizes instructional leadership more than any previous iteration.[10]

The tidal wave of reform to teacher evaluation systems across the United States in recent years has also emphasized the expectation that principals act as instructional leaders. Since 2008, 49 states and the District of Columbia have altered their teacher evaluation legislation or guidance (American Institutes for Research, 2014) in an attempt to boost student achievement via the improvement of teaching. In many states, school leaders are exclusively charged with supervision and evaluation responsibilities (AIR,

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[9] Although there is considerable research on instructional leadership, there is still no consensus regarding the meaning of the term. Moreover, there is considerably more research that needs to be undertaken on what it means to enact instructional leadership behaviors and practices (Horng & Loeb, 2010; Neumerski, 2013; Salo, Nylund, & Stjernstrom, 2015; Spillane, Diamond, & Jita, 2003).

[10] The ISLLC standards also underwent revision in 2008. The 2015 standards, adopted on October 23, 2015, will henceforth be known as the Professional Standards for Educational Leaders (Superville, 2015).

2014), despite the well-documented impediments to principals doing this work effectively (Cuban, 1998; Hallinger, 2005; Hallinger, Heck, & Murphy, 2014; Le Fevre & Robinson, 2015). These challenges, including lack of preparation and skill (Darling-Hammond, Amrein-Beardsley, Haertel, & Rothstein, 2012; Kimball & Milanowski, 2009), time (Hallinger & Murphy, 2012; Horng and Loeb, 2010), and content knowledge (Stein & Nelson, 2003), are especially acute in secondary schools (Hallinger, 2005; Marshall, 1996; Wahlstrom, 2011).

Charging school leaders with "learning-focused leadership" (Knapp, Mkhwanazi, & Portin, 2012) seeks to deeply engage principals in the work of instruction in a way that has largely been ignored in the history of school leadership (D. Peurach, personal communication, November 30, 2015; see also Wahlstrom, 2011). To be effective instructional leaders, principals must attend closely to the improvement of teaching practice through their work with teachers, while also shaping school-level environments and cultures that make this work possible (e.g. Professional Standards for Educational Leaders, 2015). Knapp and colleagues (2012) identify these facets of instructional leadership as the "core work" and the "groundwork" needed to change practice (see also Portin et al., 2009). Moreover, school leaders must do this already complex work nested within, and in interaction with, contexts in addition to the school context. These include the district, policy, family, and community contexts (Knapp et al., 2012), all of which present multiple and sometimes conflicting, time-consuming demands on teachers and leaders.

Preparation for Instructional Leadership

In this era in which school leaders are expected to improve teaching and learning in response to multiple contextual demands, it is then imperative that leadership preparation programs prepare their students to be effective instructional leaders (Backor & Gordon, 2015; Brazer & Bauer, 2013; Hess & Kelly, 2007). Despite the importance of effective instructional leadership and increased knowledge about what school leaders need to be able to know and do in order to improve instruction (Leithwood et al., 2004; Peterson, 2002; Elmore & Burney, 1999), there is a dearth of research on how best to prepare and develop school leaders to be instructional leaders (Backor & Gordon, 2015; Darling-Hammond et al., 2010; Hess & Kelly, 2007; Murphy, Smylie, Mayrowetz, & Louis, 2009). This gap in knowledge persists despite findings that most principal preparation programs are not effectively preparing leaders to successfully undertake the array of tasks needed to focus their schools on the improvement of instruction (Darling-Hammond et al., 2010; Hess & Kelly, 2007; Levine, 2005) and despite the use of the ISLLC standards to guide and accredit leadership preparation programs (Vogel & Weiler, 2014). In their research, Brazer and Bauer (2013) identify this disconnect between the call for instructional leadership and preparation programs' ability to meet this call. Similarly, Vogel and Weiler (2014) note the need for greater alignment between practice and preparation.

As Darling-Hammond and colleagues (2007) argue, there is "little evidence of how program graduates actually perform as instructional leaders or how their behaviors, knowledge, and attitudes have been shaped by their program experiences" (p. 11). For example, although "working directly with teachers to improve effectiveness in the

classroom, through evaluation, supervision, modeling, and support," (Darling-Hammond, et al., 2010, p. 14) is one of the most critical practices that connects the principal to instructional improvement (see also Leithwood & Jantzi, 2000, 2005; Marks & Printy, 2003), there is scant evidence that graduates of leadership preparation programs can actually do these things well (Darling-Hammond et al., 2010). There is an absence of research on "what instructional approaches are used, what topics are discussed, what kind of work is assigned, and how performance is assessed" (Hess & Kelly, 2007, p. 269; see also Osterman & Hafner, 2009; Taylor, Cordeiro, & Chrispeels, 2009) in leadership preparation programs.

Further, there is a lack of understanding of the role that clinical practice plays in leadership preparation. Darling-Hammond et al. (2007) contend, "...courses, no matter how appropriate their topics, are more powerful if they are wrapped around reinforcing clinical experiences that illustrate the principles under study and employ field-based inquiries, action research, case studies, and other tools that connect theory and practice" (p. 150). Here, I find it useful for leadership preparation to draw from extant research on the preparation and learning of teachers (Stein and Spillane, 2005). For example, Ball and Cohen's (1999) exploration of learning in and from practice, Lampert's (2010) conceptions of practice, and Grossman and colleagues' (2009) investigation of professional preparation for relational practice. As Lampert (2009) claims, "A strong congruence seems to exist between the notions that teaching is made of component *practices* and that teaching can be learned by *practicing*" (p. 31). I argue that Lampert's argument can be analogously applied to school leadership.

Preparing School Leaders to Engage in the Practice of Feedback

Principals' ability to engage in high-quality feedback exchanges with teachers is one such example of an instructional leadership practice for which school leaders need to be prepared. I contend in this essay that feedback is a potentially "high-leverage" (Sleep, Boerst, & Ball, 2007) leadership practice. When done well, it gives leaders "a lot of capacity in their work" (Ball, Sleep, Boerst, & Bass, 2009, p. 460).

A focus on the value of feedback for teacher learning is embedded in the research on effective school leadership, the leadership standards, and new and reformed teacher evaluation systems. "Giving teachers more feedback" is a persistent theme throughout writing on teacher learning and evaluation and feedback is hailed throughout this discourse as essential to teacher improvement (e.g. Coggshall, Rasmussen, Colton, Milton, & Jacques, 2012; Drago-Severson & Blum-DeStefano, 2014; Gates Foundation, 2013, 2014; Goldring, Porter, Murphy, Elliott, Cravens, 2007; Weisberg et al., 2009). The 2015 Professional Standards for Educational Leaders, for example, explicitly name feedback as a leadership practice. They state that school leaders ought to be able to, "Provide high-quality, actionable, and salient feedback to all staff members, and facilitate collegial exchanges of feedback." Likewise, the 2014 California Professional Standards for Education Leaders indicate that principals ought to "Engage staff in professional learning and formative assessments with specific feedback for continuous growth."[11]

Feedback is a promising means by which to improve teaching practice when used effectively. Research indicates that it plays a crucial role in knowledge acquisition (Mory, 2004) and is critical for improving job performance (Farr, Baytalskaya, & Johnson, 2012;

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[11] The California standards are highlighted due to this study's focus on P3 as a California-based leadership preparation program. Other states also include feedback in their standards.

Osterman & Kottkamp, 1993). When done well, feedback "directs behavior, influences future performance goals, heightens the sense of achievement, increases employees' ability to detect errors on their own, sets performance standards, increases motivation, and increases the amount of power and control employees feel" (Levy & Thompson, 2012, p. 217; see also Latham, Cheng & Macpherson, 2012). In addition, supporting adult development, including learning through high-quality feedback, "makes schools growth-enhancing places for both adults and children" (Drago-Severson & Blum-DeStefano, 2014, p. 115).

However, worryingly, research indicates that giving feedback is one of the most challenging and avoided tasks of managers. And further, "feedback is frequently ineffective and even counterproductive" (Sutton, Hornsey, & Douglas, 2012, p. 1; see also Hallinger, Heck, & Murphy, 2014; Kluger & DeNisi, 1996). In a 2014 survey of New York City school and district leaders conducted by Drago-Severson and Blum-DeStefano (2014), 75% of respondents indicated that "giving feedback was the 'most important skill' they want to build and grow, particularly in relation to having difficult conversations" (p. 18). And for good reason—feedback giving, like receiving, is difficult and emotional work for which most school leaders feel underprepared. In light of the emphasis on principals' feedback to teachers for the improvement of instructional practice and, in particular, the emphasis on feedback within supervision and evaluation systems, I contend that it is important that principals be skilled at this practice. Further, it is incumbent upon school leadership preparation programs to prepare principals to do this work well.

Study Purpose

Research on effective school leadership, and the leadership standards shaped by this research, indicates that it is important for principals to be well prepared to guide effective instructional practice and its improvement through high-quality feedback about teaching. Yet, there is a gap in the field's understanding of how leadership preparation programs teach the skills and knowledge necessary for instructional leadership or how students' leadership practice is shaped by their opportunities to learn (Hess & Kelly, 2007; Osterman & Hafner, 2009; Taylor et al., 2009). Thus, this study investigates how pre-service school leaders in a university-based, graduate-level leadership preparation program were prepared in their school supervision course to engage in feedback with teachers about the improvement of teaching practice.

The research questions guiding this study are: (1) What and how are students in one school leadership preparation program taught about feedback and feedback practices in their school supervision course? (2) What do these future leaders take up from the learning opportunities provided in this course, including opportunities for practice?

This study contributes to the understanding of how aspiring school leaders are prepared to be instructional leaders, specifically what and how they are taught to engage in feedback with teachers in order to improve teaching and learning, and how this informs their understanding of feedback practices. By examining the opportunities students have to learn about the complex practices involved in engaging in feedback for the improvement of instructional practice, I aim to inform how preparation programs can more effectively prepare their graduates for this facet of instructional leadership. This research can be used to shape principal preparation curricula, as well as the ongoing

support and professional development of school leaders. It was not the goal of this study, however, to assess the effectiveness of the observed school supervision course, its instructor, or the school leadership preparation program under investigation.

Methodology

Research Context

This examination of learning about feedback in leadership preparation uses a case study approach (Patton, 2002; Yin, 2006). A case study design was chosen in order to gain an in-depth understanding of how a small sample of aspiring school leaders in one university-based preparation program were prepared to engage in feedback with teachers, as well as to understand what facets of the work they took up as they engaged in feedback practices and reflected upon their own learning. One university preparation program was chosen to allow context to remain constant and avoid adding cross-institutional comparisons to the study. This study is situated in the boundaries of the preparation environment, rather than in the K-12 school environment, because leadership preparation is an area sorely in need of research (Hess & Kelly, 2007; Lashway, 2003).

Research site. The site chosen for this case study is the Principal Preparation Program (P3).[12] P3 is a fourteen-month intensive preparation program for aspiring school leaders at a large, public research university in northern California. Each year P3 admits approximately 20-30 teacher leaders from the region, with an average of 25 ultimately enrolling. All P3 candidates go through a rigorous admissions process to demonstrate excellence in teaching and a commitment to the principles of equity and social justice upon which P3 is founded. This includes: a minimum of five years teaching experience and a California "clear" teaching credential; submission of test scores, transcripts,

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[12] Name has been changed.

resume, and three letters of recommendation; a video of teaching and a written reflection on that video; a professional statement and personal history statement; and a day-long interview, including both group and individual components.

All students that enroll in P3 are part of a cohort for the duration of their preparation program. All courses are taken as a cohort in a required sequence. There are no course electives and the only exception to the cohort structure is the completion of fieldwork. Upon completion of coursework, multiple field experiences, a portfolio, and an action research project, graduates receive a master's degree, as well as a California Tier I Administrative Credential.

During their time in P3, all students simultaneously continue to work full-time in schools, typically as teacher leaders and occasionally as school administrators. This presents unique challenges as P3 students struggle to keep up with rigorous and time-consuming professional and academic expectations. It also presents unique affordances for students, as their work sites (and the work sites of fellow cohort members) become locations for fieldwork and practice.

Although preparation programs have long been denigrated for their low admissions standards, outdated content, lack of connection between theory and practice, and absence of meaningful field experiences (Darling-Hammond et al., 2010; Levine, 2005; Shelton, 2012), the P3 curriculum reflects research-based characteristics of high-quality leadership preparation programs. These include a clearly articulated theory of leadership for social justice, rigorous and timely content, student-centered learning activities that are practice-based, and constant leadership field experiences that are supported with coaching (Darling-Hammond et al., 2010; Levine, 2005; Shelton, 2012).

The organization of P3's courses seeks to overcome the siloed nature of knowledge that plagues leadership preparation by creating a "holistic, focused, and integrative design" (Pounder, Reitzug, & Young, 2002, p. 285), as recommended by many researchers. Because of this design, students are taught about providing feedback across three semesters. Students begin to be exposed to the practice of providing evidence-based feedback in the summer semester (approximately three, three-hour class sessions), delve most deeply into supervision, evaluation, and coaching in the fall semester (approximately 14, three-hour class sessions), and revisit evaluation as personnel management in the spring semester (approximately two, three-hour class sessions). Over the three semesters, students complete practice-based learning activities and assessments. These include conducting classroom observations, holding a post-observation conference with a teacher, analyzing their district's evaluation system, and role-playing an evaluation conversation. These are all potential opportunities for students to learn in and from practice in relation to their coursework.

This study specifically zooms in on the school supervision course that P3 students take in the fall semester of their program (the second of four semesters total). I chose this course because it is the most sustained and in-depth opportunity that P3 students have to learn about the use of feedback to support teacher learning. In addition, courses in school supervision are one of the most common in school leadership programs (Glasman & Glasman, 1997; Pohland & Carlson, 1993), making them an interesting area for investigation.

The course I investigated was titled "School Supervision: Fostering Teacher Learning." The syllabus indicates, "the course will focus on the knowledge, methods and

habits of mind leaders access to build professional capacity in the context of relational trust" (p. 2; see Appendix A for complete course syllabus). Further, it indicates that students will develop their ability to think through situations using four lenses: content knowledge, craft knowledge, legal/procedural, identity/advocacy. According to the syllabus, these four lenses were to be used in each class session, with the bulk of each class being divided between theory (i.e. content knowledge or legal/procedural) and practice (i.e. craft and identity/advocacy). The semester that I observed (Fall 2013) was the instructor's first semester teaching this course and her first time teaching in P3, though she is an alumna of the program who took the course. The syllabus was adapted from versions used by previous course instructors.

Study Participants

This study focused on a smaller sample of the 24-student school supervision class. Focal students were selected with the purpose of engaging them in more in-depth activities regarding their perceptions of their learning (i.e. approximations of practice and semi-structured interviews); something that would not have been manageable to undertake with 24 students. The class and focal students were all drawn from the same cohort of students in the P3 program. Nine students in the cohort were approached to participate in the study, with the ultimate aim of recruiting six participants. Six participants would have represented approximately one-quarter of the class, providing a manageable and representative sample of the group. Ultimately, five students were recruited into the study.

The sampling strategy I employed focused my selection on P3 students who worked in a high school at the time of the study. I chose this sample population for three

reasons: (1) my professional teaching background is in high schools, (2) my belief that the complexity of secondary school environments, particularly in relation to instructional leadership, is a rich area for exploration and one that is underrepresented in the research, and (3) instructional leadership, particularly around feedback, presents different challenges at the secondary school level than at the elementary level (Hallinger, 2005; Marshall, 1996; Wahlstrom, 2011) due to a variety of factors including school size, the distribution of leadership responsibilities (e.g. among principals, assistant principals, and department chairs), and the variety of instructional disciplines that need to be supervised and evaluated. There were a total of 11 students in the P3 cohort working in high schools, thus my sample represents approximately half the high school staff members.

In addition to focusing my participant selection at the secondary level, my aim was to further select participants according to the roles that they held at their school sites in the fall of 2013. It was my goal to include two practicing teachers, two instructional coaches, and two school leaders in the focal student sample. This sampling technique was chosen in order to account for the different opportunities for practice that each of these groups of participants was likely to have over the course of the semester beyond the requirements of the course. I assumed that the teachers would have the fewest opportunities for practice, while instructional coaches would have considerably more because their job requires it. Depending on the site and principal, I assumed there would be variable opportunities for the school leaders to practice. In addition, this sampling approach addresses issues of power and positional authority. School leaders are in a position to formally evaluate the teachers to whom they provide feedback, while teachers and instructional coaches are typically not. I supposed that the considerations of

opportunities for practice and positional authority might impact the participants'

opportunities to learn both within and beyond the context of the course. This sampling

strategy, however, does not account for students' prior experience engaging in feedback

practices (e.g. prior work as an instructional coach or variable experiences as a teacher

receiving feedback).

Ultimately, the focal population was composed of five students: three women and

two men. All participants worked in underserved northern California public (n=3) and

charter (n=2) high schools in the 2013-2014 academic year. At the time of the study, one

participant was a school principal, one was an instructional coach, and three were

teachers with leadership responsibilities (including coaching). The focal students had

between six and twenty years experience working in schools. Participant information

appears in Table 2.[13] All participants gave informed, written consent to participate in this

research project per review standards and all participants were compensated for their

participation in the study.

Data Collection

In order to understand what P3 students were taught and what they took up about

feedback, I observed the formal learning opportunities P3 students had in their school

supervision course by observing all class meetings. In addition, to inform the study

design and to provide me with background on the students' foundational knowledge of

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[13] All names are pseudonyms.

Name	Gender	Race/Ethnicity	Total Years Working in Education	Current Job	Years Experience in Current Job	School Level	Charter or Trad. Public (C/P)	Past Roles Held	Certification	Aspirations in Admin. (Y/N)
Sarah	F	White	20	English Language Development Lead Teacher	4	HS	P	English Teacher; World Lit & Composition Teacher; Instructional Coach	Single Subject English w/ CLAD	Y
Terese	F	Latina	12	English Teacher	8	HS	P	English Language Development Coordinator	Single Subject English w/ CLAD; National Board Certified	Y
Sam	M	White	6	Instructional Coach	2 months	HS	C	Special Education Teacher; Afterschool Director	Mild Moderate Special Education	Y
Jorge	M	Latino	7	Social Studies Teacher & English Language Development Coordinator	7 years (1 year as ELD Coordinator)	HS	P	N/A	Social Science	Y
Alisha	F	Black/Asian	16	Principal	2 months	HS	C	Director of Instruction; English Teacher	Single Subject English w/ CLAD	Y

Table 2. Focal Student Data

instructional leadership, I observed, video recorded, and took field notes during the summer class sessions (July 23-26, 2013) in which this topic was addressed. Further, I designed two opportunities for the focal student population to engage in approximations of feedback practice and two opportunities for semi-structured interviews. These were completed at two junctures: once near the start of the school supervision course (late October 2013) and once after the conclusion of the course (January-February 2014). My intention was to acquire baseline data to compare to post-course data.

Course documentation and observation. Data collection occurred across the span of the school supervision course from mid-October to mid-December 2013.[14] I conducted observations of and video recorded each class session, wrote field notes during class sessions, and collected course documents and artifacts. This included the course syllabus, samples of in-class student work, student assessments, course presentations and handouts, and video recordings of the semester's Assessment Center post-observation simulation activity.[15]

Approximations of practice. Each of the five focal students took part in an approximation of feedback practice before each of the interviews. Drawn from the work of Grossman and colleagues (2009), approximations are opportunities for practice that are proximal to those of professional practice; in this case, approximations of feedback. Grossman et al.'s (2009) conception of approximations of practice is particularly useful

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[14] The program operates courses on a staggered schedule so that students have fewer classes to manage at one time, but with more condensed and intensive course durations. Therefore, classes in the fall and spring semesters last, on average, eight or nine weeks with class meeting for three-hours twice per week.

[15] Assessment Center is a daylong series of authentic assessments at the end of each P3 semester. It is an opportunity for students, instructors, and coaches to assess and reflect upon student progress, as well as program effectiveness. Assessment Center is not used for high-stakes certification decisions, nor is it part of students' grades. One element of fall Assessment Center is a post-observation conference simulation and reflection. This assessment is linked to the school supervision course and was an additional source of end of semester data. See "major assessments" for further discussion.

because it takes into account the deeply relational nature of the feedback process.[16] The approximations were an opportunity for each student to take on the role of a first-year high school principal engaging in feedback with a teacher after observing that teacher's instruction during one class period. The approximations used a video of teaching practice, as there were too many challenges involved in observing live classroom instruction.

The scenario across the two approximations of practice was standardized. This included use of the same video of teaching, the same prompt, and the same actor playing the teacher role. Designing the approximations to be standardized enabled me to collect baseline and post-course data while controlling for variables such as the actor's demeanor, the challenge of the task, or differences across teaching videos.

My video selection was guided by a number of factors. The first being that high-quality, full-length videos of real teaching practice are challenging to acquire, particularly of high school classrooms. Second, I aimed to find a content area in which at least one of the study participants had instructional experience. I hypothesized that leadership content knowledge (Stein & Nelson, 2003) might impact the participants' feedback. Ultimately, I selected a video of a 9th grade World history classroom that was publicly available on the website Teaching Channel. It was a full-length, high-quality video of one class period in an urban, charter high school classroom in the greater California Bay Area. In addition to the teaching video, the site and the organization that produced the video, *Reading Like a Historian,* made publicly available the lesson plan and all handouts used in the video (see Appendix B), which I regarded as an asset to the selection. Because I selected a video of history instruction, I was also able to leverage my own teaching background in this area

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[16] Lampert's (2010) explication of rehearsals as practice for future performance and Ericcson, Krampe and Tesch-Romer's (2008) discussion of deliberate practice also informed my thinking when designing this aspect of the study.

to inform my understanding of the content and teaching. One participant was a Social Studies teacher, so the video also fulfilled that aim.

An actor recruited prior to data collection played the role of the teacher in the approximations of practice. The actor is a former high school science teacher and, at the time of the study, a doctoral candidate in education. Her background enabled her to engage in and respond to the approximation of practice in a way that was authentic. She was trained to play her role as consistently as possible to control for the level of challenge given to each focal student. Study participants had never met the actor prior to the first simulation. I made them aware that she was acting in the role and was not the same teacher as the one they had seen in the video. The actor provided her informed consent to participate in the study and was compensated for her participation. In addition to acting in both sets of approximations of practice with each focal student, she also completed post-simulation feedback surveys about her perceptions of each participant's effectiveness (see Appendix C for survey).

Each approximation of practice lasted a total of approximately one hour, followed by an additional hour for the interview. Focal students were scheduled individually and the simulations and interviews were on the university campus or at their work site, depending on the participant's preference. Participants were given a brief introduction to the aims of the study, the agenda for the two hours, and context for the simulation; all of which were also provided in print form. I instructed participants to ask questions or make notes at any time they deemed necessary. This was followed by a 5-minute opportunity to review printed copies of the lesson plan and handouts for the class that they were about to observe via video. They then viewed 20-minutes of the selected

teaching video, followed by 10-minutes to prepare for a 20-minute simulated feedback session with the actor teacher that would immediately follow. Participants were directed to use the 20-minute feedback session in any way that they saw fit. Their only directive was that the observation was not a formal observation for evaluative purposes, but a formative assessment with the goal of improving practice. The pace of these time frames and lack of advanced preparation were meant to simulate the amount of time a busy principal might have to engage in leadership activities of this type.

Focal student interviews. In addition to participating in the approximations of practice, the focal students were interviewed twice, once at the start of the supervision course and once after the conclusion of the course. Interviews were semi-structured, approximately 50-minutes each, conducted by me, and audio recorded with field notes. The first interview of each focal student occurred in late October 2013 near the start of the course. The second interview occurred in January-February 2014 after the conclusion of the course. Interviews occurred immediately after each focal student's approximation of practice.

The purpose of the first interview was to capture the focal students' past experiences with work-related feedback, what knowledge and conceptions about feedback they had before the class began, and what they hoped to learn about feedback from the course (see Appendix D for Interview 1 protocol). The purpose of the second interview was to capture what the participants perceived they had learned from the course, what stood out to them as key principles related to feedback, and how their conceptions of feedback post-course differed from their pre-course conceptions, if at all (see Appendix E for Interview 2 protocol). Given that all participants engaged in many

academic, professional, and personal experiences at the same time they were in the school supervision courses, it is important to note there could be many reasons that their conceptions of feedback and feedback practice shifted over this time. The interviews (particularly the post-course interview) sought to acknowledge this reality.

In both interviews, the focal students were also asked questions about the feedback simulation. This included questions about specific moves that the student made in the simulation and why they chose to make them, as well as their reflections upon their effectiveness and what they would have done differently (see interview protocols for further elaboration). It was the goal of both sets of interviews to uncover what the students were taking up from the course regarding feedback and what they were not. Both interviews and approximations of practice were audio recorded. A professional transcriber who signed a confidentiality agreement then transcribed these recordings.

Data Analysis

Course data. To make sense of the course video recordings, field notes, and course documents and artifacts, I watched all recordings, reviewed field notes, and scanned and catalogued all documents and artifacts throughout the course of data collection. This enabled me to organize the data, begin to identify data that were relevant to my research questions and other data that ought to be left outside the bounds of this study, and begin to note analytical insights (Patton, 2002). After the end of the course, data that I had identified as relevant to my first research question (i.e. What and how are students in one school leadership preparation program taught about feedback and feedback practices in their school supervision course?) were again reviewed and catalogued.

To sort and make sense of the data accumulated during the course (field notes, agendas, worksheets, handouts, powerpoint presentations, etc.), I created a data matrix. The matrix enabled me to sort all data by class meeting according to the two aspects the research question—content and pedagogy. This then allowed me to see patterns in the data, including the key concepts that were taught and the pedagogical practices employed. In addition, I coded the pedagogical data, applying codes from Grossman and colleagues' (2009) framework of practice in professional education.

Focal student data. The analysis of the focal student data began during data collection with reviews of my field notes. The analysis continued after data collection ended so that I could begin to recognize patterns in the student data. Then, transcripts of all of the approximations of practice and focal student interviews were coded using line-by-line open coding and a grounded theory approach (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Following open coding, I categorized the codes based upon similarities in order to begin to identify patterns in the data (Saldaña, 2013). This resulted in revisiting the coding, recoding and re-categorizing as necessary to refine both. The resulting categories (and subcategories) were then clustered into themes that were central to my data analysis (Saldaña, 2013).

I first coded the ten approximations of practice, working participant by participant. This enabled me to see baseline and post-course data by focal student in succession so that I could write research memos, recording insights about individual participants' uptake from the course as evidenced in the approximations. This included the creation of data matrices from the approximations of practice that enabled me to see

baseline and post-course data, organized side-by-side by participant. Then, I looked across participants to revisit the coding and begin to cluster by theme.

After coding the approximations of practice, I coded the interview data. Again, I worked participant by participant so that I could compare baseline and post-course data first by participant, then across participants. Because the data from the approximations and interviews were very different, the two data sets had almost entirely different codes with different emergent themes. This enabled me to further parse out the research question, considering the focal students' "taking up" of course learning opportunities as evidenced by practice in the approximations versus as evidenced in the interviews.

Study Limitations

This study is limited to one course within one school leadership preparation, with a focus on five students within that class. Therefore, the findings of this paper are not generalizable and are limited to the participants and setting studied. However, it is hoped that the findings will be useful for others examining similar contexts.

In addition, this study is limited by the fact that the focal students engaged in approximations of practice. Inherently, these situations approximated real practice. Thus there was an artificiality to the circumstanced under which participants engaged in feedback practice. Simulations and role-plays are common in the research literature on school leadership and, as others have noted (e.g. Le Fevre & Robinson, 2015), there is a need for research to begin to include analysis of authentic leadership practice. For example, studies analyzing audio/video of school leaders and teachers engaging in post-observation conferences in which feedback about instruction is being discussed could be very important for moving feedback practice forward.

This study also focused exclusively on the preparation and practice of school leaders and thus is limited by this emphasis. As other researchers note, there are multiple roles in schools that may be responsible for engaging in feedback with teachers; for example, instructional coaches, department chairs, and deans. Shared instructional leadership of this sort is incredibly valuable to the effectiveness of schools (Marks & Printy, 2003), and it would be a mistake to think that principals alone can or should do this work (e.g. Hallinger, 2005). The preparation and practice of these various instructional leadership roles is important and in need of further examination (Neumerski, 2013), however investigating these roles was outside of the scope of this research.

The School Supervision Course: Content and Pedagogy

The first research question of this study asks what students in P3 were taught about feedback and feedback practices in their school supervision course (i.e. the content, including knowledge and skills) and how they were taught (i.e. the pedagogy). To consider what students were taught and how, I use Glatthorn's (2000) framework on curriculum[17], and Osterman and Hafner's (2009) use of this framework, to review four elements of the P3 school supervision curriculum. First, I describe the written curriculum of the course. That is, the planned or intended curriculum based upon the course syllabus. Second, I review the supported curriculum, or the information resources that were part of the course (primarily course readings) as found in the syllabus and from my observations. Third, I examine the taught curriculum, or the enacted curriculum (Porter & Smithson, 2001) and pedagogy based on my observations of and artifacts from the course. Fourth, I

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[17] Glatthorn's (2000) framework includes seven aspects of curricula: the recommended curriculum, the written curriculum, the taught curriculum, the supported curriculum, the assessed curriculum, the learned curriculum, and the hidden curriculum. Here, I only take up four elements of Glatthorn's framework. The second research question in this study takes up a variation on Glatthorn's conception of the learned curriculum.

describe the assessed curriculum, or the assessments used in the course. This approach is consistent with calls in the literature to learn more about what gets taught in principal preparation programs. As Hess and Kelly (2007) argue, "...it would be most interesting to learn what instructional approaches are used, what topics are discussed, what kind of work is assigned, and how performance is assessed" (p. 269; see also Grossman et al., 2009).

Embedded in the question of how students in the P3 supervision course were taught is an investigation of the students' opportunities to learn, including opportunities for practice. There is a growing research base pointing to the need for aspiring leaders to gain firsthand experience practicing the skills and applying the knowledge necessary for effective instructional leadership (e.g. Darling-Hammond, et al., 2010; Drago-Severson & Blum-DeStafano, 2014). Therefore, I contend that opportunities for practice in leadership preparation are particularly important to examine and develop.

To examine the students' opportunities for practice, I draw from Lampert's (2009) conception of practice in relation to learning teaching, and Grossman and colleagues' (2009) framework for the teaching of practice in professional preparation (see also Grossman, 2011). Both Lampert and Grossman acknowledge the deeply relational nature of practice in the helping professions, to which I add school leadership, with particular attention to the relational nature of the practice of feedback. I apply Lampert's (2009) argument that there is congruence "between the notions that teaching is made of component *practices* and that teaching can be learned by *practicing*" (p. 31) to feedback as a leadership practice that can be learned by practicing. I examine P3 students' opportunities to learn about practice through practice within the supervision course

utilizing Grossman et al.'s (2009) framework describing the use of representations, decompositions, and approximations of practice in professional education.

The Written Curriculum

The written curriculum of "School Supervision: Fostering Teacher Learning" reveals the intentions of the course and its instructor (Glatthorn, 2000). My aim in describing the written curriculum is not to assess the alignment between the written and the taught curriculum, nor to assess the quality of the written curriculum itself. I describe what is found in the written curriculum in order to provide some information about the conceptual framework, learning goals, and standards that undergird the course (Porter & Smithson, 2001).

Central to the written course curriculum is the concept of instructional leadership as effective leadership. The syllabus indicates, "Effective school leaders view teaching and learning as the fulcrum for substantive school change. They convey a belief in 'leadership for learning', ensuring that the entire school organization and all of its participants and structures focus on student outcomes first and foremost" (p. 1). Further, it indicates that leaders must hold the practice of intentional instructional leadership as a primary priority. With that said, the syllabus highlights the influence of organizational and community context upon the actionable space of the school leader. Thus, the defined intention of the course is to "focus largely on effective teacher supervision capable of moving practices forward, and on the relationships among leader and teachers, leader and community and leader to self that enable and sustain this work" (p. 1). In addition, "the course will focus on the knowledge, methods and habits of mind leaders access to build professional capacity in the context of relational trust" (p. 1).

Conceptual framework. The course's conceptual framework (Figure 3) draws on various findings in the research literature. These include: the centrality of improving instruction to the improvement of schools; leaders' support of the improvement of instruction via organizational and professional capacity building; the leaders' engagement of all members of the organization, including the building of relational trust; and an acknowledgement of the institutional and systemic factors that impact change (e.g. state and federal policy, accountability systems) (see Appendix F for complete foundations of conceptual framework). The framework builds upon P3's focus on the socially just school in the first semester of the program and the framework used in the preceding course of the fall term "Schools as Organizations."
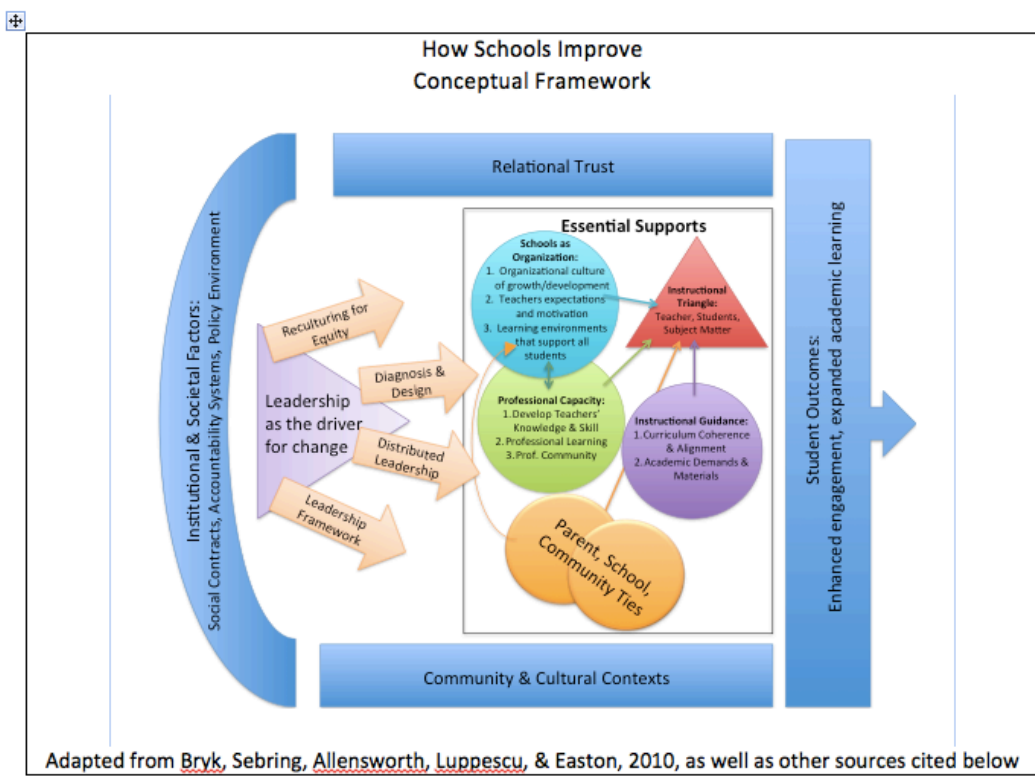

Figure 3. Course conceptual framework (Syllabus, p. 2)

Course design. The design of the course included three modules over seven weeks and 13 class meetings. The modules are: (1) Supervision within the community context, (2) Supervision and coaching for teacher learning, and (3) Instructional leadership. Topics within Module 1 are the leadership perspective and community perspective on supervision. Topics within Module 2 are coaching stances, pre-conferences and goal setting, observation protocols, and post-conferences and feedback. Topics within Module 3 are instructional rounds and walkthroughs, setting priorities, confronting resistant, and teacher evaluations.

The syllabus also indicates that the course will require students to develop their ability to think through four main, intersecting lenses. The lenses are:

- Content Knowledge: Leaders will develop a theoretical base through which to evaluate instructional and reform efforts.

- Craft Knowledge: Leaders will translate theory into practice by developing skills and strategies to address the differentiated needs of practitioners, including particular attention to the principles of equity, respect, compassion, hope and joy

- Legal/Procedural: Leaders will possess knowledge regarding the legal and regulatory mandates of teacher supervision and evaluation

- Identity/Advocacy: Leaders will build their capacity to serve as informed, culturally responsive student, family and community advocates by utilizing the skills and knowledge they have attained. (Syllabus, p. 5)

The syllabus indicates that each lens will be employed in most class meetings, with the class time largely split between theory (i.e. content knowledge or legal/procedural) and practice (i.e. craft and identity/advocacy) (see Appendix G).

In addition, the course syllabus outlines numerous expectations for students (see Appendix H). These include expectations for graduate level academic discourse and group work. Embedded within the course expectations are many elements and descriptors from P3's leadership rubric, which is used in all courses and P3's leadership induction program.

The Supported Curriculum

As part of the written curriculum, various required readings are outlined; these compose the supported curriculum of the course. The supported curriculum, according to Osterman and Hafner (2009), "encompasses the information or ideas that support learning and is a tangible manifestation of the knowledge base" (p. 294). The P3 school supervision syllabus required that students read articles from peer-reviewed journals, chapters from seminal texts on school improvement and school leadership, and articles from practitioner publications (Appendix A). In addition, the reading list required that students revisit articles and chapters used in courses they have previously taken. This pedagogical choice, according to the P3 program director, is to build coherence for the students across their courses. An average of two readings were to be completed per class meeting, with class meeting twice per week.

From my observations of each class meeting, there is evidence that required readings were used by both the students and instructor with varying depth and varying accountability. Student comments in small "table" groups (a frequent format for small group discussion) indicated wide variation in students' engagement with and understanding of the readings and in their preparation for class. Students were heard saying said that they could not remember the main ideas of the articles they had read due

to the volume and/or density of the readings. Other students said that they had read only some of the articles prior to class or had "skimmed" the articles. On occasion students could be heard referencing the week's readings in small group or whole class discussions, when they were otherwise unmentioned by the instructor or classmates. This, however, was generally limited to a fairly small pool of individuals.

In the first class meeting, the course instructor expressed to students an understanding of the demands on their time, and thus a desire to give students an opportunity to occasionally use class time to review and process readings collaboratively in class. Her orientation to incorporating readings in the class meetings manifested itself in occasional collaborative learning strategies focused on the readings, such as jigsaws or small group discussions employing instructor-created graphic organizers. One such example occurred in the fourth class meeting. Students met in small "expert" groups focused on one of the week's four assigned readings, utilizing an instructor-created graphic organizer to capture notes on that reading. Required notes included key concepts, selection of a "stand-out" quote, connections the group was making between the reading and teacher supervision, and creation of a t-shirt design capturing main ideas. The expert groups then disbanded, forming new groups composed of experts on each reading that shared their findings. During the expert and jigsaw meetings, the instructor circulated around the room listening to student discussion. Students then reconvened as a whole class to debrief and engage in further discussion with one another and the instructor. Learning strategies focused on unpacking readings with this level of depth occurred three times during the course.

Evidence from my observations of the class meetings and from a review of all assessments indicate that there was little accountability for a considerable amount of the reading material, neither in class discussions nor in formative or summative assessments. However, select readings received considerable attention from both the instructor and students when students were required to apply these readings to in-class or field-based opportunities for practice. These readings were those that focused on practice or were guides for practice. This occurred, for example, in sessions six and seven of the course when the class examined coaching stances as part of the supervision and coaching module. The students used one of session six's required readings (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2013) to self-assess their comfort and experience with each of Glickman and colleagues' (2013) four coaching stances, followed by discussion in trios reflecting upon these assessments and a role play practicing the stances. I elaborate on this example in my discussion of approximations of practice in the enactment of the course.

The Taught Curriculum

The taught curriculum describes the curriculum as enacted (Porter & Smithson, 2001), including the pedagogical strategies employed by the instructor. My discussion of the pedagogical use of required readings within the supervision course is one such example of the taught curriculum. By exploring the curriculum as enacted, my goal was to uncover what students were taught about engaging in the practice of feedback with teachers and to investigate students' opportunities for practice within these class meetings. To these ends, I focus on class meetings in which feedback for the improvement of teaching was a central theme (n=8).[18] To disentangle content and

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[18] To determine if feedback was a central theme of the class meeting, I used my data matrix composed of all data from the course (e.g. field notes, handouts, PowerPoints, agendas) to look for the explicit use of the

pedagogy so that each can be adequately focused upon, I first describe what was taught in the course and then describe how the content was taught.

What was taught: Course content. As indicated in the written curriculum, the school supervision course was organized around three modules: (1) Supervision within the community context, (2) Supervision and coaching for teacher learning, and (3) Instructional leadership. As I have noted, not all class meetings focused on learning to engage in feedback, though knowledge and skills related to feedback giving were interwoven through all three modules.

To describe what was taught in the course, I use Table 3 to outline the session number, module, topic, focus questions, and content of each session that pertains to learning about feedback. The knowledge and skills under study included: (a) defining fixed and growth mindsets (Dweck, 1999) and their impact on leadership and teaching, (b) using personal strengths and weaknesses to inform teacher supervision practice, (c) describing the responsibilities and effective time-use of instructional leaders, (d) examining personal feedback experiences and the implications of experience for practice, (e) examining the leader's actionable space in improving instruction, (f) describing qualities of high-quality school supervision, (g) understanding and practicing coaching stances (Glickman, Gordon, & Ross-Gordon, 2013), (h) establishing goals for observations and observation conferences, (i) using multiple observation protocols/tools, (j) effectively using opening questions in post-observation conferences, (k) identifying attributes of an effective feedback environment, and (l) practicing how to confront resistance and engage in difficult conversations with teachers.

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term feedback, the use representations, decomposition, or approximations of feedback practice, or for theory or practice related to classroom observations.

Session 2 **Supervision in a Community Context: The Leadership Perspective**	WHERE ARE YOU STUCK IN A FIXED MINDSET? Check in question for reflection ――――――――――――――――――――― WHAT IS YOUR TEACHER SUPERVISION BASELINE? HOW DOES THIS INFORM YOUR FOCUS MOVING FORWARD? HOW WILL YOU CHANNEL YOUR STRENGTHS TO EFFECT INSTRUCTIONAL CHANGE? Supervision pre-assessment ――――――――――――――――――――― WHAT IS YOUR ACTIONABLE SPACE IN IMPROVING INSTRUCTION? The leader as an actor in instructional change; Teacher supervision through the lens of leadership
Session 4 **Supervision in a Community Context: The Equity Perspective**	WHAT ARE YOU LEARNING ABOUT YOUR EXPERIENCE RECEIVING FEEDBACK AND ITS IMPLICATIONS ON PRACTICE? Review compiled 360° feedback; Discussion of uses of 360° evaluations and upcoming assessment expectations for 360° task; Intro mini-LARP assessment process. ――――――――――――――――――――― WHAT ROLE DOES DISTRIBUTED LEADERSHIP PLAY IN ENSURING EQUITY? WHAT IS YOUR ACTIONABLE SPACE IN IMPROVING INSTRUCTION? Examine main ideas of week's readings
Session 6 **Supervision and Coaching: Coaching Stances**	HOW HAS SUPERVISION INFLUENCED YOU? Check in question using timeline of supervision experiences graphic organizer ――――――――――――――――――――― HOW DOES ONE DEFINE "GOOD" CLINICAL SUPERVISION? WHAT IS THE GOAL OF GOOD SUPERVISION Use chart to abstract positive qualities of supervision/leadership abilities Create list of goals of good supervision ――――――――――――――――――――― WHAT TYPE OF SUPERVISION DO I GRAVITATE TOWARD? WHAT SPECIFIC PRACTICES ARE RELATED TO DIFFERENTIATED SUPERVISION? WHICH SHOULD I PRIORITIZE MY TIME PRACTICING? Coaching stances & self-assessment; Preparation for coaching exercise ――――――――――――――――――――― IN CLINICAL SUPERVISION IN WHAT WAYS DO YOU FEEL LIKE A NOVICE? LIKE AN EXPERT? IMPLICATIONS Check out reflection

Session 7 **Supervision and Coaching: Pre-Conferences and Goal Setting**	Making connections between Acheson & Gall and Glickman readings and Heath and Heath concept of change; using these as frames for pre-observation conferences _____ HOW DO I SET GOALS THAT ADDRESS TEACHERS' DIFFERENT NEEDS? Coaching Stance Practice and Debrief Coaching Fishbowl
Session 9 **Supervision and Coaching: Observation Protocols**	Practitioner Panel- supervision & evaluation in practice _____ HOW FACILE DO I FEEL WITH DIFFERENT OBSERVATION PROTOCOLS AND HOW WILL I PRACTICE? Observation Practice and Debrief x2 Rounds Select observation tool (1 of 7) from the summer to view teaching video, personal reflection to prepare, table discussion of observations; repeat with different tool _____ HOW DO I DIRECT THE FLOW OF A COACHING CONVERSATION? From observation to post-conference: Using opening questions
Session 10 **Supervision and Coaching: Post Conferences and Goal Setting**	HOW FACILE DO I FEEL WITH DIFFERENT OBSERVATION PROTOCOLS AND HOW WILL I PRACTICE? HOW DO I DIRECT THE FLOW OF A COACHING CONVERSATION? Observation Practice Select observation tool (1 of 7) from the summer to view teaching video; Post-conference strategies _____ HOW DO YOU ASSESS, RESPOND TO AND SHAPE FEEDBACK ENVIRONMENT? Post-Conference to Feedback Environment Reading- Myung & Martinez- Feedback Both/And, Either/Or- is there a both/and to types of classroom visits
Session 11 **Instructional Leadership: Walkthroughs**	HOW DO YOU USE WALKTHROUGHS OR INSTRUCTIONAL ROUNDS IN YOUR WORK CONTEXT? Practitioner panel and debrief: Walkthroughs _____ HOW DO YOU ASSESS, RESPOND TO AND SHAPE FEEDBACK ENVIRONMENT? Post-Conference to Feedback Environment _____ WHAT IS THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN INSTRUCTIONAL ROUNDS, PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AND RESOURCE ALLOCATION? Walkthrough Needs Analysis- Intro to group task

	HOW CAN PRACTITIONER EXPERIENCES INFORM MY PRACTICES?
Session 13	Resistance: An Introduction
Instructional Leadership: Confronting Resistance	WHAT ARE LEADERS' EXPERIENCES WITH RESISTANCE?
	Practitioner panel
	WHAT IS MY READINESS FOR DIFFICULT CONVERSATIONS? IF "RESISTANCE MAKES GOOD SENSE," HOW WILL I ENGAGE WITH IT? WHERE IS "THE LINE" AND HOW COMFORTABLE AM I HOLDING IT?
	Difficult Conversation Practice- triad work with Lee's A-practices

Table 3. School supervision course content

How it was taught: Course pedagogy. Programmatically, P3 emphasizes the use of constructivist and adult learning theories in its pedagogy. This includes "authentic engagement with actual problems of practice" (Taylor et al., 2009, p. 325) that principals encounter in their daily work lives, student engagement through reflection on both self and context, and collaborative learning (Introduction to P3 Pedagogy, 8/9/13). This is consistent with research indicating that future school leaders should be engaged in learning of this type (Darling-Hammond et al., 2010; Drago-Severson & Blum-DeStefano, 2014; Taylor et al., 2009). It is also consistent with findings that students enrolled in preparation programs feel that they benefit more from "authentic, field-based pedagogy" (Taylor et al., 2009, p. 333).

To examine the application of these theories in the enactment of the school supervision course, I will consider how the instructor of the supervision course used both a "pedagogy of enactment" and a "pedagogy of reflection and investigation" (Grossman, Hammerness, & McDonald, 2009; Grossman & McDonald, 2008) to prepare novice

school leaders for feedback practice. Both Lampert and Grossman locate "pedagogies of enactment" centrally in their work, using "enactment as a proxy for adding attention to practice to more academic work" (Lampert, 2009, p. 24; see also Grossman, Hammerness, & McDonald, 2009).

Employing a pedagogy of enactment. In their work on teacher education, Lampert (2009) and Grossman (2009; 2011) conceptualize what it means to learn in and from practice through "pedagogies of enactment." Here, I apply Lampert's and Grossman's complementary conceptions of practice to examine the pedagogy of the P3 supervision course. Like the other professions studied by Lampert (2009) and Grossman et al. (2009), school leaders engage in complex, relational practice under conditions of uncertainty (Grossman et al., 2009, p. 2058). Engaging with teachers in feedback about the improvement of their teaching is one example of a complex practice with considerable uncertainty that novice leaders encounter.

To prepare for this complexity, Lampert and Grossman both consider how practice can be divided into components for investigation by novice practitioners. In Grossman and colleagues' (2009) framework for the teaching of practice, there are three central concepts: representations of practice, decomposition of practice, and approximations of practice. They contend:

> *Representations* of practice comprise the different ways that practice is represented in professional education and what these various representations make visible to novices. *Decomposition* of practice involves breaking down practice into its constituent parts for the purposes of teaching and learning. *Approximations* of practice refer to opportunities to engage in practices that are

more or less proximal to the practices of a profession. (Grossman et al., 2009, p.

1, emphasis added; see also Grossman, 2011)

Next, I use these three elements of the framework to examine the pedagogy of enactment employed in the course.

Representations of practice. My observations of class meetings and artifacts from the course indicate that various representations of feedback practice were used to make this practice visible to the students. The most common representations of practice were the stories and experiences of practicing school leaders (assistant principals, deans, or principals). At three different points in the semester, panels of practitioners were assembled to share their leadership experiences with the class. The specific topics for the panels included sharing perspectives and lived experiences with supervision and post-observation conferences, conducting walkthroughs, and managing teacher resistance. Panels lasted approximately 45 minutes to an hour each, and they were composed of two or three panelists per topic. All panelists were P3 alumni drawn from the instructor's network, and they represented a range of urban school levels and types (e.g. charter, traditional public, high school, elementary) in the region. The format for the panels was: (a) a personal introduction by each panelist, (b) an opening/framing question from the instructor, and (c) student questions to the panel. Only the walkthrough panel was followed by a reflective debrief, which occurred after the panelists departed, in both small table groups (one hour) and a whole class discussion (30 minutes).

Another representation of practice was a "coaching fishbowl." In this representation, the class watched a five-minute video of elementary math teaching. Then students were prompted by the instructor to discuss with their table group for three

minutes "where you might go with this teacher" (Fieldnotes, 11/6/13) in a post-observation conference. Then students watched a live role-play of a six-minute "coaching conference" between the instructor, playing the role of the teacher in the video, and a P3 alumna who played the role of principal. Students did not engage with this representation beyond these three elements.

A third representation of practice was audio of a coaching conversation between a teacher and principal. This 20-minute audio file that students listened to in class, with accompanying transcript, was a representation of "confronting resistance" within the instructional leadership module. It was followed by a related approximation of practice, which I will discuss at greater length in that section.

The final collection of representations of practice was artifacts shared by the instructor for student use. These included: a collection of seven observation tools and instruments introduced in one of the summer courses; a pre-observation conference preparation guide and planning sheet; a post-observation conference preparation guide and planning sheet; and the "Four A-Practices Coaching Guide" created by Enid Lee and the New Teacher Center. All of these artifacts were also used in approximations of practice, sometimes with multiple tools being used in an approximation.

Decomposition of practice and approximations of practice. Because engaging teachers in feedback to improve their teaching is a complex, relational practice, Grossman and colleagues (2009) argue that students "may need opportunities first to distinguish, and then to practice, the different components that go into professional work prior to integrating them fully" (p. 2068-2069). They go on to say that, "Part of the work of professional education lies in identifying components that are integral to practice and

that can be improved through targeted instruction" (p. 2069). In the P3 supervision course, analysis of data from the course indicates that the instructor identified four components of feedback practice that could be decomposed and practiced by the students. These were selecting and using coaching stances in observation conferences (Glickman et al., 2013), observing teaching using observation tools, formulating and using opening questions in observation conferences, and having difficult conversations. All four decompositions and all approximations were in the context of conducting a post-observation conference.

The students had the opportunity to use each of these three decompositions of practice in approximations of practice. As Grossman and colleagues (2009) point out, approximations of practice rely on decomposition, thus there is considerable overlap between these elements of their framework. They argue, "instructors must select a component of professional work that forms the basis of an approximation...breaking practice into parts that students can experience with some degree of integrity and from which students can learn to reintegrate what they have learned" (p. 2091-2092). This is consistent with Lampert's (2009) claim that practice is "made of component practices...that can be learned by practicing" (p. 31). Because of this overlap, I describe each decomposition and then how it was practiced in an approximation, or what Lampert (2009) would term a rehearsal.

The students' opportunity to practice using coaching stances first came in the sixth session of the course. This was also the first session in which supervision practices began to be discussed and applied. At the onset of the session, the instructor told students that there is an "interchangeable use of coaching and clinical supervision, meaning giving

pedagogical feedback to teachers" (Fieldnotes, 11/4/13). In preparation for the class

meeting, the students were to have read a chapter from the Glickman et al. (2013) text

SuperVision and Instructional Leadership: A developmental approach. In this chapter,

Glickman and colleagues outline four coaching stances: directive control, directive

informational, collaborative, and non-directive. For each stance, the authors outline issues

related to that stance, when to use it, a role play exercise, a reflective exercise, and how

to move from one stance to another.

In class, students were given 30 minutes to assess "who you are as a clinical

supervisor" (Fieldnotes, 11/4/13), using two scenarios on "supervisory interpersonal

behaviors" (Glickman et al., 2013, p. 92) from a different chapter in the Glickman text.

The aim of this self-assessment, as articulated by the instructor, was for students to

discover their "preferred coaching style," with her encouragement for the students "to

focus on areas of strength and excellence" (Fieldnotes, 11/4/13). For each scenario in the

self-assessment, four approaches were outlined that aligned with the four coaching

stances, thus enabling the students to identify which stance they were most inclined to

use. The instructor then directed the students to use the findings from their self-

assessment to select one of the four coaching stances "you're uncomfortable with and

want to work on" (Fieldnotes, 11/4/13). They were given 30 minutes to do this, as well as

read scenarios in preparation for supervision approximations that would occur in the

following class.

In session seven, students were grouped in trios tasked with three things: discuss

reflections from their coaching self-assessments, engage in an approximation of coaching

practice, and debrief the practice experience (see Appendix I for a detailed description of

the task). For the approximation of practice using coaching stances, each student engaged in one approximation of practice for a total of four minutes acting as a supervisor giving post-observation feedback to a teacher. The approximations were based on scenarios from the Glickman text given to students in the previous class session. They were encouraged by the instructor to practice a stance with which they were uncomfortable or not inclined, according to results from their self-assessment. The other members of the trio played the role of the observed teacher and facilitator/note-taker. Following each approximation, the trio had four minutes to debrief what occurred. My observations indicated that this time was largely spent on the "supervisor" reflecting on his or her performance.

The second decomposition and approximation of practice utilized by the instructor leveraged one of the aforementioned representations of practice: observation protocols and tools. Grossman and colleagues (2009) indicate that the difference between a representation of practice and decomposition or approximation is the students' level of engagement with the practice. "A representation *illustrates* a facet of practice," they argue, "whereas an approximation *engages* students in that practice" (p. 2091). In this case, the students used a representation —the observation tools— to engage in the simulated practice of classroom observation.

Seven "observation tools and instruments" were employed in this decomposition and approximation. These were: (1) scripting and naming, (2) teacher questions, (3) indicators of a constructivist lesson (Glickman et al., 2013), (4) teacher space utilization diagramming, (5) detached open ended narrative (Glickman et al., 2013), (6) cooperative learning performance indicators (Glickman et al., 2013), and (7) P3 Leadership

Connection Asset Observation Toolkit: Observing for Equity.[19] The seven observation tools used in this approximation were introduced to and used by the students in their summer course, "Issues in Teaching and Learning for Education Leaders." As the instructor of that course said, "There is the goal of leaving summer with not only theory, but also tools" (Fieldnotes, 7/25/13). Thus, there seemed to be an assumption on the part of the instructor of the supervision course that students were comfortable using all of the tools.

Students were directed to choose one of the seven tools and use that tool to observe a five-minute elementary school math teaching video. No guidelines were given for tool selection. After viewing the video, the students were given five minutes to "think about where you would take this conversation." With the instructor telling them, "don't rush to judgment, analyze the data" (Fieldnotes, 11/18/13). Students then had six minutes to discuss their observations as a table group. Though the instructor directed the students to concentrate on "key things you saw, not what you'd do" (Fieldnotes, 11/18/13), my observations of the group conversations indicated that students had difficulty staying in description, frequently discussing actions they would take. Following the table discussions, students had two minutes to choose "one concrete thing you'd choose to give feedback to the teacher about" (Fieldnotes, 11/18/13). This entire activity was then repeated with students using a different observation tool.

The third decomposition of practice was formulating and using opening questions in post-observation conferences. This practice was introduced in session eight of the course. When introducing this practice, the instructor told the students, "Once you start

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[19] P3 identifies these seven items as observation tools and instruments, however I would argue that some are tools, while others are practices. The grain sizes of the data collection strategies, in my estimation, appear different.

with 'how do you think that went?' you allow the conversation to go in many directions, rather than the focus you have chosen as high-leverage" (Fieldnotes, 11/18/13). Using the video of elementary math teaching from the observation tools decomposition, the students were directed to determine the coaching stance and opening question that they would use with the teacher in that video. The instructor indicated that the "stance and question should match" (Fieldnotes, 11/18/13). Students were given 10 minutes to brainstorm opening questions individually and share their questions as a table group.

In the following class meeting, students had the opportunity to engage in an approximation of practice that utilized the formulation of an opening question for a post-observation conference. In addition, the approximation required that the students choose a coaching stance for the conference and use an observation tool to collect data. Thus, the approximation brought together three practices in one approximation. In framing this approximation, the instructor told students, "What is the non-negotiable you want to see? This is your opening question" (Fieldnotes, 11/20/13). Students then watched an eight-minute video of ninth-grade English Language Arts teaching as the basis for the approximation. Students were then given 10 minutes to independently complete the post-conference planning guide that they had been given by the instructor. This guide (Appendix J) provided space for the students to record key data observed, select a coaching stance, identify leader behaviors they would like to use, record an opening question, and write a focus area for their own leadership reflection. Students then had time to discuss the contents of their post-conference planning guide with classmates at their table, followed by a "musical chairs" activity in which they shared their guide with multiple partners. These share-outs were then followed by a 20-minute whole class

discussion on the practices. This approximation enabled students to bring together multiple practices in the written planning guide, though there was not an approximation of practice in which they engaged in a role play bringing these practices together.

The fourth decomposition and approximation of practice in the course was having difficult conversations with teachers in the context of post-observation conferences. Before engaging in the approximation, the students listened to a 20-minute representation of practice in the form of audio of a difficult conversation between a teacher and supervisor. In addition, they observed another representation of practice in the form of a panel of school leaders discussing their experiences confronting resistance. Students were also given another representation of practice that would be used in their approximation: the "Four A-Practices Coaching Guide" adapted from work by Enid Lee and the New Teacher Center. This guide outlines four "A-Practices" a "mentor" can use when coaching a teacher: (1) the Awareness Stage, (2) the Action Stage, (3) the Analysis Stage, and (4) the Attitude Change. For each stage, the guide includes a definition of the stage, as well as themes and questions that can be used by the mentor. For example:

> In the ***Awareness Stage***, the mentor helps the teacher have a more complete picture of the issue by:
> **Gathering more information.**
> Invite the teacher to provide more information. Listen, paraphrase, clarify, etc.
> - *Tell me more about this challenge you are having.*
> - *What have you done already? What successes have you had?* (Four A-Practices Coaching Guide, p. 1)

For the approximation, students were grouped in triads composed of a teacher, a school leader, and an observer/note-taker. Each student had the opportunity to play the leader role and approximate the practice of engaging in a difficult conversation with a teacher. The instructor provided four scenarios from which the "teacher" could select. For

two-minutes as the teacher read the selected scenario, the "leader" selected and reviewed one of the "A-Practices" in preparation for the approximation. Each approximations lasted five-minutes, followed by a five-minute debrief.

In addition to the four decompositions and approximations I have described, students also engaged in one approximation of practice at the onset of the course for which there was no corresponding decomposition. In the second session of the class, students engaged in a "feedback pre-assessment." From my observation, the purpose of this approximation appeared to be to serve as a baseline of the students' feedback skills. In the approximation, students worked in pairs, giving each student the opportunity to act as a teacher and as a supervisor. This approximation more closely resembled authentic practice in that the students used their own teaching videos, thereby approximating more realistic reactions to the feedback provided by the "leader" in the role play. Five minutes of teaching were viewed, followed by three minutes of planning time and five minutes of feedback provided by the leader. An overall debrief of five minutes followed both approximations. In addition, students were given 10 minutes to complete a required written reflection on their experiences giving feedback and receiving feedback in the approximations.

Employing a pedagogy of reflection and investigation. In addition to the opportunities to engage in practice that I have described, students also had consistent opportunities to engage in reflection and investigation throughout the school supervision course. I have already described some of these opportunities for reflection, as processing and reflection accompanied all approximations of practice in the course. Pedagogical strategies employing reflection are important because research indicates that "reflective

practice as a constructivist approach can be used effectively to move students in educational leadership along the novice to expert continuum" (Taylor et al., 2009, p. 357). In addition, engaging aspiring school leaders in reflection is consistent with research on adult learners and the ways in which they develop their "knowledge and skills and the development of complex understandings about the effective use of knowledge and skills" (p. 325). As Brown (2004) argues, "The overall purpose of adult development is to realize one's agency through increasingly expanding awareness and critical reflection" (p. 87). By engaging in reflective practice in professional education, the goal is for novice school leaders to begin to integrate reflection-in-action, not just reflection-on-action, into their repertoire of skills (Osterman & Kottkamp, 1993; Schön, 1987). Over time, increasing this ability as their expertise develops.

In this course, every class meeting offered opportunities for student reflection. This included opportunities for reflection-on-action (i.e. reflection on approximations of practice), as well as reflection on more theoretical aspects of supervision and feedback. Reflective questions of this type that were used in the course are outlined in Table 4. These questions were used as "check-ins" or "check-outs" from class or in small table group discussions.

Session 1	• Who are you in your relationships and how does this impact you in teacher supervision?
Session 2	• Where are you stuck in a fixed mindset?
	• What are the most effective ways for principals to use their time to improve instruction?
Session 4	• What are you learning about your experience receiving feedback and its implications on practice?
Session 5	• What does it mean to be an instructional leader?

Session 6	• How does one define "good" clinical supervision? What is the goal of "good" clinical supervision?
	• Who are you as a clinical supervisor?
	• In what ways do you feel like a novice? An expert? Implications for your practice?
Session 10	• How do you define a "healthy" feedback environment?

Table 4. Questions for student reflection

In addition to these questions, time was frequently given for students to debrief learning activities, such as panels, readings, or content shared by the instructor. For these debriefs, there were generally very loose or no framing questions given. However, this time generated reflective small group discussions, often departing from the original focus. For example in the tenth session of the class, students were asked to debrief the panel on walkthroughs that had just occurred using the question, "What questions or thoughts does this panel raise for you?" This generated conversation on what students identified as a problematic dynamic between feedback for improvement and for evaluation. Students expressed a lack of clarity on the distinctions between evaluation, supervision, and coaching, as well as questions on whether a distinction was valuable. As one student commented in the whole class discussion, "It seems taboo for a principal or anyone to give feedback and have a coaching stance mix with evaluative feedback. It makes no sense why you would keep supervisory feedback separate from the coaching feedback role" (Fieldnotes, 12/2/13). This was the only time this important topic was raised, and the students themselves raised it.

Another example, in the ninth class session, followed an approximation of practice in which students formulated opening questions and chose a coaching stance for a post-observation conference based upon an eight-minute video of teaching. In a whole-

class discussion following the approximation, some students expressed concern about making these choices based upon such a small slice of teaching practice. As one student said, "If you only watch 5-10 minutes [of teaching], I'd be worried about entering the conversation without the full picture" (Fieldnotes, 11/20/13). To which another student responded that this made him reflect upon a course reading in which the author, Kim Marshall (2013), argues that the time range after which a classroom observer absorbs nothing more is 7-12 minutes. Another student then commented, "Teachers aren't going to buy into your feedback if you only spend 10 minutes [in a class]. It could cause distress and make sure my feedback wouldn't be received" (Fieldnotes, 11/20/13). A fourth student commented, "I'm also working on holding back judgment. My takeaway from Marshall was thinking about what part of the lesson I'm seeing. If I only see the first five minutes [of class] consistently, then I'm not getting a good sense" (Fieldnotes, 11/20/13). These comments raised meaningful questions about the role of assumptions, judgment, and time when providing teachers with feedback. Further, they highlighted findings from a reading from two weeks prior that had never been discussed in class, but that the students had found interesting. Though these opportunities for reflection and investigation were relatively unstructured, these two examples seem to point to the meaningful learning that can occur when time is spent on pedagogy of this type.

The Assessed Curriculum

In addition to the various ungraded formative assessments I have described that were part of the taught curriculum, the school supervision course also included multiple graded assessments of students' knowledge and skills. Research on leadership preparation programs indicates that good assessments are important for programmatic

and student evaluation (Hess & Kelly, 2007). According to Kochan and Locke (2009):

> Effective students assessments should have a learning-centered focus. The processes and strategies used in assessment should promote high expectations, respect diverse talents and learning styles, promote coherence in learning, synthesize experiences that foster the ongoing practice of skills and abilities, actively involve students in the process, provide prompt feedback, and be part of a larger set of conditions that promote change. (p. 419)

All of the assessments used in the school supervision course were performance measures; none were tests, essays, or other more traditional means of assessment. This is consistent with the learning theory underpinning P3 and the pedagogical strategies used in class. The instructor divided the assessments into three categories: participation (20%), supporting assessments (30%), and major assessments (50%). The syllabus indicates "the participation grade is based on instructor judgment, informed by your self-assessment, regarding: effort, class participation/attendance, and progress on the effective group work rubric" (p. 7). Therefore, I will focus my discussion on describing the supporting assessments and major assessments.

Supporting Assessments. Within the greater category of supporting assessments, there were four measures: (1) reflection on 360° leadership inquiry, (2) target teacher needs analysis, (3) two out-of-area observations, and (4) walkthrough needs analysis. Each task was worth 5-10% of a student's grade for the course. With the exception of the walkthrough needs analysis, which was a small group task, assessments were individual. The reflection on 360° leadership inquiry and target teacher needs analysis were both short written reflections (approximately three pages each). For both of these tasks,

guiding questions and grading rubrics were provided. The two out-of-area observations required that students engage in two complete observation cycles (i.e. pre-observation conference, observation, post-observation conference) with a target teacher in a content area with which the student was unfamiliar. To complete this assessment, each student needed to select a target teacher at his or her work site to observe, making this an authentic, field-based learning activity. The final supporting assessment, the walkthrough needs analysis, was a case study. This was completed in small groups using a variety of instructor-provided data points. Acting as the Instructional Leadership Team, the students were charged with using the data to create a professional development plan for the school. This included allocating coaching and supervision resources related to the district's goal of increasing equitable access to learning.

Major Assessments. There were two major assessments for the course. However, one of the two major assessments, the Mini Leadership Action Research Project, constituted 40% of the final grade for the course. Assessment Center, the other major assessment, only constituted 10% of the final grade.[20] The Mini Leadership Action Research Project ("mini-LARP") mirrored elements of the capstone action research project (LARP) that students would undertake over the course of three semesters in P3. The purposes of the mini-LARP were: (1) to prepare students for the LARP by engaging them in action research and cycles of inquiry, and (2) to provide students an opportunity to apply the coaching and supervision skills from the course in an authentic leadership setting. In addition, the instructor revealed another purpose when she advised the students to "self-design your activities based on your blind spots" (Fieldnotes, 11/19/13). Because

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[20] To my knowledge, this is the only P3 course in which Assessment Center counts toward any of the course grade.

the design of the majority of the assessments gave students latitude in the selection of the teachers with whom they would work for the mini-LARP, for example, the instructor encouraged the students to focus the design of their assessments around weaknesses or areas of professional inexperience they self-identified.

The final assessment of each semester and all courses in P3 is Assessment Center.[21] This is a daylong series of individual and small group authentic performance assessments measuring the development of knowledge and skills taught in all of the cohort's courses for the semester. There were two assessments linked to the school supervision course at Assessment Center in Fall 2013: (1) "scripting and naming" a video of a conference between a teacher and an instructional coach, followed by a discussion of what was observed and then a "facilitated conversation for deeper analysis", and (2) a post-observation conference simulation between a principal and a resistant teacher, followed by a written reflection on this simulation experience. Assessment was based on: (1) the written scripting and naming document, and (2) written reflection on the simulation experience.

For the first assessment, which was called a case study, the identified purpose was for the "principal" to "make some recommendations" about the instructional coach's "strengths and areas for growth" (Assessment Center Instructions, Fall 2013). In other words, students were required to assess and prepare to coach an instructional coach. To do this, each student was required to view a seven-minute video of an instructional conference between a teacher and an instructional coach, verbatim scripting the conference. Students then had 10 minutes to "name" in writing the practices used by the

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[21] Assessment Centers are not unique to P3. Kochan and Locke (2009) and Gagne (1990) document initiatives to implement Assessment Centers in other leadership preparation programs. These include the Assessment Center project created by the National Association of Secondary School Principals in 1975.

instructional coach in the video. Each student then had 10 minutes to talk with a classmate identifying the practices they each named and then "picking a category of conferencing practice that seems particularly relevant for the conference to discuss in more depth the assets and areas for growth you observed" (Assessment Center Instructions, Fall 2013). This was followed by a 10-minute facilitated conversation among a small group of students to talk about "another category of conferencing practice" (Assessment Center Instructions, Fall 2013).

The "categories of conferencing practice" were found in a document given to students on the day of Assessment Center. The categories included were: sequencing, stance, coaching language, feedback[22], and equity discourse. This document had never been used in class, nor were any of the categories familiar to me as an observer of the class, with the exception of stance (referring to coaching stance) and "establishing a focus for the work" which was one of four subcategories under sequencing. On the documents used at Assessment Center, these categories of conferencing practice were identified as categories, strategies, practices, a mental model, and a framework (see Appendix K).

The second assessment at Assessment Center that was related to the school supervision course was an approximation of a post-observation conference between a principal and a resistant teacher. Each student was required to engage in an eight-minute simulation of a post-observation conference in the role of principal, with another student playing the role of the teacher. Three P3 staff members (typically program coaches) observed the approximation of practice, offering oral five-minutes of comments at the

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[22] The points listed under the "Giving Feedback" category were: "focus on observed behavior including teacher practices, student behaviors, teacher student relationships (low inference data); specific; nonjudgmental; positive & encouraging; constructive criticism is rare and diplomatic; evidence of success; clarify ideas; correct misconceptions; collaborative & collegial; information about the gap between actual level of performance and the reference level of performance." See Appendix K for complete document.

conclusion. In addition, the simulation was videotaped so that the student could use the video to complete his or her required written reflection. The course instructor also had access to the videotapes, though these were not used for assessment purposes. The written reflection required students to self-assess, using evidence, their performance based upon 14 items from the P3 leadership rubric. In addition, they were asked to respond to the question, "How will you increase your leadership competencies in your areas of challenge?" (see Appendix K for all rubric criteria in the self-assessment). The rubric items used in this self-assessment were never explicitly identified or discussed in class.

Though I have separated the course assessments, which occurred outside of class, from the pedagogical strategies employed in class, it is important to note that the majority of the assessed curriculum reflects opportunities for practice in the form of approximations of practice. The two out-of-area observations, the mini-LARP, and Assessment Center were all examples of opportunities for students to engage in approximations of feedback practice with teachers. These approximations, while not entirely authentic, required that the students engage in more extended versions of practice, sometimes in more realistic circumstances than the in-class approximations. The exception to this was the "case study" used in Assessment Center in which students assessed and prepared to coach an instructional coach. There was never an approximation of this sort in class, nor was conferencing with a coach ever an area of exploration.

Student Uptake of Feedback Practice: Enactment and Reflection

I now turn my attention to the second portion of this study, focusing on the focal student population from the school supervision course. The research question guiding this

portion of the study asked: What do these future school leaders take up from the learning opportunities about feedback provided in this course, including opportunities for practice? To examine this question, I consider what the focal students took up from the course guided by two data sources—the baseline and post-course approximations of practice and interviews. Each data source revealed different aspects of the focal students' uptake of course learning opportunities. The approximations of practice demonstrated students' uptake as evidenced by practice, while the interviews conveyed students' uptake as evidenced by reflection. My analysis of the data revealed that there was a gap between what the focal students were able to enact in practice as novice feedback givers versus what they were able to express when reflecting on their preparation and practice. My analysis also indicated that there were persistent beliefs and contextual considerations that shaped or may have shaped the students' enactment of and reflection upon feedback practice.

To unpack these findings, I first explore what my analysis of the focal students' enactment of approximations of practice indicated about their uptake regarding feedback practice from the course's learning opportunities. Second, I investigate what the interviews indicated that they took up about feedback from the course. Third, I look at a facet of the students' feedback practice and beliefs that are persistent, but not linked to learning opportunities from the course. Finally, I consider two contextual elements of the focal students' professional experiences that were uncovered in the interviews that have implications for how the field thinks about preparation for feedback practice.

Enactment of Feedback Practice

For this study, the focal students had two opportunities to enact feedback exchanges in approximations of practice. In these approximations, they acted as novice principals who were giving feedback to an experienced teacher with the goal of improving the teacher's instruction. The teaching in the video that was used for the approximations represented "good" teaching, and the teacher was trained to be neither resistant to nor enthusiastic about the feedback. My intention in this choice was to simulate a situation in which they are likely to find themselves in their future roles as school leaders and to allow for a number of directions in which they could take their feedback. Between the baseline and post-course approximations of practice, the students were taught about supervision and feedback practices in their feedback course.

From the two approximations of practice, there was evidence that they only took up one facet of practice from the taught curriculum of the course, which included their course-related opportunities for practice. Their enactment of practice indicated that they narrowed the focus of their feedback after having taken the course. This was something explicitly taught in the course when the students were taught about opening questions and planning for post-observation conferences. The purpose of having a clear opening question, according to the course instructor, was to choose a "non-negotiable that you want to see" (Fieldnotes, 11/20/13) and to "focus on what you have chosen as high-leverage" (Fieldnotes, 11/18/13). They were encouraged to narrow the directions a post-observation conference could take, and retain control of the direction, by using an opening question other than "how do you think that went?" (Fieldnotes, 11/18/13). In an

in-class approximation of practice on that same date, they were directed to "pick one concrete thing that you'd choose to give feedback about" (Fieldnotes, 11/18/13).

In the first approximations of feedback practice of the study, all five of the focal students began in almost exactly the same way. This included thanking the "teacher," Anisah, praising her in some way or expressing how much he or she enjoyed himself while observing, and then asking Anisah how she thought things went in the observed class. An example from Sam's first approximation: "Hi, thanks for having me. It was really fun to watch your lesson. I was jotting down a few notes and coming up with a few ideas, but before I jump into my observations, I'd love to just hear your reflections on how you felt the lesson went today" (11/5/13). A very similar opening from Jorge: "I enjoyed viewing your classroom. It was fun seeing your students be so involved. What went well, do you think, in the class today?" (Approximation, 11/6/13).

This opening format allowed the teacher to immediately engage in self-reflection about how she "thought the lesson went," and it also allowed the teacher the opportunity to select an area of focus for the beginning of the post-observation feedback discussion. Consistently, Anisah responded to this prompt both vaguely and positively. She offered something like the following from Sarah's first approximation, "Um... what went well... I think the startup thing went pretty smoothly. The kids are so great, and everyone just kind of got settled pretty quick. 5 or 6 or 7 kids were interested in throwing out their ideas for the warm up, so I thought they were really engaged right from the beginning" (11/1/13). Anishah's response seemed to prompt the focal students to affirm her positive reflection and to engage with all of the areas cited by Anisah. If the focal student wanted to try to redirect the conversation, they tried asking another question, as Sarah did. Responding to

Anisah's above reflections, she asked, "But what else was good about that lesson for you? (11/1/13). Again, staying in the affirmative.

Following the opening question, my analysis of the first approximation transcripts indicated that the focal students ranged in discussing anywhere between two and seven areas for feedback within the 20-minutes that they had with Anisah. These areas included differentiation, lesson objectives, relevance of the content to students' lives, the degree of rigor, the level of questioning, and, overwhelmingly, student engagement and participation strategies. The feedback was almost exclusively content-neutral and focused on instructional processes, such as student participation strategies. This approach is consistent with research findings on the type of feedback typically given to teachers, which indicate that this approach is low-leverage for improving instruction (Le Fevre & Robinson, 2015; Nelson & Sassi, 2005; Stein & Nelson, 2003). This is something Anisah herself noted in a written reflection following the approximations. She wrote, "I have no idea why in four of the five conversations we spent so much time on the calling-on strategies. I've seen the Popsicle stick strategy before and didn't think much of it, but why were the principals fascinated with this move? I feel like I was missing something that the sticks vs. cold calling conversations took up a lot of time" (2/19/14).

The second round of approximations of practice were conducted approximately two months after the supervision course ended. In these approximations there was evidence that the focal students attempted to enact a skill taught in the supervision course: using a focused opening question to narrow the scope of the feedback. In this second round of enactment, only one student still opened the conversation asking how Anisah how things went, and all but one student narrowed the areas of focus she

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discussed. As an example, Sarah's opening in the second approximation began much more narrowly than in her first approximation. She began with the same thank you and praise format: "Nice to see you again...I appreciate you letting me come in...I just want to say thank you, I really enjoyed myself" (Approximation, 1/23/14). However, in this approximation she then immediately identified a goal for the conversation, stating:

> I wanted to have a goal for our meeting right now and that is just to have a conversation around when to let go of scaffolding for students, and when to put more of the burden on them, and so this is a conversation I'm having with all of the teachers that I am talking to. And it's connected to the idea of students doing deeper learning when they're building on each other's ideas, and really having them interact more versus having so much time in our classrooms be about teacher talk. So that's kind of what I want to think about with you. So does that sound good to you? (Approximation, 1/23/14)

Here, Sarah's opening was immediately focused on scaffolding and student talk, the areas on which she wanted to provide feedback. Sarah's use of a narrower opening to the conversation is representative of the second approximations across the focal students. This demonstrates that the students began to employ opening questions that were more focused and that more clearly identified initial areas of focus; things the instructor told them to do when giving feedback.

However, my analysis of the approximations indicated that the students tended to lose their focus as the conversation progressed, addressing multiple areas that were not outlined at the onset. This resulted in unclear feedback for Anisah. She noted in her written reflection, "I came to appreciate the feedback around how teacher-centered the

instruction was; it seemed developmentally appropriate—and not tinkering at the margins—and signaled ambitious goals for instruction. None of the participants got this point across thoroughly but I saw glimmers of the dynamic" (2/19/14). The "glimmers of the dynamic," she said, placed the burden on her as the teacher to connect the dots. This lack of clarity and directness was a challenge that the participants also focused on in their interviews, which I will discuss next.

Reflections on Feedback Practice

The focal students' two approximations of practice indicated that they only took up one feedback practice from the course, and that this one practice was unrefined. In the post-course interviews, however, all of the students explicitly indicated that they had learned two things in the course: opening questions and coaching stances. Though missing from the enactments in which they engaged, the teachers' interviews indicated that they had taken up more from the course. Further, the interviews indicated a more sophisticated understanding of using opening questions than could be seen in the approximations. Their interviews also conveyed that though they understood the use of opening questions and valued the concept of coaching stances, their naïve understandings and inexperience enacting the practices made them ineffective at employing them. First, I will continue to discuss the practice of using an opening question to narrow focus, and then I will discuss the practice of employing a coaching stance.

Opening questions. In their post-course interviews, all five students in the study indicated that opening questions were something that they had taken up from the supervision course. Jorge stated, "The other big takeaway was kind of thinking of some type of opening question. Which can be the other key besides the stance, I think.

Sometimes it's not, but it's a nice way to guide your thoughts in the specific detail...The

sooner it occurs I think, the clearer it is for the teacher, I'm sure" (Interview, 1/29/14).

Similarly, Alisha stated:

> And maybe one thing that P3 has helped me see is that I don't need to address all
>
> of it in the moment. I look at my notes from last year as director of instruction,
>
> and it was my first time coaching, and I was, whatever, it was my first time
>
> coaching, and my feedback notes, there were a lot of different things, which could
>
> be overwhelming. So now it's kind of like, ok, let's pick this one thing and try this
>
> one strategy and talk about that. (Interview, 2/18/14).

Yet, despite this knowledge, both the evidence from the approximations and the students'

own reflections in the interviews indicated that they did not know how to enact this

practice in a way that was likely to improve teachers' practice. Terese spent a lot of time

in her interview contemplating this issue. She said:

> So the reason I said I sucked so bad was that I was inarticulate, really. I didn't
>
> have the clear or concise thing that I communicated to her...I'm not experienced or
>
> practiced enough to not have what I named be an issue in the moment. So I feel
>
> like I'll be much more comfortable as time goes on, doing that...And I hadn't
>
> prioritized, maybe...What I really want is to just have the thing I want to say, to
>
> talk about with the teacher, and be comfortable entering the conversation, naming
>
> it. (Interview, 1/22/14)

In this passage, Terese names her poor enactment of the practice, her lack of experience

in enacting the practice, her need for more experience doing so, and her desire to enact

this practice well. She went on to say:

...the teacher probably walked away thinking, 'that was a waste of my time. This person doesn't understand fully what I'm doing or why, doesn't fit with what we've agreed to'...So she walked away also probably thinking that I'm, I'm sure I'm approachable, I'm sure I'm reasonable, but 'she didn't know what the hell she was talking about'. Therefore... that's what I don't like... I'm better than when I started in terms of the technical pieces, right, about what considerations go in, what needs to happen, and I am still [something] at the execution, which is what I was so upset about with the... but that's the most important thing. So clearly I could say I had all this really thought out on paper, but if you don't get it to the teacher, then actually it's a fail. So I do, I feel equipped, and I know it's a matter of practice. (Interview, 1/22/14)

Terese expresses that she knows that she wants, and needs, to have a clear area of focus in her observation conferences, but her discomfort with this practice persists in spite of her preparation. Terese indicates here, and elsewhere in her interview, that despite feeling that she gave an unfocused performance in the approximation, getting better at staying focused is a matter of practice. Other focal students also expressed the belief that practice was what would enable them to improve and that they wanted more of it. For me, this raises the question of what models of practice and how much practice should be given in the leadership preparation context so that novices can demonstrate improvement. In addition, it seemed that opening questions, goal-setting, and establishing an area of focus were all used interchangeably by the students under the umbrella term "opening questions." This raises the question of the grain-size of the practices that the students need to learn to effectively engage in feedback. And, further, what level of proficiency

should be demonstrated so that novices are not "practicing on" real teachers and potentially creating the frustrating and ineffective situation Terese describes above.

The practice of using opening questions indicates that there was a gap for these novices between what they could enact in practice and what they identified in reflection-on-practice. As Jim Spillane (2006) argues, it is one thing to know *what* needs to be done as a leader, but it is another thing to know *how* to do it. Le Fevre and Robinson (2015) point out that this is also a gap in the research. They indicate that we know little about the "quality of leaders' instructional knowledge and their capability in employing it for the purpose of improvement" (p. 60). And this gap between knowledge and practice is hugely important for instructional leaders.

Coaching stances. The second element of the taught curriculum of the supervision course that the five students identified as a "takeaway" was the use of coaching stances in giving feedback. Borrowed from the work of Glickman and colleagues (2013), these stances were identified as directive, directive informational, collaborative, and nondirective. A "coaching stance" was never clearly defined in the class and Glickman and colleagues do not use this term in their work. They identify these four things as "supervisory behaviors," each of which are on the "supervisory behavior continuum" as part of "developmental supervision." In addition to these four coaching stances identified by the instructor, there was also a document from the New Teacher Center used in class that identified three "coaching stances": instructive, collaborative, and facilitative.

All of the students indicated that they appreciated thinking about what coaching stance they would like to take before going into a meeting with a teacher. As Sam said:

I think the work on coaching stance is pretty helpful. If you think about what the

coaching stances are, they're all things you naturally do anyway. But before we

looked at those, I never considered a stance before going into a meeting, and I

think that would oftentimes lead to switching, and not having a very defined

position on how I was interacting with a teacher. (Interview, 1/28/14)

Both Sam and Jorge identified switching stances mid-conversation as a negative practice,

though the course instructor, in fact, indicated that it might be necessary. Sam's belief

that switching stances was a "confusing" practice came from his reflection upon his

feedback experience with Anisah in the first approximation. He said that going from what

he identified as collaborative to directive "backfired," so he decided not to do that again.

In this way, practice actually reinforced a misconception for Sam.

Regarding his choice of stances, Sam went on to say, "...if I think I can get there

by asking questions and being collaborative, that's just a much more pleasant route to

take. Because going the directive route is not fun, and it feels bad, and puts you in a bad

mood. So I try not to. But sometimes I feel like it has to happen" (Interview, 1/28/14).

Sam's statement is reflective of the comments of four of the five focal students, all of

whom focused on the dichotomy between collaborative and directive stances when

talking about this topic (the fifth student made no mention of specific stances). This is

interesting for three reasons: (1) there were four stances outlined in the class, not two, yet

the students identified the stances as collaborative and directive, (2) a directive stance

was identified as negative and a collaborative stance was identified as positive, (3)

relatedly, the students appeared to have a fundamental misunderstanding of the purposes

and outcomes of the stances.

Despite naming coaching stances as valuable in their interviews, the students did not accurately identify the stances. This represents what I will call selective taking up from the course. I speculate that this may have happened for a couple of reasons. First, the students may have been confused by having been presented with both the Glickman behaviors and the New Teacher Center's coaching stances, which are not the same. Though the Glickman behaviors were actively used in an in-class approximation, while the New Teacher Center stances were only provided on a handout, this inconsistency might have been impactful. Second, two of the Glickman behaviors are identified as directive. Because this content was not covered in incredible depth, perhaps the students did not gain the facility to understand the stances or distinguish them in their practice. Third, from their usage of the term "collaborative stance" it appears that the students conflated collaborative and nondirective behaviors as one stance. This also seems related to their misunderstanding of the collaborative behaviors identified by Glickman et al. (2013).

In the post-course interviews, the four students who mentioned specific stances all seemed to have a fundamental misunderstanding of what directive and collaborative meant. Directive was at once seen as negative and necessary for reaching the goal that they had identified for the feedback session and the teacher's improvement. This was expressed as a tension for the students. They all conveyed that they wanted to be collaborative; they, like Sam, indicated that that was the good stance to take. However, they seemed to think that this came into conflict with being goal-oriented—one of the other takeaways (albeit conflated with opening questions) of the course.

In Sarah's post-course interview (1/23/14), this conflict between wanting to be a "co-learner" and establish a positive feedback environment, while simultaneously wanting to "push more" and "be more direct" was a prominent theme. For example, she said:

I also know I need to learn to push more...That's something I think I'm still figuring out... So I think it's paying attention and being direct about what the teacher needs. So saying, what do you need to make this happen? What support would you like? And not just giving them as many choices. But give them as much support as I can, and resources, but not just say, what would you like to do, all the time... I am just thinking that teachers do need the support, and they need a clear timeline, and they need a chance to succeed. (Interview, 1/23/14)

With that in mind, she went on to say:

I want to be able to evaluate the teacher and be able to say no, you haven't improved this year on the goals that we set and the goals that I had, so I'm going to need you to go into PAR [Peer Assistance and Review]. I want to be able to be that clear with them, and be transparent. I think that's part of it to, to be transparent about what I expect. I haven't figured it out all the way. (Interview, 1/23/14)

Therefore, though the students identified the stances as a takeaway from the course, their take up was selective and represented a naïve understanding of the concepts and practices. However, what the stances unearthed was a tension for the four students between wanting to be direct, while not being directive. This was a tension that was unresolved for them and one in which they all indicated that they wanted more practice,

though it seemed to be central to their conceptions of what an effective feedback giver does and is.

A Persistent Belief about Feedback: The Importance of Relationships

Next, I turn to a theme about feedback that was found in my analysis of the focal students' interview data: the importance of relationships to the feedback process. This theme was not explicitly part of the taught curriculum of the supervision course, and it was found in both the baseline and post-course-interviews. Therefore, it cannot be identified as a theme that was taken up from the course. However, the prevalence of the students' comments led me to identify relationships as meaningful to the students' understanding of feedback practice. The students' comments referred both to their experience giving feedback in the context of the approximations of practice that were part of the study and to their experiences giving or receiving feedback in their professional lives.

In the first approximations of feedback practice that was part of this study, the focal students had never before met Anisah, the "teacher" with whom they would be engaging in feedback. The second approximation was only their second opportunity to talk with her. Without prompting, all five of the focal students commented in their interviews on this context, the uncomfortable feelings that it created in them, and thus on the need for relationships between feedback givers and receivers.

For Sam, relationships enable a feedback giver to know what to anticipate, and thus what approach to take. In his first interview, Sam compared his experience giving feedback to a stranger in the first approximation with his experience giving feedback to the teachers he coaches at his school. He said that after a couple months working with the

teachers at his school, "I know them fairly well, so I can enter the conversation, at least I think I can enter the conversation where it's going to go in a direction I want it to go, versus I had no idea how she [Anisah] was going to respond to things. So it's just not knowing where she was, and that made it a hard conversation to enter" (11/5/13).

Sam's interview indicated that there was an element of "knowing" the teacher by having a history with them, but also using that history to assess them as both teachers and feedback-receivers. About the teachers he coaches, he said, "I spent the first month giving pretty lowball feedback and trying to figure out, who are my criers, who are my yellers, who are my people who just do whatever I ask of them? And that has really influenced how I interact with people now" (Interview, 11/5/13). The way in which Sam gives feedback to a teacher, then, is shaped by his prior experiences with them. Without this prior knowledge, he said that he did not know what to anticipate from Anisah, particularly in the first approximation. He called her responses "curveballs" with which he didn't know how to engage. Sam's strategy of giving "lowball feedback" as he got to know how the teachers at his school responded to his feedback enabled him, he stated, to minimize the curveballs thrown his way as a feedback giver.

Alisha and Terese discussed the importance of relationships in a different way, indicating that trust would enable them to more effectively "push" teachers' practice. In her post-course interview, Alisha remarked, "I think it's hard to have a coaching conversation with somebody that you don't know...I think having a relationship affords the opportunity to build trust and safety. On both ends. Safety to receive feedback but also the safety and trust to give feedback and to push, and to be able to feel out how you can push and how much" (2/18/14).

Terese's comments echoed Alisha's regarding the use of trusting relationships to push teachers' practice forward. After the first approximation of practice, Terese conveyed that she felt "very uncomfortable" in the feedback exchange. She said that she "reads into facial expressions" and having no relationship with Anisah, and thus no ability to "read her," made her shy away from being direct (Interview, 11/4/13). Instead, she said she decided to pose the majority of her comments to Anisah as wonderings (e.g. "I wondered about," "I wonder how...") rather than direct suggestions for improvement (Approximation, 11/4/13). This, she said, ultimately felt less effective and was a "tension" the entire time (Interview, 11/4/13). She said in her second interview, "to engage in those conversations and actually change practice, there has to be relational trust" (1/22/14).

Jorge and Sarah both focused on the way in which relationships between themselves and teachers were crucial to creating a more positive, collaborative feedback environment. For them, relationships were a means to change teachers' existing, often negative, perceptions of feedback and thus shape the greater feedback environment. Sarah stated:

"... right now there's a culture of punitiveness around the formal evaluations...so it also brings up a lot of negative feelings right now....And also the idea of whoever's evaluating you, is it really a collaborative relationship, trusting relationship, where the goal is really to grow?...I think there has to be kind of a shift in practice and beliefs around the idea of the relationship being collaborative. So that's where you're going to find learning and change for an adult, and

therefore learning and change for students. That right now, that's not the case."

(Interview, 11/1/13)

In his comments, Jorge refers to culture as the biggest challenge to building relationships with teachers, but also relationships as the biggest opportunity to build a positive culture. He said:

...teachers have not practiced in feedback, and because they receive it so little, they see it as something very negative right off the bat. Even if it's good. 'Oh, they came in, they wasted my time... and they didn't even give me any feedback!' And I think right now a lot of teachers are saying, 'I don't want to hear *your* feedback.' Well, whose feedback do you want to listen to?...So I think feedback from anyone you value is really where you can grow the fastest.

(Interview, 11/6/13)

I found it interesting that it was Sarah and Jorge who highlighted the connection between relationships and feedback culture. And, in particular, their desire to change the negative relationships between feedback givers and receivers and the negative feedback cultures at their schools. This piqued my interest because Sarah and Jorge were the only two teachers in the study who worked at large, comprehensive public high schools. Sam and Alisha, who worked at small charter high schools, noted the positive feedback environments at their schools and the expectation that feedback would be constant. Terese, who worked at a small, alternative public high school noted the absence of a feedback culture at her site. No one at her school ever got observed or engaged in discussions about teaching, she commented (Interview, 11/4/13). This finding seems to support some of the anecdotal evidence regarding the feedback environments

(particularly the evaluation environments) at these different types of schools, and it would be an interesting area for further research.

Although everyone noted the importance of relationships to feedback, Alisha and Sam both noted the double-edged sword of relationships—they make hard conversations harder. Because Alisha is a principal, hard conversations for her can include firing someone or putting them on an improvement plan. Despite her earlier statement that feedback-giving would be challenging without a relationship, she remarked, "I think this is where having a stranger come in and assess would be great, because it's, like, people that I love and care about" (Interview 2/18/14). In discussing a relationship with a teacher that he recently put on an improvement plan, Sam highlighted the benefits of being an instructional coach with evaluative "authority," but also noted the negatives. He commented:

> ...Teachers trust us and it doesn't create complications... a caveat to that would be, when things go wrong, it does create complications. Because we had a really great relationship, and she would come to me all the time and trust me with everything, and I'm already starting to sense a drop off in that since our improvement conversations. So I guess that is the downside. (Interview, 11/5/13)

For Sam and Alisha, the only two formal assessors among the focal students, trusting, close relationships with teachers can actually make the feedback dynamic more challenging. This is consistent with research on the interpersonal challenges of instructional leadership, which indicates that principals feel that they can either sacrifice the task of the improvement of teaching and protect the relationship with the teacher, or

vice-versa. Thus, principals commonly avoid having these conversations (Le Fevre & Robinson, 2015).

Related to the importance of relationships, the focal students' interviews also conveyed a desire to use relationships to open up the path to future feedback and, thus, longer-term changes in teachers' practice. In different ways, the focal students referenced one feedback session, particularly the first, as an entry point to others. Reflecting on a suggestion that he gave Anisah in his first approximation of practice, Jorge remarked, "...but I think I brought it up in a way where I can bring it up again. I was testing those waters to see where the conversation went" (Interview, 11/6/13). And, he said, where it could go in the future. After the first approximation of practice with Anisah, Sarah said, "There was more to talk about, which I think is always a good thing, even if you don't have enough time to continue talking, that you walk away feeling like, 'oh, that was really interesting and we're learning together, we're co-learners, and we have more to talk about next time'" (Interview, 11/1/13). Also reflecting on an approximation of practice with Anisah, Sam reflected, "So I definitely didn't think this conversation was hugely impactful and going to change her practice, and I would have loved for it to have gone better than it did, but I think it may have been a foot in the door" (Interview, 1/28/14).

These comments seemed to express a more incremental approach to feedback, with relationships and change being something that would be developed over a long period. As Sam said, "I don't really expect anyone to change their practice based on a twenty minute conversation" (Interview, 1/28/14). However, given the context of school leaders' work and the research pointing to the enormous demands upon their time, one has to question how realistic it is that principals will have the opportunity to engage in

sustained, consistent feedback-giving (and relationship-building) with teachers. This raises questions not only about expectations for principals' work, but about how long instructional improvement should take when students' learning hangs in the balance.

The focal students' emphasis on the importance of relationships in feedback-giving, feedback-receiving, and feedback environments cannot be attributed to instruction from the course, as I saw no evidence of that in the classes I observed or any course-related artifacts. It is possible that they were taught about establishing trusting relationships as a leader in other P3 courses that preceded the supervision courses. However, I cannot be sure, as I only have access to artifacts from those courses. It seemed that their beliefs largely resulted from lived experience as a teacher and, in some cases, feedback giver. Though feedback giver/receiver relationships were not a topic addressed in the supervision course, the students' comments are consistent with research in this area (e.g. Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Le Fevre & Robinson, 2015, Tschannen-Moran, 2014). This research points to feedback practices that could be part of leadership preparation to more adequately build students' skill and knowledge about school leader-teacher relationships. This could be an alternative to students' exclusively basing their relationship-related beliefs and practices on personal experience.

Students' Prior Feedback Experiences

Interviews with the five focal students revealed two additional, contextual elements that I found interesting, albeit unsurprising given the research and anecdotal accounts of teachers' experiences with feedback and preparation for out-of-classroom roles. First, all five students indicated that their own professional experiences with feedback about their teaching were non-existent or, as Sergiovanni (1992) described, a

"non-event." Second, at the time of the study, four out of five focal students were engaged in instructional coaching and/or supervision and evaluation in their current positions, either in a full-time out-of-classroom capacity (e.g. instructional coach) or in addition to their classroom teaching roles (e.g. ELD lead teacher). However, none of these students received training or preparation for these roles, in which feedback-giving was central. I will discuss each of these contextual considerations, as well as some implications of this context for their formal preparation as school leaders.

One of the many impetuses for the current and recent efforts to reform teacher evaluation across that U.S. is that supervision and evaluation structures have historically been ineffective in creating accountability for teachers or for supporting their development (Blase & Blase, 1999; Hill & Grossman, 2013; Weisberg et al., 2009). This problem has been particularly acute in high schools, in which there may be many teachers to supervise and evaluate across multiple content areas in which a supervisor may have little to no expertise (Hallinger, 2005; Marshall, 1996; Stein & Nelson, 2003; Wahlstrom, 2011). These issues, combined with the value historically placed on autonomy in teaching (e.g. Little, 1990; Lortie, 1975), have limited the teacher learning that has occurred as a result of these formal feedback systems.

Lack of feedback-receiving. Given this context, it is unsurprising, then, that my research found that none of the five focal students in this study had received feedback about their teaching that they identified as supporting their professional development. In their baseline interviews, each of the focal students described their professional experiences with feedback, and feelings about the lack of feedback they had received, in various ways:

I haven't had any. Formally, I haven't had any... The first word is cheated, I guess. As a professional and the fact that I haven't had it, it allows for, it has allowed for self-doubt. – Terese

But then I think that every coach that I've had, for the most part, has really struggled to have hard conversations. Because I haven't had a really hard conversation with a supervisor or a coach. And I don't think that's because I'm a stellar teacher... I definitely think that there are areas as a teacher that I could have improved on, but I rarely got feedback about those areas. And I don't know. I think a lot of people really struggle to give hard feedback. – Alisha

I was pretty offended by it, because when you see other people getting observed all the time and having their practice critiqued and commented on and you're not, it definitely makes you feel like your work is less valued. And it is, right? That does mean that your work is less valued, when people aren't coming in. So from a pride standpoint, I was always really pissed off about it. – Sam

I don't have people coming into my classroom and giving me feedback on a professional level, the feedback is from the students and from the parents. That's where I get most of my feedback. And that's how I shape my classroom. And then the principal comes maybe once a year, before, not so much anymore, and they would go over some key things that I did right and well, say, 'you should probably work on this,' and that's about it. – Jorge

I've had not enough feedback, in my experience... Before that at our school, we could choose to do alternative evaluations, which didn't include formal feedback. And in other years, it just wouldn't happen, because APs wouldn't meet deadlines. So that was the first evaluation I've had since, like, ten years. – Sarah

The focal students' references to feeling "cheated," "offended," and "less valued" signal strong feelings about the lack of instructional feedback they have received over the course of their teaching careers.

These comments, which identify either a complete absence of feedback, feedback that was ineffective, or feedback for which they were unaccountable (and thus was ineffective), also point to an interesting apprenticeship of observation in regard to feedback. None of the focal students had models of high-quality feedback about instruction. Feedback, if present, was idiosyncratic and lacking in a "technical culture," to borrow Little's (1990) phrase. As Lampert (2009) points out, "the activity of giving

feedback often references only the idiosyncratic standards of the coach (Deussen, Coskie, Robinson, & Autio, 2007). This infuses the learning of teaching with a personal dynamic resulting in a reluctance of the coach to be critical of the performance of the teacher being coached" (p. 29). Lampert's comments reflect Alisha's experience, in which she never had a "hard conversation" with a coach about how to improve her teaching. For all five students, then, there was an absence of effective models for feedback practice at their work sites.

This leads me to question the ways in which these feedback experiences might need to be unpacked in leadership preparation. For example, what aspects of feedback practice might students have internalized into their own nascent practice? Might the generic and persistent "what went well for you in this lesson?" opening in post-observation conferences be one example of this internalization? Or, perhaps students' struggle with being clear about intended teacher outcomes of feedback conversations might be another manifestation of their apprenticeship of observation. Thus, it is worth considering how students' prior feedback models, or lack of models, might be informing their practice as they enter formal preparation. And, therefore, what instructors and programs might need to do to provide high-quality feedback models that interrupt those experiences.

Lack of preparation for feedback-giving. The second, perhaps also unsurprising, finding related to the focal students' context was their lack of preparation for coaching and supervision responsibilities. Four of the five focal students were engaged in some form of feedback-giving with teachers at the time of the study. Alisha and Sam both had full-time out-of-classroom roles in which they engaged in feedback

with teachers at their site. As a high school principal, Alisha was formally charged with teacher supervision, though her school, a charter, had not yet established a formal evaluation process. Sam's full-time role was as an instructional coach to the teachers at his charter high school site. Because it was a charter, he was also tasked with formal evaluation responsibilities in this role (something that would not have been possible in a traditional California public school). Sarah and Jorge were both classroom teachers, but they also had release time to act, respectively, as the ELD lead teacher and ELD coordinator at their schools. In these capacities, they were tasked with observing and engaging in planning with teachers, providing targeted ELD feedback about those observations and plans.

Though they were tasked with feedback responsibilities, both in formal evaluative and informal feedback capacities, interview findings indicated that none of the four teachers had been prepared or trained for this work prior to starting. Alisha, the principal, indicated that she was "self-taught." She indicated that she "had no coaching around how to be a coach." She said that she coaches the way she was coached. "That's my default," she stated (Interview, 2/18/14). Sam referred to his inexperience multiple times in his interview, highlighting that he was struggling to find footing in his new role. He commented, "And, you know, I've been coaching for three months. I have no idea what I'm doing. I'll preface all of this with that!" (Interview, 11/5/13). When asked about his preparation to be an ELD coach, Jorge indicated that he had, "No preparation." "And it's even tougher," he said, "because I guess I'm not an ELD teacher, so at the same time I'm learning the requirements of an ELD class... I think I'm just lost in my coaching piece right now" (Interview, 11/6/13). For Sarah, the coaching role came not only without

experience or training—she said she relied on "gut intuition"—but also without a sense of what her purpose was as a "coach." She said, "I don't have anybody else deciding what I should be doing during this time. I'm paid for release hours through English Learner money, and I can decide what I'm doing with the time" (Interview, 11/1/13). She continued on to say that the paid coaching role was a point of contention in her school. Not only did she not have clear expectations for how she should use her time with teachers, but there was also conflict about whether she had any authority in her role to hold teachers accountable to her feedback.

The focal students' experiences strike me as pointing to a problematic gap in preparation for individuals in schools who are charged with feedback-giving. When taken in relation with their aforementioned apprenticeships of observation in feedback, this creates a troubling situation. As both receivers and givers of feedback, their experience is idiosyncratic and lacking in a technical culture. This, perhaps, is highlighted by the way in which all four participants refer to themselves as "coaches" in their interviews, though they hold different roles with different responsibilities.

This finding is consistent with extant research about promotion to instructional leadership positions within schools. Within the instructional coaching literature, for example, there is little agreement about what coaches ought to do, how they ought to spend their time, or how they ought to position themselves in their work with teachers (e.g. directive, evaluative, reflective, etc.) (Deussen et al., 2007; Neumerski, 2012; Taylor, 2008). Given the lack of preparation to engage in feedback that was found among the focal students in this study, it should not be surprising that research indicates that

there is a lack of understanding about how instructional coaches improve instruction and what coaching behaviors and strategies are effective (Neumerski, 2012).

Much like I suggest that it might be important to unpack students' past experiences receiving professional feedback, it seems that their experiences as feedback givers might also need unpacking. As students simultaneously learn about feedback as they are enacting the practice professionally, or as they reflect upon prior experience as feedback givers, it might be necessary for preparation programs and instructors to consider this in relation to student learning. Though being an instructional coach, for example, while being in a leadership preparation program might bring many advantages (e.g. applying skills and knowledge in real time), how might this experience also create cognitive dissonance for students as they navigate their work contexts? In teacher education, this phenomenon has been deemed the "wash out" effect (Zeichner & Tabachnik, 1981), and it may also manifest in leadership education. Therefore, It might not only be necessary to consider students' professional history as feedback givers and receivers, but also to consider the context in which they are attempting to apply their new knowledge and skills.

Discussion

This research suggests a number of things about the preparation of school leaders, both aspiring and practicing, so that they can effectively engage in feedback about instruction with teachers. And, thus, so that feedback results in teacher learning and the improvement of instruction, making the time, resources, and energy spent on feedback productive for both teachers and leaders. I confine my discussion of the findings of this study to four areas: (1) examining feedback as a domain of practice composed of

constituent practices, (2) considering how much feedback practice is needed to be a well-started beginning leader, (3) incorporating conceptions of quality into feedback practice and preparation for practice, and (4) theoretically grounding preparation for feedback in the extant research on feedback. In my discussion of each area, I also include implications for practice and possible avenues for further research.

Feedback as a Domain of Practice

In her work on the learning of teaching, among her four conceptions of practice, Magdalene Lampert (2009) considers teaching as a collection of practices. Here, as I have done elsewhere in the study, I apply Lampert's conception to school leadership. As Lampert highlights in her writing, Grossman and colleagues (2009) argue that teacher education should include pedagogies of enactment "organized around a core set of *practices* for teaching that novices are helped to develop during professional education" (p. 274). I contend in this essay that feedback is a "high-leverage" (Sleep et al., 2007) leadership practice; when done well, it gives leaders "a lot of capacity in their work" (Ball et al., 2009, p. 460).

Choosing high-leverage practices, argues Lampert (2009), "raises the question of size: How 'big' is a practice?"(p. 26). On this point, she draws on the work of Boerst and Sleep (2007) who consider a large practice to be a "domain" of practice that is then decomposed into "practices," and then further decomposed into "strategies" and "techniques." Akin to this, in my examination of the taught curriculum of the P3 school supervision course, I used Grossman et al.'s (2009) description of decomposition of practice. Lampert (2009) reasons, "decomposing teaching into component practices at these varying levels is a way to identify and name what new teachers need to be able to

do" (p. 27). Further, decomposition of the work into constituent components allows for it to be learned by novices according to those components before enacting the practice in its entirety (Grossman et al., 2009; Lampert, 2009). "To practice," asserts Lampert (2009), requires "us to specify what 'the something' would be that could be learned by being practiced or repeated" (p. 27).

My analysis of data from the P3 school supervision course indicated that there were some feedback practices, strategies, and techniques taught in the course. The interview data highlight the way in which the focal students took up two of these—opening questions and coaching stances. However, it is unclear to me (and to the focal students) if these were practices, strategies, or techniques. And, moreover, if they were the practices, strategies, or techniques, among others, that aspiring leaders should be learning. Considering opening questions and coaching stances in this way (in addition to various other elements of feedback practice) would be a worthwhile exercise not only analytically, but to inform preparation, practice, and practice in preparation.

Thus, to advance feedback as a high-leverage leadership practice, the decomposition of feedback practice is worthy of further investigation. For example, if feedback is a high-leverage domain of leadership practice, as I argue, what are the component practices, strategies, and techniques that a leader needs to be able to enact to effectively advance teacher learning and instruction? The current school leadership literature does not adequately address this question so as to be an effective guide to preparation and practice. Further research is needed to parse out the constituent feedback practices that could effectively shape a preparation curriculum. Current developments in

practice-based teacher education including, but not limited to, the work of Grossman and Lampert, could be particularly instructive in this regard.

In addition, knowledge of feedback practice found in other bodies of research, including performance management and organizational psychology, could advance school leadership research and practice in this area. For example, research within psychology reviewed by Locke and Latham (2002) indicates that goal-setting is essential to effective feedback. Goals, argue Locke and Latham (1990; 2002), are the mediating variable that explain whether feedback will improve performance. Their research points to the importance of considering the complexity and importance of the goals, the engagement of feedback receivers in the creation of goals for performance to increase goal commitment and self-efficacy, and the role of accountability to the goals for both giver and receiver. This seems to be a useful research base on which to begin to consider goal-setting as a potential practice within the domain of feedback. Building off of Locke and Latham's research (among others), goal-setting could then be examined further to consider the relationship of task complexity, self-efficacy, goal commitment, and accountability, for example, to this practice. Ultimately, then, this knowledge could guide practice in goal-setting for the improvement of teaching as part of leadership preparation.

Considering feedback as a domain of practice composed of practices, strategies, and techniques affords another benefit for school leaders. Currently, preparation for feedback practice seems to be limited to the spheres of teacher supervision and evaluation. Data collected for this study indicate that this is the case in the P3 program; feedback is referred to almost exclusively in the context of post-observation conferences about teaching. However, principals engage in feedback with teachers and other staff

members about a number of other performance-related issues. To highlight just a few examples: principals need to be equipped to have feedback conversations with teachers about their interactions with parents and caregivers; with instructional coaches about their time-use; with administrative assistants about their responsiveness to parents and families; with custodians about the thoroughness of their cleaning of the building; and with lunchroom staff about their promptness. Though these examples are outside the bounds of the improvement of teaching, they are important responsibilities of the principal that are integral to the functioning and relationships of the school as an organization. Thus, by conceiving of feedback as a domain of practice that is cross-cutting and composed of multiple practices, it may open opportunities for school leaders to learn and apply knowledge and skills both in preparation and practice beyond the supervision and evaluation of teaching.

How Much Practice is Adequate

Findings from this study indicate that providing practice opportunities in the supervision course, such as approximations of practice, were not enough to improve feedback practice and graduate school leaders who are well-started beginners. Incorporating more fine-grained practices, strategies, and techniques into leadership preparation would likely be a great leap forward in this effort. However, I leave this study also questioning how many opportunities for practice novices may need, how long practice opportunities may need to be in duration, and how many times they may need to be repeated to improve practice. The obvious answer to these considerations is that they will be variable by student based upon, for example, the skills and knowledge with which they enter their preparation program or their opportunities to practice these skills in their

work setting. Though learning trajectories of individual students are important (and I will consider them in the following section), they alone are not sufficient for the development of a pedagogy of enactment and the design of practice opportunities.

In their post-course interviews, without prompting or direct questioning, all five focal students in this study indicated that they wanted or needed more practice. Arguably, all novices would be inclined to indicate that they would like more practice in a skill that is new to them. However, this finding may also point to a need for more opportunities to practice their new skills, in a more deliberate way, within the low-stakes leadership preparation environment. Investigating the number, type, duration, and repetition of practice opportunities that begin to show improvements in practice among novice leaders would be an interesting avenue for future research. Studying this facet of preparation would be consistent with both Lampert's (2009) and Grossman et al.'s (2009) conceptions of decomposition and Ericsson and colleagues' (1993) work on "deliberate practice" to advance the development of expertise.

Introducing Conceptions of Quality

Integral to the practice frameworks of Lampert (2009), Grossman et al. (2009), and Ericsson et al. (1993) is feedback on practice from a teacher or more knowledgeable other. Because this study investigates feedback practice, I am proposing "feedback on feedback." As assessments of, and opportunities for, professional practice, feedback on practice is a critical component of the practice frameworks that I have used in this research that was missing from the approximations and assessments used in the supervision course.

Analysis of the data from the school supervision course indicates that feedback on feedback was not a part of the course, though opportunities for reflection-on-practice, both written and oral, were consistent. Criteria for what constituted high-quality practice for the approximations and assessments were also absent. Nor did the approximations or assessments provide the opportunity for students to receive feedback from the course instructor about the quality of their performance.[23]

To give feedback on feedback, however, necessitates "conceptions of quality" (Moss, 2011). To consider the addition of conceptions of quality to leadership preparation in feedback practice, I draw on an analytical essay by Pamela Moss (2011), in which she writes:

> I build an argument for adding a fourth key concept to the Grossman et al. (2009) framework—conceptions of quality —which I believe is crucial for understanding a professional teaching practice and for serving their goal of improving practice through instructive comparisons. Conceptions of quality are what educators need to judge whether some instance of practice is more or less mature, sophisticated, or successful, and to offer direction for improvement or development. Conceptions of quality are entailed in articulating learning goals, monitoring progress, giving feedback, and deciding when novices are ready to practice on their own. (p. 2879)

Moss (2011) analyzes conceptions of quality in terms of three dimensions: "the grain size

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[23] Students were provided with five-minutes of oral feedback by observers following the post-observation conference simulation in Assessment Center, however the criteria upon which observers based that feedback was largely disconnected from the taught curriculum of the course. The course instructor did not observe the simulations in Assessment Center and provided no feedback on the quality of practice. She only provided feedback on the students' written reflections. Though multiple assessments were practice-based, none were assessed based on the quality of the students' practice; competent practice (however that would be defined) did not have to be demonstrated to pass the class or graduate from P3.

of practice to which they are applied, the criteria or 'qualities' that are foregrounded," and "the ways in which variations in criteria or qualities—what counts as more or less advances—are represented" (p. 2880). For Moss, the relationship between the learning opportunities and intended learning outcomes then represents a "learning trajectory" for the novice practitioner.

For aspiring school leaders to become skilled givers of feedback that can support teacher learning, preparation programs should develop the learning goals related to the practice(s) and the criteria upon which practice is judged, making both explicit to students. Then, programs should use these goals and criteria to judge performance, provide feedback, and offer opportunities for reflection, support, and repeated practice until the "exit" standard for a well-started beginning leader is met. Again, some of the nascent research and practice in teacher education could be instructive in this regard, as it takes into account the relational nature of the work while also acknowledging the need for standards of quality.

Theoretically Grounding Feedback Practice

Finally, I offer that to improve feedback both in preparation and practice, education researchers, practitioners, and preparation programs could benefit from looking to the extant literature on performance feedback. This includes research in other traditions, such as performance management, organizational psychology, and research within other areas of education, including student assessment and higher education. I draw from the research base found in Chapter 2 of this dissertation and offer that it could be instructive for the directors and instructors of leadership preparation programs as they engage in program and course design and assessment.

I draw from this research because findings from my case study of the P3 supervision course indicate that there was not a clear theory of feedback that underpinned the course or served as a clear guide to practice. My research indicated that the planned and enacted curriculum of the course did not utilize, and in some cases conflicted with, research about effective feedback. "Feedback" served as a catchall in relation to supervision, coaching, evaluation, and instructional leadership; all of which were conceptually entangled[24] and unclear to students, according to my own observations of the course and as demonstrated by student comments in class and the interviews and approximations of practice conducted by the focal students. By utilizing knowledge about feedback from other fields, perhaps the students could more strongly develop their knowledge and skills as feedback givers and receivers. Thereby potentially better equipping them for this challenging work that sits at the core of instructional leadership.

Drawing from the research found in Chapter 2 of this dissertation and building on my discussion in this essay regarding the potential of examining the constituent practices of feedback as a domain of practice, I offer three areas in which research on feedback could inform the curriculum of a leadership preparation course, such as the P3 course I observed. These include: understanding the psychological dimensions of feedback giving and receiving; establishing and clarifying the purpose(s) of feedback; and developing and supporting feedback relationships. This is not an exhaustive examination of the ways in which feedback research could inform course design and practice, but it is a reflection of a few of the most salient findings from this case study to demonstrate the potential value of extant feedback research. First, I will discuss ways in which more recent developments

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[24] I would argue that this conceptual imprecision is present in the literatures of these areas as well (see also Neumerski, 2013).

in feedback theory could be used to ground a school supervision course theoretically. Second, I will discuss ways in which research on the four facets of feedback I have outlined could contribute to aspiring leaders' understanding of and skill engaging in feedback practice.

Grounding teaching and practice in feedback theory. Both misconceptions and underconceptualizations about performance feedback abound (e.g. Molloy & Boud, 2013), and both could be found in the P3 school supervision course. Because "feedback" is used in an imprecise way in everyday speech and practice (Sutton, Hornsey, & Douglas, 2012), it is not altogether surprising that feedback was undefined and served as a catchall in the course. In one class session, for example, the instructor stated that there is an "interchangeable use of coaching and clinical supervision, meaning giving pedagogical feedback to teachers" (Fieldnotes, 11/4/13). This statement was not unpacked further, pointing to both a lack of clarity about coaching and supervision and to an assumption about what "pedagogical feedback" means. Though students and the instructor used feedback as a term incessantly in the class (e.g. in whole class and small group discussions, in directions for activities), it was not clear what was meant by the term or if there was a shared understanding among students and the teacher about what "feedback" meant. The use of the term feedback did reveal some assertions, however, about the role of the school leader in "giving" feedback to teachers. These assertions revealed misconceptions highlighted in feedback research about what feedback is and how it is both given and received.

To unpack these terms and assertions, there is considerable research that has developed over the last thirty years that could ground the school supervision course more

firmly in a theoretical understanding of feedback that could then inform students'

practice. Increasingly, feedback research comes out of the constructivist tradition and

acknowledges the centrality of the learner and the role of the learner's active meaning-

making in the feedback process (e.g. Kluger & Nir, 2006; Stone & Heen, 2014).

However, this research on feedback has largely not found its way into school leadership

research or practice. In this tradition, it is not enough to "give" a teacher feedback and

expect a change in performance that is responsive to that feedback. As Hattie &

Timperley (2007) note in their comprehensive meta-analysis of feedback research,

"...because feedback can be accepted, modified, or rejected [by the learner], feedback

itself may not have the power to initiate action" (p. 82; see also London & Smither,

1995). Thus, the connection between feedback and change can be "strong and direct or

weak and indirect" (Leary & Terry, 2012, p. 16).

This conception of feedback challenges persistent beliefs and earlier theoretical

traditions (i.e. behaviorism) that assert that the giving of feedback will result in improved

performance (e.g. Thurlings et al., 2013). Instead, more recent advances in feedback

research point to the dialogic and interactive nature of feedback giving and receiving, the

psychological responses and defenses that feedback creates, and the context necessary for

feedback to be effective. As Boud & Molloy (2013) argue in their work on higher and

professional education, "feedback constitutes a set of practices, framed by purposeful and

dual intentions (to improve immediate work and future work), nestled within conditions

favorable for uptake and use" (p. 5). And, as Carless (2013) claims, feedback is dialogic.

Dialogic feedback conversations are "interactive exchanges in which interpretations are

shared, meanings negotiated and expectations clarified" (Carless, 2013, p. 90). Feedback

defined in this way involves the building of trusting relationships and consistent opportunities for interaction about learning and quality for all members of the feedback environment (Carless, 2006, 2013; Yang & Carless, 2013). This theoretical basis could be used to inform the ways in which aspiring leaders, such as the P3 students, begin to think of themselves as leaders of instruction working with teachers to advance teaching practice. Reflecting upon the focal students' identification of coaching stances as a course takeaway, for example, and their focus on the dichotomy between collaborative and directive stances, points to one of many ways in which research could support their understanding of feedback.

Three facets of the domain of feedback practice. Using this theory of feedback as interactive, complex, dialogic, and contextualized, I will highlight three areas in which feedback research could be integrated into a course such as the P3 supervision course. As I have noted, this is not an exhaustive exploration of feedback research and practice, but rather a preliminary look at some of the salient themes from the P3 course. Further, to be effective guides for practice, additional work needs to be done to unpack the appropriate grain size of these as potential feedback practices, strategies, and techniques (Boerst & Sleep, 2007; Moss, 2011).

The psychological dimensions of feedback giving and receiving. Psychological research indicates that feedback triggers psychological anticipation and responses, often negative, in both givers and receivers. Research on feedback receivers is overwhelmingly clear—they are primarily motivated by the protection of ego (e.g. Kluger & Nir, 2006; London & Smither, 2002; Sherman & Cohen, 2006). Although the feedback giver's primary aim is to change behavior, the feedback receiver's primary aim is to protect their

self-esteem, self-worth, and identity in a feedback exchange (Hepper & Sedikides, 2012; Leary & Terry, 2012). Despite often being in positions of hierarchical power, feedback givers also experience stress and anxiety surrounding feedback, including fears about their competence and concerns about their identity (Yariv, 2006). Feedback, Gilbert, Pinel, Wilson, Blumberg, and Witley (1998) claim, triggers both the giver's and receiver's "psychological immune system." When under threat—real or perceived—givers and receivers respond so as to protect their ego, restore a sense of security, minimize uncertainty, and manage others' impressions of them (Kluger & Nir, 2006; Sherman & Cohen, 2006).

Though this is a brief overview of a much larger body of research on the psychological impacts of both feedback giving and receiving, this research sheds light on the ways in which both school leaders and teachers are likely to experience feedback exchanges. An understanding of this research could be helpful for aspiring school leaders as they begin to grapple with their own identities and anxieties as feedback givers. In addition, it could be used to provide aspiring leaders with a greater understanding of the ways in which teachers are likely to receive their feedback, how they can more effectively anticipate teacher responses, and support teachers effectively through the challenges of engaging in feedback.

In the P3 course specifically, I saw some of these psychological dimensions come to light in small group discussions and in the focal students' interviews. However, they were not systematically unpacked in class so as to be deliberate learning opportunities for the students. For example in the focal student interviews, all of the students expressed their own insecurities regarding their inexperience as feedback givers. During reflections

on in-class approximations of practice, I also heard students commenting on how giving feedback created anxiety for them, even in the safe environment of a cohort of peers. Research (e.g. Kluger & Nir, 2006; Sherman & Cohen, 2006) indicates that these are completely normal responses to the process, yet the research was not used in class to help shape the students' thinking about their anxieties and identities as both feedback givers and receivers, or to provide them with strategies to deal with these concerns. This seems to be a missed opportunity given the pressure upon leaders to maintain a veneer of competence and certitude even in the face of fear, inexperience, or challenge.

Likewise, research about the psychological dimensions of feedback receiving was not used to inform the students' thinking about working with teachers. A teacher's response to feedback is informed by a number of factors including their feelings of self-efficacy, feedback orientation, sense of identity, and relationship with the giver and others (e.g. London & Smither, 2002; Piff & Mendoza-Denton, 2012; Stone & Heen, 2014). This indicates that a leader can support a teacher in his or her development as a feedback receiver and in the development of their relationship. It is also means that there are factors at play in the feedback process beyond just the content and quality of the feedback that is being given; something that is important for novice leaders to understand.

One way that this manifested itself in course activities was during an in-class representation and approximation of practice and discussion about working with "resistant" teachers.[25] Comments from the students indicated that working with resistant teachers was something they feared, felt ill-prepared for, and wanted to avoid, but anticipated. From conversation in the room, there was a sense that every school has its

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[25] The approximation of practice used in Assessment Center also described the teacher as "resistant."

share of these "resistant" teachers and that they were a source of headaches for principals. The students seemed to bring considerable deficit thinking regarding teachers to the table in this discussion. Yet, they were not challenged to examine the research on the psychological roots of resistance and how defensiveness and self-protection, for example, are completely natural responses to feedback (Sherman & Cohen, 2006). Also, the conversation did not encourage the students to examine the ways in which researchers argue that it is a positive managerial behavior to view resistance and/or differences as something valuable, rather than as something to be overcome (Tourish & Tourish, 2012; Ashford, 2003). Again, this was an opportunity for the psychological research to inform the students' knowledge and skills.

__Establishing and clarifying the purpose(s) of feedback.__ Research indicates that feedback has two primary purposes: administrative and developmental (Farr et al., 2012). The administrative purpose of feedback is to communicate the rationale for administrative actions and decisions. For example, relaying to an employee the relationship between his or her performance and a promotion decision. Feedback with a developmental purpose aims to enhance the receiver's skills and competencies in order to achieve improvement (Farr et al., 2012). Both of these purposes can be effectively achieved in a feedback exchange "if the feedback messages and system are well-designed," argue Farr and colleagues (2012, p. 204; see also Rynes, Gerhart, & Parks, 2005). In a study of teachers, Kimball (2003) found that most teachers did not believe there was a conflict between accountability and growth. And, further, that it was appropriate for evaluations to encompass both. In their research, Stone and Heen (2014) indicate that the nature of feedback discussions (i.e. personal, involving self-concept and

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self-esteem) makes it challenging for feedback receivers to focus on how to improve until they know where they stand. Thus, it is important for feedback givers to first establish any evaluative aims or outcomes before discussing development. Otherwise, the concern is that feedback receivers will be distracted but not knowing the assessment or hear coaching as evaluation, for example (Stone & Heen, 2014).

In light of recent reforms to teacher evaluation across the country that aim to serve both of these purposes (Kane, McCaffrey, Miller, & Staiger, 2013; Minnici, 2014), principals need to be equipped to navigate the complexity of both supervising and evaluating teachers in a more rigorous way and engage in both types of feedback with teachers. As students in the supervision course noted, this course was focused upon school supervision and separated from discussions about evaluation, which some students conveyed was confusing or illogical. As one student commented, "It seems taboo for a principal or anyone to give feedback and have a coaching stance mix with evaluative feedback. It makes no sense why you would keep supervisory feedback separate from the coaching feedback role" (Fieldnotes, 12/2/13). Given the evolving roles of school leaders and the research base on feedback, this raises questions about the separation of supervision and evaluation coursework, for example, and aspiring leaders' understanding of how to effectively act as both an evaluator and clinical supervisor.

Studies indicate that it is important for the feedback giver to be deliberate in his or her identification of the purpose(s) of the feedback exchange, orient the feedback receiver to the purpose of the feedback, and discuss that purpose jointly with the receiver (Molloy, Borrell-Carrió, & Epstein, 2013; Stone & Heen, 2014). Stone and Heen (2014) call this "getting aligned." This, they claim, provides an opportunity to explicitly discuss the

purpose of the feedback and what would be most helpful to both parties. In addition, their research indicates that it is important for both the giver and receiver to check in throughout the feedback discussion in order to stay focused on the purpose discussed at the onset. This prevents the conversation from veering into other types of feedback, offering the opportunity to remain focused during what is likely limited time.

An area of practice highlighted in the P3 supervision course, and one that was identified by the focal students as a "takeaway" was the use of intentional opening questions in post-observation conferences with teachers. According to the course instructor, the opening question should reflect "the non-negotiable you want to see" as the leader (Fieldnotes, 11/20/13). Thus, the opening question could be used to narrow the scope of the conversation and focus on what the leader deemed as high-leverage in improving the teacher's instruction.

The focus in the supervision course on the use of an opening question was a promising start for establishing an aim for the feedback conversation. And it was one that the students assessed as valuable to advancing their practice, despite their lack of understanding about what a high-leverage question might sound like. However, an effective opening question does not establish clarity regarding the administrative and/or developmental purposes of the feedback. Nor does it give the leader and teacher an opportunity to discuss the purpose. Instead, the use of an opening question seems to be the second stage following the initial purpose-setting called for by feedback researchers; not the first, as indicated by course instruction. Alternatively, a pre-observation conference could be an effective forum for defining the purpose(s) and getting aligned, with the opportunity to revisit the purpose at the onset and midpoint of the post-

observation feedback conversation. However, purpose was never explicitly discussed in the course in relation to accountability and development or as explicitly related to the opening question or pre-observation conference. By integrating instruction and practice in this area, aspiring leaders may be more clear about what their purpose in fact is and more equipped to communicate this purpose in discussion with teachers.

Developing and supporting feedback relationships. In my analysis of the focal students' interview data in this study, a key theme was the importance of relationships to the feedback process. Though not part of the taught curriculum of the supervision course, the prevalence of the focal students' comments about relationships with teachers indicated that this was a meaningful aspect of their understanding of, and experience with, feedback practice. This included focal students' beliefs that trust with teachers would enable them to more effectively "push" teachers' practice or that relationships could positively shift the greater feedback culture of the school. In addition, the students identified that the approximation, due its simulated nature, was missing the contextual and relational features that would make them more comfortable and more effective as feedback givers. The students' identification of the importance of relationships to the effectiveness of feedback is consistent with findings in both the feedback and school leadership research (e.g. Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Le Fevre & Robinson, 2015; Tschannen-Moran, 2014). This suggests an opportunity for the more explicit inclusion of this research in the supervision course.

Leary and Terry (2012) assert, "the interpersonal context has a powerful effect on how people respond to feedback...how people deal with a particular piece of evaluative feedback often depends as much on who gives the feedback and how it delivered as on

the content of the evaluation" (p. 19). Thus, it is imperative that the feedback giver be intentional and proactive about nurturing the relationship, particularly the relational trust, between him or herself and the receiver (Bryk & Schneider, 2002; Tschannen-Moran, 2014). Because of the likelihood that feedback exchanges will take place in uneven relationships of power, and because of the behaviorist roots of feedback, there is a tendency for both givers and receivers to defer to authority and rely on the more experienced person telling the less experienced person what to do better (Molloy & Boud, 2013a). This tendency, however, does little to nurture a structure that empowers employees as learners, nor to increase honest, two-way communication between feedback givers and receivers (Tourish & Tourish, 2012). Hallinger (2010) contends that leadership should be seen as a "*mutual influence process*, rather than as a one-way process in which leaders influence others" (p. 346).

Additionally, leaders must acknowledge that there are other sources of feedback influencing both teachers and themselves. As Jorge noted in his interview, "the feedback is from the students and from the parents. That's where I get most of my feedback. And that's how I shape my classroom" (Interview, 11/6/13). This, he indicated, was largely because of an absence of feedback from his school principal. However, teachers' reliance on feedback from people other than the school leader could be for a variety of reasons, including teacher perceptions of the leader as not knowledgeable or helpful or their belief in the value of seeking feedback from a diverse variety of stakeholders.

This points to how the feedback environment of a school as a workplace and context for adult learning is deeply related to the relationship between giver and receiver; they are mutually reinforcing, multifaceted constructs. Schools are complex and

interdependent organization, argue Tschannen-Moran and Gareis (2015). Thus, trust is critical to the development of a positive feedback culture and reflective practice (see also Price, 2012). As Osterman and Kottkamp's (1993) research revealed, "Reflective practice *can* take place anywhere, but, to thrive, it requires a nurturing environment, an environment characterized by openness and trust" (p. 44). This includes not only trust between school leaders and teachers, but trust between all members of the organization. Consistent with these findings, in this study, two of the focal students explicitly identified relationships between leaders and teachers as a means to change teachers' existing, often negative, perceptions of feedback. And, through these relationships, they sought to shape the greater feedback environment.

Crafting a positive feedback environment and cultivating positive relationships are time-intensive, complex, and lengthy work for school leaders. However, they are crucial to the effectiveness of feedback that will promote improvements in teaching (e.g. Leary & Terry, 2012), as well as a number of other related positive impacts for teachers and students (e.g. Drago-Severson, 2012; Price, 2012). The conceptual framework offered in the school supervision course syllabus acknowledges this complexity. However, a comparison of the enacted curriculum of the course and the conceptual framework found in the syllabus suggests that perhaps the conceptual framework guided the previous course, "Schools as Organizations," but not the school supervision course. Because positive relationships and feedback environments are central to the work of instructional leaders, it is important for leadership preparation courses, such as the P3 supervision course, to have a clear conceptual framework that leverages existing theory and research on feedback relationships and environments. In addition, and importantly, it

is necessary for further research to be done on the leadership practices and learning

opportunities that support the development of rich feedback relationships and

environments for adults in school workplaces.

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CHAPTER IV

CONCLUSION

The two essays in this dissertation each sought to contribute to the growing body of research on the relationship between teacher learning, school leadership, and the improvement of instruction. Feedback as a concept and domain of practice was central to each of these investigations. Together, it is hoped that these essays shed light on the complexities of giving and receiving feedback, cultivating feedback relationships and environments that support professional learning, and learning to give and receive feedback through practice. Though the findings of these studies indicate that much remains to be learned about feedback (as it has not been sufficiently conceptualized in the literature of any field to be a thorough guide to effective feedback practices [Boud & Molloy, 2013; Sutton et al., 2012]), the studies in this dissertation also indicate that there is a research base that can inform the knowledge and skills required to operationalize feedback for teacher learning.

In the first essay, "Conceptualizing Feedback For Teacher Learning," I drew from the literature in the fields of education, performance management, and organizational psychology to further conceptualize feedback to advance teacher learning. This literature was then used to craft the feedback as interaction conceptual framework. The framework highlights the interactive, dialogic, situated, and complex nature of feedback and

feedback practice. It also contributes to much-needed theory, research, and practice in the overlapping areas of teacher learning and school leadership.

Examining the existing feedback research generated many findings that are informative for school leadership research, preparation, and practice alike. This raises questions as to why this research base has not previously informed research in school leadership or teacher education. It is possible that findings from these other traditions have not found their way into school leadership and teacher education practice and research due to the ways in which bodies of research evolve separately, with researchers isolated within their own domains. Some of the more recent feedback research comes out of the United Kingdom and Australia, so perhaps the lack of connections internationally has contributed to this gap as well. It is also possible that this research has not been mined because of the paucity of research on school leadership research altogether, with only relatively recent focus on the school leader's work as a leader of instruction; particularly the novelty of school leadership that focuses leaders' work so closely on teaching practice.

Reaching across the boundaries of separate research traditions also raises the question of the applicability of the research of one field to the context of another. Though there are negative impacts of the disciplinary boundaries that separate fields, there are also differences in context that require distinctions. However, the literature on feedback used in this study indicated that the work or challenges of school leaders regarding feedback were not particularly different from the work of other managers and leaders.

Likewise, research drawn from performance management and organizational psychology indicated the anxieties and concerns of teachers in feedback situations are not

so different from employees in other professions. The greatest distinction, perhaps, is the quantity and sources of feedback that teachers and school leaders receive in comparison to other employees and leaders. Teachers, like other employees, often feel that they are in a "feedback vacuum" (Ashford et al., 2003). That is, they do not believe that they receive enough feedback from supervisors to effectively support them or improve their work. However, due to the sheer number of stakeholders in education, teachers receive continuous feedback from what can amount to more than 100 students at the high school level, as well as from parents and other stakeholders. This amount of feedback is both a resource and challenge not likely to be faced in other professions.

Even within fields of research, there are boundaries that can impede learning. In education, for example, Muijs and colleagues (2014) assert, "understandings about processes and conditions that promote student learning are typically not used to construct appropriate learning environments for their teachers" (p. 246). This is in spite of a developing body of evidence indicating that these conditions have a lot in common (e.g. Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000). With this in mind, however, it does not mean that research about the potential differences between the contexts or learners is not of value. In the case of student learning and teacher learning, there may be important differences between the learning of children and adults that are worthy of investigation.

In the second essay in this dissertation, "Feedback: Preparation And Practice For School Leaders," I examined how students in the P3 program were prepared to engage in feedback with teachers to improve teaching practice. The aim of this study was to investigate how school leaders in one preparation program were prepared for "learning-focused leadership" (Knapp, Mkhwanazi, & Portin, 2012), thereby responding to calls in

the school leadership literature to open up the "black box" of leadership preparation (Darling-Hammond et al., 2010; Hess & Kelly, 2007). The findings of this study confirmed existing research indicating that there is a disconnect between the call for principals to serve as instructional leaders, closely focused on the improvement of teaching, and preparation programs' ability to meet this call (Brazer & Bauer, 2013).

To improve the quality of aspiring school leaders' preparation for feedback practice, the findings of this case study suggest: (1) examining feedback as a domain of practice composed of constituent practices, (2) considering how much feedback practice is needed to be a well-started beginning leader, (3) incorporating conceptions of quality into feedback practice and preparation for practice, and (4) theoretically grounding preparation for feedback in the extant research on feedback. Each of these is a large area in need of further investigation and research.

Therefore, a next step in this area of inquiry would be to engage in practice-based research in the leadership preparation setting. This research could assess the effectiveness of various course designs, learning opportunities, and assessments in advancing aspiring leaders' knowledge, skills, and dispositions in the domain of feedback practice. This includes continuing to examine the "black box" of leadership preparation through studies of coursework related to feedback. Future research could also unpack the domain of feedback practice to inform practice opportunities in school leadership preparation and support. This includes examining how leadership preparation programs and principal supervisors can effectively assess school leaders' ability to engage in feedback with teachers. Additionally, researchers in the fields of teacher education and school leadership could take up investigations about feedback unique to these contexts and their

demands. This includes examining potential differences in feedback giving and receiving between teachers as adult learners and professionals and K-12 student learners, as well as the potential differences in cultivating feedback-rich environments in schools as opposed to other workplaces.

Each of the essays in this dissertation points to the way in which feedback research has developed in recent decades, particularly in the last few years. Yet, these studies also highlight the way in which there is considerably more research to be done to advance both feedback theory and practice, and the translation of research into effective practice. If feedback is to be realized as a high-leverage practice that can powerfully advance teaching and learning for principals, teachers, and students alike, education studies should draw on feedback research in other fields of study. Further, researchers of school leadership and teacher learning should continue to explore the ways in which the contexts of schools as learning environments for adults affect the feedback process, perhaps making feedback in schools similar to or different from other workplaces.

Appendix A
School Supervision Course Syllabus, Fall 2013

University of ███████████
Principal Preparation Program
Fall, 2013

Education 262B
School Supervision: Fostering Teacher Learning

"The adventures first… explanations take such a dreadful time."
Lewis Carroll, Alice's Adventures in Wonderland

Instructor
████████ (M.A., M.Ed.)
████████████████

Office Hours
Happily, By Appointment

Course Overview
Effective school leaders view teaching and learning as the fulcrum for substantive school change. They convey a belief in "leadership for learning", ensuring that the entire school organization and all of its participants and structures focus on student outcomes first and foremost (Waters & Grubb, 2004; Du Four, 2002). Yet, teaching and learning operate within the context of a particular organization and its community, a school district or governing body, and a policy and political environment – all of which influence the actionable space of those intent on bringing about change (Grubb and Tredway, 2010; Fullan, 1993,2001,2007; McDonald, 1996; Oakes & Rogers, 2006; Ogawa & Bossert, 2000; Schmoker, 1999,2004,2005). The successful school leader understands these contexts and brings adults together cohesively for the benefit of children and youth (Elmore, 1999).

To do so, leaders must develop and practice intentional instructional leadership and hold its priority as primary. To this end, this course will focus largely on effective teacher supervision capable of moving practices forward, and on the relationships among leader and teachers, leader and community and leader to self that enable and sustain this work.

Education 262B is thematically integrated with and extends the concepts introduced in Education 262F – Schools as Organizations. The course widens concepts and embeds them within a leader's actionable space, with a focus on teacher learning, coaching and supervision, emphasizing [distributed] leadership as a key catalyst for growth.

Conceptual Framework

Our work this fall builds on the summer focus, "the socially just school," and further develops a conceptual framework for school change begun in the 262F, Schools as Organizations, course earlier this term. The course will focus on the knowledge, methods and habits of mind leaders access to build professional capacity in the context of relational trust (see figure).
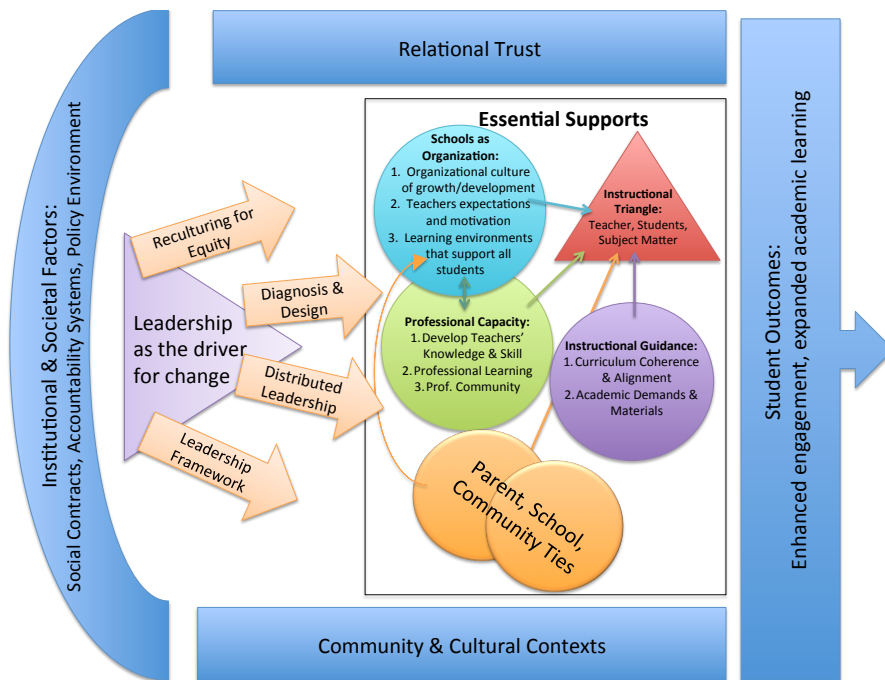
How Schools Improve Conceptual Framework, Adapted from Bryk, Sebring, Allensworth, Luppescu, & Easton, 2010, as well as other sources cited below.

The conceptual framework proceeds from conclusions drawn from the research literature:

1. Improving instruction is the most important aspect of improving schools (A. S. Bryk, Sebring, Allensworth, Luppescu, & Easton, 2010; Center for the Future of Teaching and Learning, 2011), and that a leader's most important work is creating the **organizational, cultural, and developmental** conditions that foster continuously improving instruction (Center for the Future of Teaching and Learning, 2011).
2. Leaders support improved instruction primarily by fostering certain essential supports, including: organizational factors, professional capacity building, instructional guidance, and parent, school and community ties (A. S. Bryk, et al., 2010).
3. Leaders' tools for fostering these components are:
   a. "Re-culturing" – changing the technical culture, professional norms, and organizational structures (McLaughlin & Talbert, 2006) – towards more equitable practices;
   b. Diagnosing the actual causes and obstacles to school improvement, and designing and evaluating responses (J. Spillane & Coldren, 2011) based on a deep knowledge of how schools work; and
   c. Distributing leadership to deepen institutional sustainability of change efforts (J. P. Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2001).
   d. Developing the skills, knowledge, and approaches described in the PLI Leadership Rubric.
4. The leader can be a catalyst for and drive change, but improvement depends on all the adults that engage within the organization. This requires leaders have a developmental perspective (Glickman, 2002), and foster relational trust (A. Bryk & Schneider, 2003).
5. Schools with leaders who create the essential supports and foster change can improve student outcomes (A. S. Bryk, et al., 2010), however, improved student outcomes unfold in a context of institutional and systemic issues, including the social contracts that systematically advantage some groups over others (Mills, 1997); the external accountability system that excerpts pressures and controls on schools (Mintrop, 2004); and the state and federal policy environment (Elmore, 2004).

Guiding Questions
- What is my actionable space for teacher development (both in my current role, and as a principal)?
- How do I use tools for teacher development: fostering professional community, working directly with teachers, facilitating groups of teachers, leading learning initiatives, and evaluating teachers; as tools for teacher development and school improvement?
- How does an effective school interact with and respond to schools as complex organizations (with distinct cultures, micro-politics, trust relationships, structures, and systemic situatedness) in support of a larger vision?

Expectations
As we work through complex and sometimes difficult material, challenging each others' thinking and skills, the expectations of the P3 for both instructors and students need to be consistently aspired to:
- Be present and engaged as much as possible
   o Manage and balance presence as well as self-care for maximum engagement.

- o Limit cell phone and social media use to breaks and emergencies.
- o Be mindful of how your laptop and phone support or distract from your engagement.
- Provide supportive space for everyone to learn
  - o Foster both personal growth and the growth of the cohort.
  - o Allow for risk taking and mistakes. Use PLI as a practice space
  - o Provide honest and appropriate feedback.
- Assume everyone has something to contribute
  - o Diverse perspectives enhance learning.
  - o When something is shared, ask questions before making judgments.
- Use your studentship as an opportunity for leadership
  - o PLI is about growing your leadership stance. Practice it through your studentship.
  - o Take responsibility and initiative to solve problems and answer questions.
  - o Communicate in a timely fashion with professors and staff.
- When conflicts arise, attempt to resolve them directly with the person/s involved
  - o Attempt to resolve the conflict before seeking the help of others.
  - o Seek thought partners only if you need support planning the resolution of the conflict.

Finally, there are a few remaining expectations that I wish to add:

- Graduate Level Academic Discourse: This course includes significant opportunities for you to work in groups and independently to internalize, apply, analyze, and/or synthesize materials. Group and whole class discussions, as well as various forms of reflection, will typically (but not always) be accompanied by protocols designed to guide conversations and thinking towards the intended learning objective. It is your responsibility to take advantage of these opportunities and use them to deepen your thinking, challenge your assumptions, and practice your "scholar practitioner" skills.
- Group Work: Group work is an important part of the P3 curriculum as it simulates dilemmas and dynamics that occur in the workplace and provides a structured environment for leadership development. Based on the Leadership Connection for Justice in Education rubric, you will need to practice the following in your work with colleagues:
  - o **Resiliency -**Exhibit resiliency, maintaining mental focus, energy and optimism in the face of challenges (1.1 Professional Imprint).
  - o **Reframing -** Display a positive attitude in service of accomplishing substantive Outcomes; Examine discourse patterns and identify appropriate and non-reactive responses to challenges (1.2 Flexibility).
  - o **Buffering -** Practice an optimizing non-blaming discourse/approach; Maintain focus on important work (1.2 Flexibility).
  - o **Brokering -** Identify and analyze personal areas of strength and learning as well as individual contributions and needs; Assess for micropolitical dimensions and be able to identify productive areas for working with people (1.2 Flexibility).

- **Emotional Acuity -** Identify and analyze emotional contributions to the social dynamic, including responses to successes, achievements, mistakes, disappointment, and setbacks; Identify and analyze others' responses to you (1.3 Demeanor).
- **Cultural Consonance -** Use culturally responsive nonverbal and verbal choices, including all dimensions of cultural knowledge; Demonstrate the ability to adjust to different cultural norms within the group (1.3 Demeanor).
- **Stance and Tone -** Choose and practice effective use of personal assets in formal and informal communication; Exhibit an ability to accept feedback and alter actions (1.3 Demeanor).
- **Discernment and Action -** Identify when discretion should be used about what to share in order to achieve desired outcome; Reflect carefully before acting precipitously; Articulate a willingness to hear other perspectives, change, and engage others (2.2 Integrity).
- **Decision Making -** Enunciate the processes of making decisions of integrity: discernment, publicly acting on decisions, and publicly communicating rationale for decision (2.2 Integrity).
- **Optimizing -** Communicate a sense of confidence and power of possible to colleagues; Identify ways to support the successful work of others (2.3 Interdependence).
- **Re-engagement -** Distinguish between resistance and difference of opinion by encouraging people to express diverse and divergent opinions; Articulate coaching strategies and conflict mediation techniques that ensure commitment to goals (2.3 Interdependence).

As well as these general expectations for effective group work:

- **Group Roles -** Demonstrate fluency and competency serving and applying group roles such as time keeping, note taking, process observation, and facilitation.
- **Individual Preparation -** Honor all agreements and deadlines related to individual preparation
- **Norms** - Honor established norms. Revisit and revise norms as needed.
- **Workload** - Group work is shared equitably among members.

Course Design

In seven short weeks, we are charged with covering instructional leadership in its breadth and to its depth; for some of you, this may be the only required course on teacher supervision and coaching you will take prior to taking on a principalship. As such, there is an incredible amount of information to parlay, both in terms of content and in terms of process, resulting in an admittedly fast-paced course.

Building your capacity for ensuring highly effective instruction to students relies on developing your ability to think through situations through four main lenses:

- **Content Knowledge:** Leaders will develop a theoretical base through which to evaluate instructional and reform efforts.
- **Craft Knowledge:** Leaders will translate theory into practice by developing skills and strategies to address the differentiated needs of practitioners, including particular attention to the principles of **equity**, **respect**, **compassion**, **hope** and **joy**
- **Legal/Procedural:** Leaders will possess knowledge regarding the legal and regulatory mandates of teacher supervision and evaluation
- **Identity/Advocacy:** Leaders will build their capacity to serve as informed, culturally responsive student, family and community advocates by utilizing the skills and knowledge they have attained

These four lenses necessarily intersect and will thus be addressed throughout the course. While every session may differ slightly, the following outline will be utilized to the extent possible:

Time	Activity	Description
20 minutes	Check-In	Structured activities will be in place to encourage participants to reflect on current practices and course readings
70 minutes	Theory – Content Knowledge or Legal/Procedural	Lectures, discussions and activities will focus on building leaders' content knowledge as related to teacher supervision and instructional leadership
70 minutes	Practice – Craft and Identity/Advocacy	Lectures, discussions and activities will center on developing the skills and habits of mind necessary to be effective instructional leaders
20 minutes	Check-Out	Assessment of learning, reflection on the day and logistical needs for the course will be addressed. Your instructor is available after class for individual questions

Course Grading

20% Participation

30% Supporting Assessments
- Reflection on 360° leadership inquiry (5%)
- Target Teacher Needs Analysis (5%)
- 2 Out-of-Area Observations (10%)
- Walkthrough Needs Analysis (10%)

50% Major Assessments
- Mini Leadership Action Research Project ("Mini-LARP") (40%)
- Assessment Center (10%)

The table below lists all graded assignments for this course:

Assignment	Due Date	Points
Reflection on 360° leadership inquiry	October 30	100
Target Teacher Needs Analysis	November 4	100
2 Out-of-Area Observations	December 2	200
Walkthrough Needs Analysis	December 7	200
Mini Leadership Action Research Project ("Mini-LARP")	December 11	800
Assessment Center	December 14	200
Participation	Ongoing	400
	TOTAL	**2,000**

Assignment Completion & Submissions

- Assignment Details: The details and expectations for each assignment will be updated in the "assignments" section of bSpace at the outset of each module
- Due Dates & Times: Assignments are due at the time posted in the assignment section of bSpace. Many assignments are designed to be integrated into the course sessions and the timing of their completion is important. Please submit all assignments on time.
- Late Assignments: Like your first year as an administrator, this course moves quickly! It is to your benefit to remain on track with all assignments. To this end, assignments are due on the date specified in the syllabus unless otherwise modified. The maximum credit for late assignments will be reduced 5% a day. Minimum credit for complete assignments is 70%.
- Grading: All projects/papers will be graded according to rubrics, which will be available on bSpace at the beginning of each module. After receiving initial grades, students will have the opportunity to revise any and all assignments and resubmit within two weeks for higher marks. Learning is high-stakes, grading should not be. Please speak with the instructor if you have any questions about your work.
- Submission: Unless otherwise noted, assignments should be submitted via the "assignments" section of bSpace.
- Document Naming Conventions: Submitted documents must include your last name (and first initial if multiple students in your cohort have the same last name) and the name of the assignment. E.g. CheungR_PerformanceAssessment1.doc. When submitting multiple drafts of the same documents, use a number system to distinguish draft versions. E.g. CheugR_PerforamnceAssessment1.v2.doc.

- Document formats: Submit documents in .doc (preferred) or .pdf (if .doc is not available) format (never jpeg; tif; rtf, etc.).
- Writing Guidelines: The best papers will:
  - Demonstrate your conceptualization of the issues, applications, implications, and unanswered questions, grounded in the course concepts;
  - Be nearly free of mechanical and grammatical errors;
  - Synthesize readings from the course;
  - Support claims with textual evidence from the readings, backing positions with specific references to and interpretations of the literature (Using APA);
  - Use headings, introductions and transitions to provide guideposts; and
  - Discuss professional experiences and applications in a scholarly manner by framing them with the concepts discussed in the course.
  - Suggested text:
    - Strunk, W. & White, E.B. (2000). Elements of style (4th ed.). New York: Pearson Longman
    - American Psychological Association: http://www.apastyle.org
- Participation: Session attendance is tracked in "gradebook" on bSpace for your own reference. The "points" are not included in the grade total but may inform the overall participation grade (session attendance is tracked as: 2 – arrived on time, 1 – arrived late or left early, 0 – did not attend or missed more than half the class). The participation grade is based on instructor judgment, informed by your self-assessment, regarding: effort, class participation/attendance, and progress on the effective group work rubric.

Accommodations
Students with special needs who need reasonable modifications, special assistance, or accommodations in this course should promptly direct their request to the course instructor. All discussions will be held with high integrity. If you qualify for or have any questions about qualifying for an accommodation due to a disability, please contact Disability Access Services.

Course Organization
- bSpace: The calendar, assignments, gradebook and other communications on bSpace are the record for the class. Updates to the syllabus and assignments will be recorded there. Please check the calendar, message center, announcements, etc. regularly.
- Advanced Organizers: Each module will have separate organizers that provide additional framing for the outcomes and purposes of the module. These organizers will be distributed at the outset of each module. Readings for each session are listed in the outline. The advanced organizer will include reading guides to help you prioritize and clarify what should be read carefully, what should be read for key ideas, and which readings are supplemental resources for future reference. If your schedule requires you to read ahead of the advanced organizer, be prepared that you may read articles that I later indicate you should skim, jigsaw, or only review if it is related to your LARP.
- Applied Assignments: All of the assignments in the course require fieldwork, which will require careful planning as you may need to organize release time, access to colleagues, etc., within somewhat narrow time windows.

Modules
- Supervision within the Community Context
- Supervision & Coaching for Teacher Learning
- Instructional Leadership

Course Summary:

Date	Topic	Guest Facilitator(s)	Assignment Due
October 19	EDU 262F Bridge and Pre-Assessment	Thomas Green	
October 21	Supervision in a Community Context: The Leadership Perspective		
October 23	Supervision in a Community Context: The Leadership Perspective		
October 28	Supervision in a Community Context: The Equity Perspective		
October 30	Supervision in a Community Context: The Equity Perspective		Reflection on 360° Leadership Survey
November 4	Supervision and Coaching: Coaching Stances		Target Teacher Needs Analysis
November 6	Supervision and Coaching: Pre-Conferences and Goal Setting		
November 13	Supervision and Coaching: Observation Protocols		
November 18	Supervision and Coaching: Post-Conferences and Feedback	Panel of School Leaders	
November 20	Supervision and Coaching: Observation Protocols		
December 2	Instructional Leadership: Rounds and Walkthroughs		2 Out-of-Area Observations
December 4	Instructional Leadership: Setting Priorities		
December 7	Instructional Leadership: Confronting Resistance	Panel of School Leaders	Walkthrough Needs Analysis
December 9	Instructional Leadership: Teacher Evaluations		
December 11	Instructional Leadership: Post-Assessment		Mini-LARP
December 14	Assessment Center		Assessment Center

Course Outline:

Class Date and Focus	Readings and Assignments Due
Session 1 **October 19** **Introduction**	Bryk, A., Sebring. S., Bender, P., Allensworth, E., Luppescu, S., & Easton, J. (2010). Chapter 2: A framework of essential supports. *Organizing schools for improvement: Lessons from Chicago*.
Session 2 **October 21** **The Leadership Perspective**	Waters, T. and Grubb, S. (2004). *Leading schools: Distinguishing the essential from the important*. Denver, CO: McRel. Quinn, D. (2002). The impact of principal leadership behaviors on instructional practice and student engagement. *Journal of Educational Administration, 40*(5).
Session 3 **October 23** **The Leadership Perspective**	Kagen, R. & Lahey, L. *Immunity to change: How to overcome it and unlock the potential in yourself and your organization.* Cambridge, MA: Harvard. Chapters 1 and 5.
Session 4 **October 28** **The Equity Perspective**	Leithwood, K. (1992). "The move toward transformational leadership." <u>Educational Leadership</u>. 49(5). Pgs 8-12. Wilhelm, T. (2013). "How principals cultivate shared leadership." <u>Educational Leadership</u>. Pgs 62-66. Leverett, L. (2002). "Warriors to advance equity: An argument for distributing leadership." <u>Spotlight on Student Success</u> 709. Pg. 1-3. Theoharris, G. "Disrupting injustice: Principals narrate the strategies they use to improve their schools and advance social justice." <u>Teachers College Record</u> 12(1). Pg. 331-373. Howard, Tyrone C. (2002). Hearing footsteps in the dark: African American students' descriptions of effective teachers. *Journal of Education for Students Placed at Risk (JESPAR), 7*(4). Lee, E. (2002). "Coaching for equity." <u>New Teacher Center Reflections</u> **5**(1). Pgs 1-2
Session 5 **October 30** **The Teaching Perspective**	Review (or re-read) Glickman and Fessler National Research Council. (2000). How experts differ from novices. In J. Bransford, A. Brown & R. Cocking (Eds.), *How people learn: Brain, mind, experience, and school*. Marshall. K. (2013). *Rethinking teacher supervision and evaluation: How to work smart, build collaboration and close the achievement gap.* San Francisco: John Wiley & Sons. Ch 1.

360 Reflection Due	
Session 6 **November 4** **Coaching Stances**	Review Schmoker and Cuban Acheson, K.A. & Damien Gall, M. (1997). *Techniques in the clinical supervision of teachers.* New York: John Wiley & Sons. Chapter 1. Glickman, C., Gordon, S. & Ross-Gordon, J.M. (2013). *SuperVision and instructional leadership: A developmental approach*. Chapter 4. **Target Teacher Need Analysis Due**
Session 7 **November 6** **Pre-Conferences and Goal Setting**	Acheson, K.A. & Damien Gall, M. (1997). *Techniques in the clinical supervision of teachers.* New York: John Wiley & Sons. Chapters 3-4. Heath, C. & Heath, C. (2010). *Switch: how to change things when change is hard*. New York: Broadway Books. Chapter 1.
Session 8 **November 13** **Observation Protocols**	Revisit: Tredway, L. (2011). Asset observation toolkit: Observing for equity. University of California, Berkeley, Unpublished Manuscript. Tredway, Robie, Speyer-Boilard (2005). Facilitation guide to name professional development practices. UC Berkeley: Unpublished. Marshall, K. (2013). *Rethinking teacher supervision and evaluation: How to work smart, build collaboration and close the achievement gap.* San Francisco: John Wiley & Sons. Chapter 4.
Session 9 **November 18** **Post Conferences and Goal Setting**	Pollock, J.E. (2011). *Feedback: The hinge that joins teaching and learning*. Corwin. Chapter 1. Myung, J. & Martinez, K. (2013). "Strategies for increasing the impact of post-observation feedback for teachers."
Session 9 **November 20** **Observation Protocols**	Revisit: Tredway, L. (2011). Asset observation toolkit: Observing for equity. University of California, Berkeley, Unpublished Manuscript. Revisit: Tredway, Robie, Speyer-Boilard (2005). Facilitation guide to name professional development practices. UC Berkeley: Unpublished.
Session 10 **December 2** **Walkthroughs**	Gore, J.M., Bowe, J.M. & Miller, W. (2012). "Developing teachers' pedagogical understanding." Presented at AERA Annual Meeting, Vancouver, April 13-18, 2012. Ginsberg, M.B. & Wlodkowski, R.J. (2000). Creating highly motivating classrooms: A schoolwide approach to powerful teaching with diverse

	learners. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass. **2 Out-of-Area Observations Due**
Session 11 **December 4** **Setting Priorities**	Glickman, C., Gordon, S. & Ross-Gordon, J.M. (2013). *SuperVision and instructional leadership: A developmental approach*. Chapter 21. Boykin, A.W. & Noguera, P. (2011). Creating the opportunity to learn: Moving from research to practice to close the achievement gap. Arlington: ASCD. Chapter 3.
Session 12 **December 7** **Confronting** **Resistance**	Maurer, R. (2010). *Beyond the wall of resistance: Why 70% of all changes still fail – and what you can do about it.* Bard Press. Chapter 3. Platt, A., Tripp, C. , Ogden, W. & Fraser, R. (2000). *The skillful leader: Confronting mediocre teaching.* Ready About Press. Chapter 2. **Walkthrough Needs Analysis Due**
Session 13 **December 9** **Teacher Evaluations**	Anderson, J. "Curious grade for teachers: Nearly all pass." New York Times: March 30, 2013. Heath, C. & Heath, C. (2013). *Decisive: How to make better choices in life and work.* Crowin. Chapters 2 and 8.
Session 14 **December 11** **Post Assessment**	Fink., E. & Resnick, L.B. "Developing principals as instructional leaders." <u>Phi Delta Kappan</u>, 4(1), 2001. **Mini-LARP Due**
Session 15 **December 14** **Assessment Center**	

Feedback Simulation
Background Information – Principal

Interview and Simulation Agenda:
Intro to Project/Agenda: 2 min.
Lesson Plan Review: 5 min.
Video Viewing: 20 min.
Feedback Prep: 5 min.
Feedback Simulation: 20 min.
Feedback Simulation Interview: 20 min.
Feedback Experiences Interview: 30 min.
Closing: 2 min.

School Context:
Summit Prep is a charter high school in Redwood City, CA with an enrollment of approximately 400 students in grades 9-12 and approximately 30 teachers. Students apply for admission to Summit, and the school accepts approximately 100 students per year. The student population is approximately 50% Hispanic, 37% White, 6% Asian, 3% African-American, 3% Pacific Islander and 1% two or more races. The school's API in 2013 was 845.

Classroom Context:
This is a 9th grade World History, Part I class in April of the academic year. The students will take World History, Part II in 10th grade. This is the fifth unit of the year—imperialism. Students have been working throughout the year on skills related to reading like a historian (see attached historical thinking skills chart) and this lesson focuses on the historical thinking skill of contextualization.

Observation Context:
Today, you (a first year principal at Summit) will be observing Ms. Anisah Duyoor's class for approximately half the lesson (20 minutes of video time, 25 minutes of actual instruction). You often observe teaching throughout the building for less than a full class period, in an effort to see more teaching, more often. This is not the first time that you have observed Ms. Duyoor, though this is the first time you have observed this specific class period.

You will review Ms. Duyoor's lesson plan and all associated materials before going into the classroom. Because of time constraints, you and Ms. Duyoor did not meet before class to discuss the lesson or objectives for the observation. Immediately following this class, you will have the opportunity to meet with Ms. Duyoor to engage in approximately 20 minutes of feedback about the lesson.

This observation is not a "formal" observation for evaluative purposes, but a formative assessment of her teaching with the goal of improving her teaching practice.

Lesson Plan

Date 4-24-12	**Subject/Course** World Studies	**Grade level** 9th
Grade		

Unit / Lesson Topic: Imperialism / Colonial Independence Movements

Essential Question (s):
* How does a minority control a majority?
* To what extent has imperialism shaped who has power today?

Objectives/Learning Goals:
• Students show that they can compare Gandhi's civil disobedience with Ho Chi Minh's idea of a violent resistance

Activities (including timings):

0-5 minutes	**Warm up:** Summit scenario. How would you effect social change at Summit? (Anything is on the table, including violent resistance. Remind students of the French Revolution.)
	EXTENSION: If you were an Indian person living under British imperialism….then how would you choose to fight back? Violent or non-violent resistance?
5-10 minutes	Review as a class
10-30 minutes	**Gandhi primary source document (Guided practice)** - Students will fill out "Big C" context and "Little C" context; they use their HW to do this.
30-50 minutes	- Students read the primary source and answer the reflection questions.
	Ho Chi Minh primary source document (In pairs) Students read the 2nd document on Ho Chi Minh's philosophy and answer questions in pairs. Debrief as a class: Which *ideology* or *philosophy* is more effective in making change?
50-55 minutes	
	Exit Slip: Students figure out how Ho Chi Minh and Gandhi would respond to the warm up. They must use key vocabulary words in their answers.

Resources needed: PPT, Graphic Organizer and Primary Sources, Exit Slip

Assessment (formal and informal, including questions to be asked – How you will know that the learning goals have been achieved): Exit Slip, Graphic organizer, pair discussion

Gandhi and Ho Chi Minh in Their Own Words

Mahatma Gandhi on non-violence as love:

Source: _Mohandas K. Gandhi; excerpts from his articles that were published in a newspaper called "Young India" in July 1925. Young India was mainly read by Indian intellectuals (or the higher castes) who wanted to fight for Indian independence. Gandhi worked for some time in South Africa, but returned to India in 1915. After the Amritsar Massacre in 1919, Gandhi calls for a period of "non-cooperation" or non-violent resistance against the British._

"Big C" Context

"Little C" Context
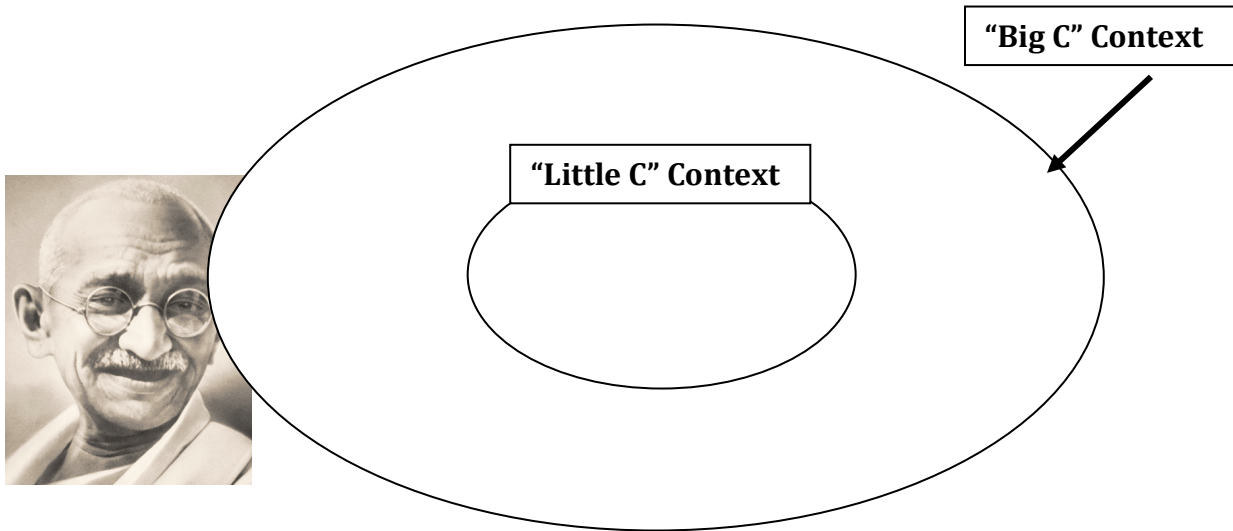
"All society is held together by non-violence, as the earth is held together in her position…. What is happening today is a disregard of the law of non-violence and the **enthronement (provide power and authority)** of violence as if it were an **eternal (forever)** law…

It is not non-violence if we merely love those that love us. It is non-violence only when we love those that hate us. I know how difficult it is to follow this grand law of love. But are not all great and good things difficult to do? Love of the hater is most difficult of all.

Non-violence is the weapon of the strong…Fear and love are contradictory terms. Love is **reckless (foolish)** in giving away, **oblivious (not aware)** as to what it gets in return. Love wrestles with the world and ultimately gains a mastery over all other feelings."

  1. What strategy is Gandhi supporting in this document? How does he think that India should fight back against the British? (List at least 2 specific things from your HW)

  2. What is Gandhi saying when he states, "It is not non-violence if we merely love those that love us. It is non-violence only when we love those that hate us." What would this look like with India and England?

  3. Taking into account the context of the time period and everything the British have done to the Indians, would you support Gandhi's philosophy? Why or why not? Refer to AT LEAST 2-3 pieces of context in your answer!!!

Ho Chi Minh on fighting a war of independence against the French:

Source: *Ho Chi Minh describes the possibility of war with the French for Vietnamese independence to an American journalist in the 1940s. Ho Chi Minh was a member of the Communist party, which led revolts and strikes against the French and Japanese. Ho Chi Minh was exiled by the French for his role in the Vietnamese independence movement, but then returned to Vietnam in 1941 when Japan controlled the colony.*

"Big C" Context

"Little C" Context
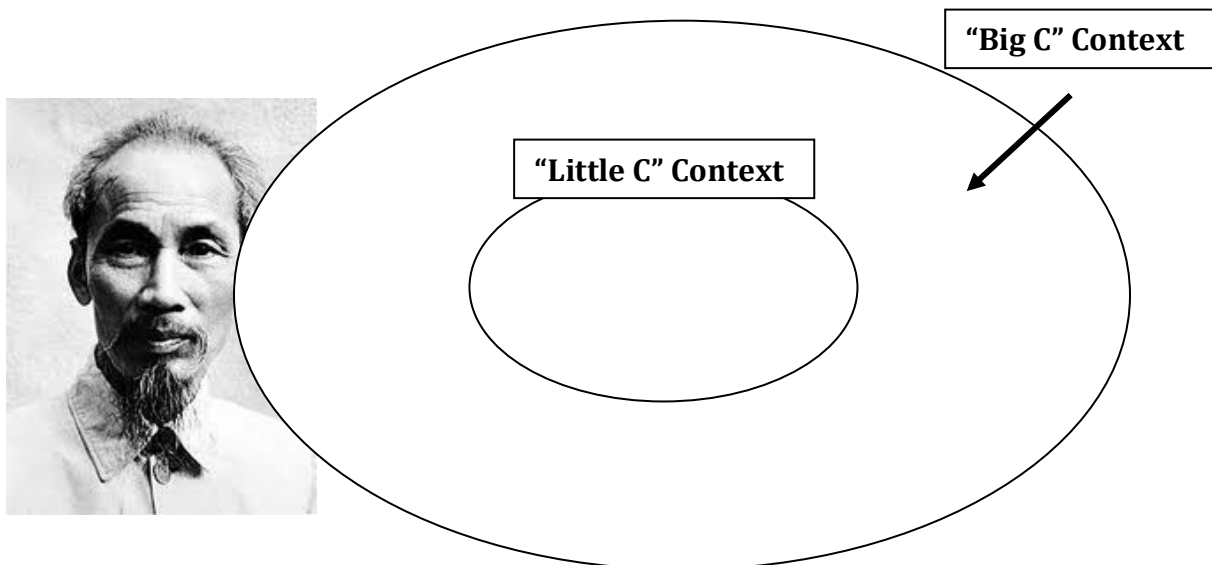
"No it would not be hopeless. It would be hard, desperate, but we could win. We have a weapon every bit as powerful: nationalism! Do not underestimate its power. You Americans above all ought to remember that a ragged band of barefoot farmers defeated the pride of Europe's best armed forces… It will be a war between an elephant and a tiger… If the tiger ever stands still the elephant will crush him with his mighty tusks. But the tiger does not stand still. He **lurks (sneaks around)** in the jungle by day and **emerges (comes out)** by night. He will leap upon the back of the elephant, tearing huge chunks from his side, and then he will leap back into the dark

jungle. And slowly the elephant will bleed to death. That will be the war of **Indochina (Vietnam)**."

Answer these questions in your notebook:
1. In this reading, the elephant and the tiger are symbols. Which countries do they symbolize?

2. What strategy is Ho Chi Minh supporting in this document? How does he think that Vietnam should fight back against the French & Japanese?

3. Think about everything that you brainstormed about context. Based on this information about Vietnam and France, do you think that Ho Chi Minh's strategy will succeed? Why or why not?

Name: Section:

EXIT SLIP – What would Gandhi & Ho Chi Minh do?

Think back to the warm up. The scenario at Summit was that:
- ☐ Teachers gave 5 hours of HW EVERY night
- ☐ The school day ended at 5 pm
- ☐ You are ALL required to come to school on Saturday
- ☐ You couldn't even eat lunch or have any breaks!

Now, based on what you know about Gandhi's and Ho Chi Minh's philosophies, write down what THEY would say to Summit students in response to the scenario in the warm up. Make sure to use the vocabulary words in the box below.

Non-violent resistance   Strike   Boycott   Violent resistance Guerrilla warfare   Civil Disobedience

GANDHI =
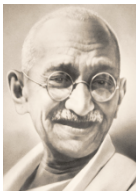
HO CHI MINH =

Appendix C
Assessment by Approximation Teacher

Name of "Principal"	
How effective was the principal in engaging you in feedback about your teaching?	
What feedback did you find to be the most useful to the improvement of your teaching? Why?	
What feedback did you find to be the least useful to the improvement of your teaching? Why?	
Would you feel differently about any of your feedback if this had been a formal evaluation? Why or why not?	
Do you have any other comments/suggestions for the principal? (optional)	
What was the overall quality of the feedback that you received from the principal? (1-5)	

Intro: 2 min.
Lesson Plan Review: 5-10 min.
Video Viewing: 20 min.
Feedback Simulation: 25 min.
Feedback Simulation Interview: 20 min.
Relationship to Feedback Interview: 30 min.
Closing: 2 min.

Intro
KA: Thank you for making the time to meet with me today to take part in this research project. As you know, this is a study about what you and some of your classmates are taking up from what has been taught in your supervision of teaching course. The purpose of today's interview and simulation is to give you an opportunity to think about and engage in feedback before you have taken part in the course. As you know, we will meet again to engage in the same activity and another interview after the course is completed.

Today, I will first be asking you to review the lesson plan of the video of instruction that you will be viewing. Then, you will watch the video of instruction, which is about 20-minutes long. Following that, you will have a few minutes to gather your notes and thoughts before engaging with the "teacher," providing her with feedback about her teaching and engaging with her about this feedback. Following that, you and I will debrief the feedback simulation and talk about your experiences and expectations around feedback, both as a teacher and a future leader.

I will be audiotaping this interview and exercise and want to remind you that nothing you say will be identified with you personally. Here is a consent form for you to review and sign regarding the details of the research process.

(*Participant reviews consent form; signs if consenting.*)

Do you have any questions?

(*Wait for and respond to questions; pull out lesson plan and note paper and give to participant.*)

Preparation
KA: Here is the plan for the lesson you are about to view. Take a few minutes to review the plan and make any notes that you think will be helpful to you. Let me know when you're ready to view the video.

(Participant reviews plan, makes notes as desired.)

KA: You will now watch a 20-minute teaching video, after which you will be engaging in 25-minutes of feedback about what you have seen with the teacher. Feel free to make any notes that you might want for the lesson debrief with the teacher. After you have finished watching the video, you will have approximately 5-minutes to prepare for your meeting with the teacher. It is entirely up to you how you choose to use that time.

Do you have any questions?

(Wait for and respond to questions; give participant more notepaper; start video. Participant views teaching video, makes notes as needed, has 5-minutes to prepare for meeting with teacher.)

Feedback Simulation
KA: You will now have 25-minutes to meet with the teacher. I will give you a time check when 5-minutes remain.

(Bring in and introduce teacher; simulation begins. Provide time check. Usher out teacher at end of simulation.)

Feedback Simulation Interview
KA: I am now going to ask you some questions about that experience.

(Questions subject to choices that participant made in feedback session. For example, you opened the feedback session by asking x, why did you make that choice? You chose to focus your time with the teacher on x, why did choose this focus? You engaged the teacher in a conversation about x, why did you make that choice? You provided the teacher with the following next steps, why did you choose these? What do you think went well in the feedback session? What would you have done differently if given another opportunity?)

Personal Relationship to Feedback Interview
KA: Thank you for taking part in the simulation and sharing your insights with me. We are now going to shift gears and spend the final 30-minutes of our time together talking about your past experiences with feedback, as well as your aspirations as a future school leader.

(Interview will be semi-structured, allowing room for follow-up questions.)

What do you believe is the purpose of engaging in feedback about teaching practice with teachers?

As a teacher, what have your past experiences been with feedback in your workplace(s)?

In what ways do your experiences reflect those of your colleagues at your school site or at other schools?

Have you worked in another industry? If so, was there any variation between your experience receiving feedback in that industry as opposed to in teaching?

What are some of the most effective feedback practices that you have experienced as a teacher?

In what ways could your experience around feedback about your teaching have been improved?

How do your past experiences engaging in the feedback process about your teaching inform your goals/aspirations in this area as an aspiring school leader?

For current coaches, IRFs, school leaders:
What are your greatest challenges as you try to engage in feedback with teachers whom you currently coach/lead?

For current classroom teachers:
In your current role, do you have any opportunities to engage in feedback with other teachers about their instruction? If so, what kind of opportunities and how often? If no, why not?

For all:
What do you hope to learn about feedback in this fall's teacher supervision course? Why?

Closing
KA: Thank you for taking the time today to engage in this process with me. I really appreciate your contributions to this research. I will be following up with you via email to schedule time in early January when we can meet again to engage in the same process after the conclusion of the supervision course. I will also be making transcripts of your interviews available to you, if you'd like, so that you can ensure the accuracy of the transcripts. In the meantime, please be in touch with any questions that you might have.

Welcome/Intro: 2 min.
Video Viewing: 20 min.
Simulation Preparation: 10 min.
Feedback Simulation: 20 min.
Feedback Simulation Interview: 20 min.
Relationship to Feedback Interview: 30 min.
Closing: 2 min.

Intro

KA: Thank you for taking part in the follow-up simulation and interview as part of this study. The purpose of today's interview and simulation is to give you an opportunity to repeat the feedback exercise you engaged in in the fall before taking your supervision course and for me to learn more about what you took up from that course.

Since you reviewed the lesson plan and materials in our last session, today you will begin by again watching the video of instruction, which is about 20-minutes long. Following that, you will have a few minutes to review the lesson plan and gather your notes and thoughts before engaging with the "teacher," providing her with feedback about her teaching and engaging with her about this feedback. Following that, you and I will debrief the feedback simulation and talk about your learning experience in your teacher supervision course in the fall.

I will be audiotaping this interview and exercise and want to remind you that nothing you say will be identified with you personally.

Do you have any questions?

(Wait for and respond to questions; begin teaching video.)

Preparation

KA: You will now watch a 20-minute teaching video, after which you will be engaging in 20-minutes of feedback about what you have seen with the teacher. Feel free to make any notes that you might want for the lesson debrief with the teacher. After you have finished watching the video, you will have approximately 10-minutes to prepare for your meeting with the teacher. It is entirely up to you how you choose to use that time.

Do you have any questions?

(Wait for and respond to questions; give participant more notepaper; start video. Participant views teaching video, makes notes as needed, has 10-minutes to prepare for meeting with teacher.)

Feedback Simulation
KA: You will now have 20-minutes to meet with the teacher. I will give you a time check when 5-minutes remain.

(Bring in and introduce teacher; simulation begins. Provide time check. Usher out teacher at end of simulation.)

Feedback Simulation Interview
KA: I am now going to ask you some questions about that experience.

If the goal of this feedback process was for you to help the teacher improve her teaching practice, on a scale of 1-10 how effective do you feel you were at achieving that goal? Why have you chosen that assessment (what do you think went well? What would you do differently)?

You are engaging in this process a second time. How did your first experience inform your choices?

How did what you were taught in class inform your choices?

This is an artificial situation. What elements of this feedback process would need to be altered to make it more effective/authentic?

(Questions subject to choices that participant made in feedback session. For example, you opened the feedback session by asking x, why did you make that choice? You chose to focus your time with the teacher on x, why did choose this focus? You engaged the teacher in a conversation about x, why did you make that choice? You provided the teacher with the following next steps, why did you choose these? What do you think went well in the feedback session? What would you have done differently if given another opportunity?)

Personal Relationship to Feedback Interview
KA: Thank you for taking part in the simulation and sharing your insights with me. We are now going to shift gears and spend the final 30-minutes of our time together talking about your learning experience in your teacher supervision course.

(Interview will be semi-structured, allowing room for follow-up questions.)

What were the greatest take-aways from the course for you regarding the teacher feedback process?

How did the in class practice opportunities inform your thinking engaging in the practice of feedback?

How did the out of class practice opportunities inform your thinking about engaging in the practice of feedback?

How effective did you find these practice opportunities in improving your effectiveness?

Did the course affect any of your conceptions regarding teacher feedback? If so, how? If not, why not?

What do you believe is the purpose of engaging in feedback about teaching practice with teachers?

For current coaches, IRFs, school leaders:
How has the course impacted how you engage in feedback with the teachers with whom you work, if at all? Or How are you applying what you have taken up to your work?

As a future instructional leader, how has the course informed your thinking about teacher feedback? Who do you feel is best positioned to offer the most effective feedback to improve teaching practice?

Closing
KA: Thank you for taking the time today to engage in this process with me. I really appreciate your contributions to this research. I will also be making transcripts of your interviews available to you, if you'd like, so that you can ensure the accuracy of the transcripts. In the meantime, please be in touch with any questions that you might have. I will be emailing your gift cards to you by the close of the week.

Appendix F
Conceptual Framework of School Supervision Course

The conceptual framework proceeds from conclusions drawn from the research literature:

6. Improving instruction is the most important aspect of improving schools (A. S. Bryk, Sebring, Allensworth, Luppescu, & Easton, 2010; Center for the Future of Teaching and Learning, 2011), and that a leader's most important work is creating the **organizational, cultural, and developmental** conditions that foster continuously improving instruction (Center for the Future of Teaching and Learning, 2011).
7. Leaders support improved instruction primarily by fostering certain essential supports, including: organizational factors, professional capacity building, instructional guidance, and parent, school and community ties (A. S. Bryk, et al., 2010).
8. Leaders' tools for fostering these components are:
    a. "Re-culturing" – changing the technical culture, professional norms, and organizational structures (McLaughlin & Talbert, 2006) – towards more equitable practices;
    b. Diagnosing the actual causes and obstacles to school improvement, and designing and evaluating responses (J. Spillane & Coldren, 2011) based on a deep knowledge of how schools work; and
    c. Distributing leadership to deepen institutional sustainability of change efforts (J. P. Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2001).
    d. Developing the skills, knowledge, and approaches described in the PLI Leadership Rubric.
9. The leader can be a catalyst for and drive change, but improvement depends on all the adults that engage within the organization. This requires leaders have a developmental perspective (Glickman, 2002), and foster relational trust (A. Bryk & Schneider, 2003).
10. Schools with leaders who create the essential supports and foster change can improve student outcomes (A. S. Bryk, et al., 2010), however, improved student outcomes unfold in a context of institutional and systemic issues, including the social contracts that systematically advantage some groups over others (Mills, 1997); the external accountability system that excerpts pressures and controls on schools (Mintrop, 2004); and the state and federal policy environment (Elmore, 2004).

Appendix G
Course Meeting Outline

Time	Activity	Description
20 minutes	Check-In	Structured activities will be in place to encourage participants to reflect on current practices and course readings
70 minutes	Theory – Content Knowledge or Legal/Procedural	Lectures, discussions and activities will focus on building leaders' content knowledge as related to teacher supervision and instructional leadership
70 minutes	Practice – Craft and Identity/Advocacy	Lectures, discussions and activities will center on developing the skills and habits of mind necessary to be effective instructional leaders
20 minutes	Check-Out	Assessment of learning, reflection on the day and logistical needs for the course will be addressed. Your instructor is available after class for individual questions

Appendix H
Course Expectations

As we work through complex and sometimes difficult material, challenging each others' thinking and skills, the expectations of the P3 for both instructors and students need to be consistently aspired to:

- Be present and engaged as much as possible
    - Manage and balance presence as well as self-care for maximum engagement.
    - Limit cell phone and social media use to breaks and emergencies.
    - Be mindful of how your laptop and phone support or distract from your engagement.
- Provide supportive space for everyone to learn
    - Foster both personal growth and the growth of the cohort.
    - Allow for risk taking and mistakes. Use PLI as a practice space
    - Provide honest and appropriate feedback.
- Assume everyone has something to contribute
    - Diverse perspectives enhance learning.
    - When something is shared, ask questions before making judgments.
- Use your studentship as an opportunity for leadership
    - PLI is about growing your leadership stance. Practice it through your studentship.
    - Take responsibility and initiative to solve problems and answer questions.
    - Communicate in a timely fashion with professors and staff.
- When conflicts arise, attempt to resolve them directly with the person/s involved
    - Attempt to resolve the conflict before seeking the help of others.
    - Seek thought partners only if you need support planning the resolution of the conflict.

Finally, there are a few remaining expectations that I wish to add:
- Graduate Level Academic Discourse: This course includes significant opportunities for you to work in groups and independently to internalize, apply, analyze, and/or synthesize materials. Group and whole class discussions, as well as various forms of reflection, will typically (but not always) be accompanied by protocols designed to guide conversations and thinking towards the intended learning objective. It is your responsibility to take advantage of these opportunities and use them to deepen your thinking, challenge your assumptions, and practice your "scholar practitioner" skills.
- Group Work: Group work is an important part of the P3 curriculum as it simulates dilemmas and dynamics that occur in the workplace and provides a structured environment for leadership development. Based on the Leadership Connection for

Justice in Education rubric, you will need to practice the following in your work with colleagues:

- **Resiliency -** Exhibit resiliency, maintaining mental focus, energy and optimism in the face of challenges (1.1 Professional Imprint).
- **Reframing -** Display a positive attitude in service of accomplishing substantive Outcomes; Examine discourse patterns and identify appropriate and non-reactive responses to challenges (1.2 Flexibility).
- **Buffering -** Practice an optimizing non-blaming discourse/approach; Maintain focus on important work (1.2 Flexibility).
- **Brokering -** Identify and analyze personal areas of strength and learning as well as individual contributions and needs; Assess for micropolitical dimensions and be able to identify productive areas for working with people (1.2 Flexibility).
- **Emotional Acuity -** Identify and analyze emotional contributions to the social dynamic, including responses to successes, achievements, mistakes, disappointment, and setbacks; Identify and analyze others' responses to you (1.3 Demeanor).
- **Cultural Consonance -** Use culturally responsive nonverbal and verbal choices, including all dimensions of cultural knowledge; Demonstrate the ability to adjust to different cultural norms within the group (1.3 Demeanor).
- **Stance and Tone -** Choose and practice effective use of personal assets in formal and informal communication; Exhibit an ability to accept feedback and alter actions (1.3 Demeanor).
- **Discernment and Action -** Identify when discretion should be used about what to share in order to achieve desired outcome; Reflect carefully before acting precipitously; Articulate a willingness to hear other perspectives, change, and engage others (2.2 Integrity).
- **Decision Making -** Enunciate the processes of making decisions of integrity: discernment, publicly acting on decisions, and publicly communicating rationale for decision (2.2 Integrity).
- **Optimizing -** Communicate a sense of confidence and power of possible to colleagues; Identify ways to support the successful work of others (2.3 Interdependence).
- **Re-engagement -** Distinguish between resistance and difference of opinion by encouraging people to express diverse and divergent opinions; Articulate coaching strategies and conflict mediation techniques that ensure commitment to goals (2.3 Interdependence).

As well as these general expectations for effective group work:

- **Group Roles -** Demonstrate fluency and competency serving and applying group roles such as time keeping, note taking, process observation, and facilitation.
- **Individual Preparation -** Honor all agreements and deadlines related to individual preparation

- o **Norms** - Honor established norms. Revisit and revise norms as needed.
- o **Workload** - Group work is shared equitably among members.

Appendix I
Coaching Stance Practice and Reflection

Time: 45 minutes total, starting at _____, return at _____
Parameters:
- 5 minutes:
  - In groups of three, discuss what you've observed about your preferred coaching stance in clinical supervision. Note areas of surprise or intersections with current practice.
  - Review the blue packet materials (also on bSpace). There, you will find:
    - Descriptions of when to use different coaching stances
    - Descriptions of when to move from one coaching stance to the next
  - Decide who will practice using which coaching stance as a leader (for instance – if you tend toward the nondirective stance, perhaps you will want to play out the role of the supervisor using a directive-informational approach). Once you've identified which coaching stance you will practice as the supervisor, one other group member will volunteer to play the role of the teacher and the third the role of observer/facilitator.
  - NOTE: you will only be using three of the four stances. You are free to make the selection on your own.
- 8 minutes:
  - Once a coaching stance has been identified, locate the text box with the different teacher scenarios. After review, the identified leader will practice leading a coaching conversation.
  - Each coaching conversation should last **4 minutes**.
  - The third group member, acting as facilitator, uses the space below to record notes.
  - At the end of the five minutes, take **4 minutes** to debrief the conversation, facilitated by the observing group member.
- 8 minutes: rotate roles and repeat above
- 8 minutes: rotate roles and repeat above
- If there's time left over, debrief process as a group before it is time to return to the group

Facilitator Notes (exchange papers at end of exercise so everyone leaves with a copy of their notes):

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

Post – Conference Plan

Teacher: _____   **Class Observed:** _____
Date of Observation: _____   **Date of Post-Conference:** _____

Key Data Observed:

Selected Coaching Stance (Glickman, 2002):	
☐ Nondirective	☐ Directive-Informational
☐ Collaborative	☐ Directive-Control

Paraphrasing and Leader Behaviors to Consider	(Center for Urban School Leadership, 2010):
☐ Acknowledging/Clarifying	☐ Reflecting
☐ Summarizing/Organizing	☐ Presenting
☐ Shifting Levels of Abstraction	☐ Negotiating
☐ Listening	☐ Directing
☐ Clarifying	☐ Standardizing
☐ Encouraging	☐ Reinforcing

Opening Question:

Focus for Leadership Reflection:

Appendix K
Assessment Center Instructions, Fall 2013

Fall Assessment Center 2013 Introduction and Case Study

Assessment of Incoming Instructional Coach for Pacific

Due to Pacific's program improvement status, the district was able to access funds that allowed Ms. Jones to hire a full time Instructional Coach to support school improvement in the coming year. Through a colleague from graduate school, Ms. Jones was introduced to Georgia Eden, who was working as an instructional coach in New York. Ms. Jones was not familiar with Ms. Eden's work, but Ms. Eden's interview had been strong and she came highly recommended by people that Ms. Jones trusted.

In preparation for the upcoming year, Ms. Eden sent a video of herself conducting an instructional conference with a second year, 9th grade science teacher.

Ms. Eden represents a significant resources allocation, and Pacific is lucky to have the additional staffing. As part of your Student Support Team responsibilities, you will analyze Ms. Eden's video and make some recommendations about her strengths and areas for growth.

Summary Instructions:

1. Script the instructional conference (7 minutes)
2. Name practice (10 minutes)
3. Discuss what you observed with your colleague(s) (10 minutes)
4. Engage in a facilitated conversation for deeper analysis (10 minutes)
5. Receive feedback (5 minutes)

Detailed Instructions:

1. Watch and script the 7 minute coaching convesation. While the video is edited to allow for you to see a complete conference in short amount of time, Ms. Eden has indicated that the video substantially captures the nature and trajectory of the conference. No important aspects of the conference are left out.
2. Using the "Instructional Conferencing Strategies" framework as helpful, name the practices you see.
3. With a colleague, conduct the first level of analysis using the following protocol:
    a. Identify several of the main practices you observed – 5 minutes
    b. Pick a category of conferencing practice that seems particularly relevant for the conference (either: Sequence, Stance, Coaching Language, Feedback, or Equity Discourse) to discuss in more depth the assets and areas for growth you observed. – 5 minutes
4. Facilitated by a field supervisor, engage in a discussion of another category of conferencing practice – 10 minutes
5. Submit your "scipting & naming" document on bCourses in the assignment section for 262B – Supervision.

Fall Assessment Center
Post-Observation Conference Activity

REFLECTION ACTIVITY (to be completed after Saturday's simulation)

Watch the recording of your post-conference and complete the activities below **by Monday, December 15**. Submit this by uploading it under Assignments for the EDUC 262B course AND email it to your field supervisor.

Before you begin writing, save this document using the ▇▇ naming convention and type your name below:

NAME _____

I.   Evaluation requires a leader to use a variety of skills and strategies simultaneously. Listed below are descriptors of practice from the LCJE Rubric that are related to post-observation conferences. For each of the items in the chart, evaluate your leadership competencies based on the Post-Observation Conference Activity (i.e. scripting and naming, advance preparation, post-observation conference simulation). Provide evidence for your rating. Feel free to use the rubric for this exercise.

Item	Proficient	Satisfactory	Needs Improvement	Evidence
1.3.3 Demeanor (Tone, Stance including nonverbal)				
1.3.1 Emotional Acuity				

2

Fall Assessment Center
Post-Observation Conference Activity

1.2.1 Flexibility (Reframing) by paraphrasing				
1.2.1 Flexibility Reframing (by Summarizing				
2.2.1 Integrity Discernment and Action				
2.3.2 Optimizing				
3.3.1 Individual Advocate Role				
4.1.1Learning Environment Expectations				

3

Fall Assessment Center
Post-Observation Conference Activity

4.1.3 Knowledge Base			
4.2.1 Content Standards			
4.2.3 Equitable Content of Curriculum			
4.2.4 Evidence Based Practice			
4.3.2 Formative Feedback			
4.3.3 Teacher Outcomes			

II.   Reflect on your self-assessment. How will you increase your leadership competencies in your areas of challenge?

4

Educ 262B: School Supervision – Developmental Approaches
Instructional Conference Strategies/Practices
Mental Model

Sequence of Conference
- Assessing Teacher's Needs/(Re)Establishing Rapport
  - Making connections
  - Building relationships
- Establishing a focus for the work
  - Prioritizing needs
  - Initial question
- Moving teacher's practice forward:
  - Direct instructing
  - Collaborative problem-solving/work
  - Facilitative inquiry and reflective questioning
  - Feedback
  - Suggestions
- Promote accountability:
  - Identify specific next steps
  - Agree upon ways to measure outcome
  - Determine possible evidence

Stance
- Directive Control
- Instructional (Directive Informational)
- Collaborative
- Non-Directive

Inquiry Coaching Language
- Questions/language designed to understand and develop teacher thinking, knowledge, desires, and feelings
  - Paraphrasing
  - Clarifying
  - Mediation
  - Non-judgmental language
  - Probing
  - Prompting
  - Naming assets
  - Referencing low inference evidence
- Making Suggestions:
  - Listen before making suggestions
  - Create a supportive work environment, avoid criticism (instead: extend, broaden, enrich)
  - Help solve problems
  - Proactively giving advice for the improvement of instruction

- o Preventing complacency and overreliance on traditional instructional methods
- o Encouraging creativity and innovation in instruction
- Finding Entry Points

Giving feedback
- Focus on observed behaviors including teacher practices, student behaviors, teacher student relationships (low inference data)
- Specific
- Nonjudgmental
- Positive & encouraging
- Constructive criticism is rare and diplomatic
- Evidence of success
- Clarify ideas
- Correct misconceptions
- Collaborative and collegial
- Information about the gap between actual level of performance and the reference level of performance

Soliciting **advice and opinions**
- Demonstrate that the teacher's thinking is valued and validated
- Enthusiasm for teacher's efforts
- Communicates that the teacher's thinking is important

Equity focused approaches (**impacting Underlying Assumptions**)
- Put race on the table
- Making inequality tangible
- Connect forms of oppression
- Highlight the historical perspective
- Uncover curricular bias
- Significance of social group membership
- Tensions between urgency and hope
- Uncovering biases and assumptions
- Distinguishing between situational and systemic inequity
- Increasing (self)awareness around issues of equity and/or potential bias
- Facilitate or co-constructing questions that lead to new equity oriented practices
- Collaboratively analyzing actions to identify patterns and change
- Facilitating change in attitudes and underlying assumptions