Original Research Paper

Education

Models of Clinical Supervision

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Clinical supervision models have emerged since the establishment of the original models by Cogan and Goldhammer in the 1960s. Pajak (2003) classifies clinical supervision models as four main models: Original Clinical Models, Humanistic/Artistic Models, Technical/Didactic Models and Developmental/ Reflective Models. Table (1) shows the four main models of clinical supervision.

Table 1 Models of Clinical Supervision

Original Clinical Models	The models proposed by Goldhammer, Mosher and Purpel, and Cogan offer an eclectic blending of empirical, phenomenological, behavioral, and developmental perspectives. These models emphasize the importance of collegial relations between supervisors and teachers, cooperative discovery of meaning, and development of individually unique teaching styles.
Humanistic /Artistic Models	The perspectives of Blumberg and Eisner are based on existential and aesthetic principles. These models forsake step-by-step procedures and emphasize open interpersonal relations and personal intuition, artistry, and idiosyncrasy. Supervisors are encouraged to help teachers understand the expressive and artistic richness of teaching.
Technical/ Didactic Models	The works of Acheson and Gall, Hunter, and Joyce and Showers draw on process-product and effective teaching research from the 1970s. These models emphasize techniques of observation and feed-back that reinforce certain "effective" behaviors or predetermined models of teaching to which teachers attempt to conform.
Developmental/ Reflective Models	The models of Glickman, Costa and Garmston,Schön, Zeichner and Liston, Garman, Smyth, Retallick, and Bowers and Flinders are sensitive to individual differences and the organzational, social, political, and cultural contexts of teaching. These models call for supervisors to encourage reflection and introspection among teachers in order to foster professional growth, discover context-specific principles of practice, and promote justice and equity.

Note. Adapted from "Clinical Supervision and Teacher Development Preservice and Inservice Applications." by Acheson, K., & Gall, M, (2011).6, p. 12. Copyright 2011 by John Wiley & Sons.

These four approaches of clinical supervision differ in their purpose, type of data collected, procedures for recording, teachers' and supervisors' control and the organization of pre- and post- lesson conferences. These models will be discussed in details.

2.4.1. Original models of clinical Supervision: The Goldhammer and Cogan model.

According to Pajak (2003), the original models of clinical supervision developed by Cogan and Goldhammer aim at enhancing teachers' professional development through collegial relationship and cooperative discovery of meaning. The Supervisors' role is to encourage teachers to build on their strengths and come up with alternatives for improvement through democratic dialogue. The model is used with all teachers regardless of their individual differences.

There are eight steps in the original Goldhammer and Cogan clinical supervision model (Stones, 1984; Reiman & Sprinthall, 1998).

1. Establishing a helping and trusting relationship
During this phase there should be planning for the preferred way of communication, building trust, providing clarifications of the clinical process and establishing expectations.

2. Planning lessons and units with the teacher
During this phase there will be a discussion of the lesson objectives, teaching strategies, anticipated problems and special learning circumstances.

3. Planning for the observation
During this phase there should be an agreement of the observation focus (what will be observed and how the data will be collected).

4. Observing the instruction
Watching the lesson and recording data.

5. Analyzing the data for important patterns in the teaching process
The supervisor and the teacher independently analyze the data from instruction.

6. Planning for the conference
The supervisor and teacher set separate plans on what was achieved and what areas could be targeted for future growth.

7. Conferencing to review the classroom event
The supervisor and supervisee meet to discuss their analysis of the classroom observation.

8. Renewed planning
Both colleagues agree on new steps for future growth and clinical cycle targets. A written plan could be established to identify specific points for the upcoming observation cycle (Stones, 1984; Reiman & Sprinthall, 1998).

2.4.2. Original models: the Goldhammer, Anderson, and Krajewski Model.

Despite the various models of clinical supervision which were proposed in the last decades, the Goldhammer, Anderson, and Krajewski clinical supervision model is the most widely known, as it contains the essential stages of clinical supervision (Pajak, 2003). Goldhammer's model of clinical supervision consists of five stages, including the pre-observation conference, the classroom observation, the observation conference, data analysis and the post observation conference (Hopkins & Moore, 1992).

1. Pre- observation Stage:

In the pre-observation stage the supervisor and the teacher establish a good rapport and build a reference for the observation. The supervisor and supervisee discuss the observation targets, methods of collecting data and what is to be done with the collected data (Hopkins & Moore, 1992).

2. Observation Stage:

During the observation stage, the supervisor should collect data using observation checklists and video or audiotape recordings according to what has been agreed upon with the teacher in the pre-observation conference. The supervisor should not interfere in the classroom activities or interact with the students (Hopkins & Moore, 1992).

3. Analysis and Strategy Stage:

The supervisor should label the collected data, analyze and categorize them according to the targets and actions agreed upon in the pre-observation conference. The teachers should also have self-analysis of the observation data. They should highlight some areas of strength and areas of growth if possible (Hopkins & Moore, 1992). According to Pajak (2003), the supervisor should plan for the post-observation conference according to the analyzed data.

4. Post-observation Conference:

In the post-observation conference, the teacher and supervisor should discuss the observed lesson. The teacher should be asked to reflect on and explain his/her classroom practice. The teacher and the supervisor should agree on some areas that can be improved and followed in the coming clinical classroom visits (Fritz, 2003; Marzano et al, 2011; Prosper, 2007).

5. Post-conference analysis:

According to Prosper (2007), the supervisor should ask the teacher to reflect and provide feedback on the supervisory conference and the supervisory techniques used.

2.4.3. Artistic/Humanistic models: Elliot Eisner and Arthur Blumberg

According to Pajak (2003), Baily (2006) and Kayaoglu (2012), the artistic supervision focuses on establishing human relationship with the teacher through a teacher centered supervision. The artistic supervisor respects teachers' concerns and dignity. Supervisors support teachers in understanding the richness of instructional methods. They encourage teachers to utilize their talents and aspirations to enhance their instructional growth. The main assumptions of artistic supervision are as follows:

1. All human beings have the power of solving their problems and have the freedom to come up with their alternative idiosyncratic choices (Baily, 2006).

2. The artistic supervisor should be committed to democratic work with teachers, able to question their own practice and others' practice, aspire others, establish a strong human relation with others, listen and learn from others and be committed to self-improvement (Baily, 2006; Kayaoglu, 2012).

3. The step by step process which is in the original models is replaced with open interpersonal relationship, creativity and idiosyncrasy.

This model relies on qualitative data analysis. Teaching isn't considered to be a science, but an art which can't be subjected to quantitative analysis (Pajak, 2003).

2.4.4. Technical/Didactic (Science of Teaching): Acheson and Gall Model.

Technical didactic clinical supervision focuses on classroom observation techniques and procedures. It focuses on procedures that enhance teachers' reflection through face to face interactive interactions. Acheson and Gall (2011) stated that they:

> propose an alternative model of supervision that is interactive rather than directive, democratic rather than authoritarian, and teacher-centered rather than supervisor-centered. This supervisory style is called clinical supervision. (p. 6)

The Acheson and Gall model aims at enhancing teachers' growth through formative supervision by adopting cycles of clinical classroom observations (Pajak, 2003). They have condensed the stages of clinical supervision to three main stages: planning conference, observation and feedback conference. (Acheson & Gall, 2011; Bourgeois, 2006).

2.4.5. The Hunter model

Hunter is well known for her decision making model, which she named Instructional Theory Into Practice. She has developed with her colleagues a set of prescriptive instructional practices to help teachers decide on their instructional needs. Hunter has developed a set of seven practices for lesson design;(the anticipatory set, the statement of objective, instructional input, modeling, checking for understanding , guided practice, and independent practice) (Danielson & McGreal, 2000). Teachers can decide which aspect of the seven elements they may choose. Thus, she has developed a model of clinical supervision that discards the pre-observation conference because teachers have already a prescribed model to choose from. She believed that "Today with our knowledge of cause-effect relationships between teaching and learning and of the way formative evaluation increases teaching effectiveness, it is time to discard the time consuming pre-observation conference" (Hunter,1986,p.69).

The model was widely accepted but wasn't free from criticism. Pavan (1986) stated that

> By rejecting the central tenet of clinical supervision, that of true collaboration, she confuses others as to the meaning of clinical supervision. If Hunter doesn't wish to incorporate the collaborative aspect of clinical supervision into her supervision model, mightn't she find a different term to describe it? (p.67)

Hunter (1986) explained that the pre lesson conference is a waste of the third of the time that can be spent for the observation and post-observation conferences. Also, she believes that deciding an observation focus can cause bias as the observed teacher can use it excessively. The observer also will focus only on one aspect and ignore other classroom elements and this may affect the analysis of the observation as things don't occur in isolation. Lordon (1986) believes that the pre-observation conferences place "teaching episodes in context and enhance the supervisors' supportive role"(p.70). He thinks that the supervisors' role isn't only to analyze and provide feedback according to sets of prescribed standards. The pre-lesson conference provides the supervisor with the classroom context, methods of assessments and helps bring up teachers' concerns for the observer to agree on observation focus.

2.4.6. Developmental/Reflective models: Glickman, Costa, Garmston Model.

According to Glickman & Gordon (1987) "Supervisors should match their assistance to teachers' conceptual levels, but with the ultimate goal of teachers taking charge of their own improvement."(p.64). The main focus of developmental supervision is matching the

supervisory technique with teachers' professional development levels. Teachers differ in their level of professional development in many aspects. According to Glickman & Gordon (1987) Teachers differ in the way they perceive their role and the way they relate to their students and colleagues according to their different background and different contexts. They also differ in their ability to analyze and reflect on their classroom data. Thus, teachers require different methods of supervision that suit their level of professional development. For example, new teachers need a more directive approach and teachers with a high level of professional development need a more independent role in decision making. (Pajak, 2003; Waite, 1995).

According to Glickman and Gordon (1987), Glickman (1980) and Glickman (2002) the supervisor should use three phases of developmental supervision: diagnostic, tactical and strategic.

Table 2 Phases of Developmental Supervision

Phase	Purpose	Goal	Supervisory Technique
1. Diagnostic	Functional and develop-mental	Increase teacher abstraction and self-direction.	Observe and interact with teachers
2. Tactical	Functional	Meet instructional need/solve instructional problem	Match supervisory approach (directive , collaborative, or non-directive) to teacher level of abstraction (low, moderate, or high.)
3. Strategic	Develop-mental	Increase teacher abstraction and self-direction	Gradual exposure to new ideas: Incremental decrease in structure, increase in teacher responsibility, optimal mismatches with other teachers

Note. Adapted from "Clarifying Developmental Supervision," by Glickman, C., & Gordon, S, 1987, Education Leadership, p. 67. Copyright by The Association of Supervision and Curriculum Department.

In the first phase, the supervisor should diagnose the teachers' level of abstraction. Glickman (2002) considers abstraction as the teachers' ability to identify their instructional challenges and come up with various alternatives. He classifies teachers according to their level of abstraction into low, moderate and high level of abstraction. He mentioned two ways for identifying teachers' level of abstraction, asking the teachers set of questions and using classroom observation.

There are two ways to identify the teachers' level of abstraction. The supervisor may talk with the teachers and ask them a set of questions about areas they think can be improved in their instruction and how can they improve them. Another method of identifying teachers' levels of abstraction is observing teachers when teaching. The supervisor may use classroom observation to analyze the teachers' behavior in terms of their ability to change their instructions when their plan isn't working and how they justify these changes.

After diagnosing the teachers' level of abstraction the supervisor should move to the next phase which is the tactical phase (see Table 2). In the tactical phase, the supervisor should match his supervisory approach with the teachers' level of abstraction. Glickman (2002) mentioned four approaches to developmental supervision: directive control, directive informational, collaborative and non-directive.
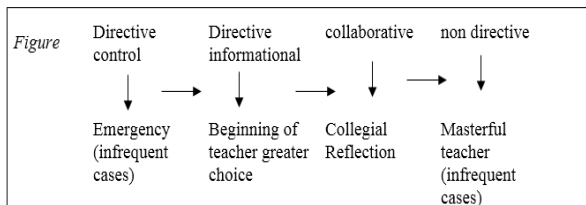
Figure 1 Moving Toward Teacher Control on the Leader Behavior Continuum

Improving teachers' control. Adapted from "Leadership for Learning: How to Help Teachers Succeed,"by C. Glickman, (2002), p. 84. Copyright by Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

The first approach, which is the directive control, means that the supervisor directs the teacher towards following some procedures or instructional methods. Glickman (2002) insisted on using this approach rarely, only when needed. He stated that:

> This approach should be used only in an emergency situation in which a teacher is overwhelmed, paralyzed, totally inexperienced, or incompetent in the current classroom situation .In essence, such controlled assignments have as their goal to save the students by keeping the teacher from drowning in a sea of ineffectual practice. (P. 83).

The second approach is the directive informational. This approach means that the supervisor provides alternative methods of instructions and asks the teacher to choose one of them. According to Glickman (2002), the directive informational approach should be used rarely, like the directive control.

The third approach is the collaborative approach. This approach means that the teacher and the supervisor work as equals in generating ideas and designing a future enhancement plan. This approach should be used often with most teachers as it enhances collaboration and empowers teachers.

The fourth approach is the non-directive approach. According to Glickman (2002) the nondirective approach is used with experienced, masterful teachers whose knowledge could be more than the supervisor. The supervisors' role is to facilitate the teachers' growth and provide their needed resources. The supervisor should encourage the teachers and lead them to provide alternatives and decide themselves on enhancement plans (Glickman & Gordon, 1987).

After matching the supervisory approach with the teachers' level of abstraction, the supervisor should move to the third phase of developmental supervision as previously mentioned in Table 2.2 . The third phase is the strategic phase. This phase is a long term plan in which the supervisor exposes the teacher to different ideas and gradually increases the role of the teacher and reduces the role of the supervisor (Glickman & Gordon, 1987). As we can see the main difference of the developmental approaches to clinical supervision from other models is taking into consideration teachers' individual differences.

2.4.7. Pavan model.
Pavan has restructured clinical supervision models for the 1990s. He realized that other aspects of supervision have entered the field, like coaching, mentoring and peer coaching. (Bourgeois, 2006). He divided the stages into four simple stages:

1. Plan: Review the intended lesson context and discuss the focus jointly with the observer. An observation focus is determined by the observer and the teacher.

2. Observe: Collect data related to the previously agreed observation focus.

3. Analyze: Interpret collected data according to the plan, instructional theory and research.

4. Feedback: Share collected data and analysis with the teacher and jointly design a future enhancement plan.

Pavan (1993) declared that "in order to remove the discomfort experienced by teachers and administrators as they coach teachers, a structure is needed. Clinical Supervision, with its emphasis on collaboration and feedback of non-judgmental data, provides such a structure" (as cited in Bourgeois, 2006, P.43). Table (3) below shows clinical supervision models as described by four experts.

Table 3 The Process of Clinical Supervision as Described by Four Experts

Goldhammer	Cogan	Acheson and Gall	Pavan
Stages	Phases	Phases	Elements
Pre-Observation	Establish relationship Planning with teacher Planning the observation	Planning Conference	Plan
Observation	Observation	Classroom observation	Observe
Analysis and strategy	Analysis session Planning conference strategy		Analyse
Supervision conference	Conference Renewed planning	Feedback conference	Feedback
Post conference analysis			Reflect

Note. Adapted from "Diversifying Supervision for Maximum Professional Growth: Is a Well Supervised Teacher a Satisfied Teacher?," by Robinson, S. 1998, p.7. Copyright 1998 by the Educational Resource Information Centre.

In conclusion, all clinical supervision models focus on classroom observation techniques. The main difference is the number and order of classroom observation stages and teachers' and supervisors' control of the conferences.

2.6. Supervisory Conferences' Techniques
As we have already discussed in the literature review that, clinical supervision focuses on face to face collegial interaction between the teacher and the observer during the supervisory conferences or pre and post-classroom observation discussions. Clinical supervision offers a simple structure for coaches and mentors to follow during the classroom observation phases. It also offers some supervisory techniques to be followed by observers to achieve effective supervisory conferences. In this section, the pre-lesson conference techniques, data collection techniques and post lesson conference techniques will be discussed.

2.6.1 Pre- lesson conference techniques:
1. Discussing with the teacher her/his feelings about being observed
The supervisor should discuss the teachers' feelings about being observed. This may remove any anxiety and fear of being observed (Reiman &Sprinthal, 1998).

2. Deciding the observation focus
The main aim of clinical supervision is to improve teachers' instructional performance through increasing teachers' reflectivity. Helping teachers to identify their professional development concerns could be a way to accomplish this goal.

According to Glickman (2002) during the pre-lesson discussion the supervisor and the observed teacher should establish an observation focus. The supervisor can ask the teachers to think of their areas of strength and areas of difficulty. According to Acheson and Gall (2011) some experienced teachers might be good reflectors and can state their concerns easily. Some teachers might think that they are doing their work effectively and they don't face any challenges. However, there is always a chance for development in teaching. Then, the supervisor can suggest a wide lens technique. This means that the supervisor will observe the class for general purpose to identify with the teacher areas of satisfaction and areas of improvement. The supervisor also can provide the teacher with a checklist of concerns. This may help teachers find some areas of their strengths and areas that can be improved. According to Jenkins, Hamrick, & Todorovich (2002) and Acheson (2011) the supervisor and the teacher should determine the observation focus during this stage. Also, the supervisor can assist novice teachers in planning the lesson as they are inexperienced and need more mentoring role.

3. Statement of Purpose
The supervisor should state the classroom observation purpose. The purpose can be to enhance teachers' professional development or to evaluate their progress in specific areas. If the purpose is for professional development then the teacher and the supervisor should establish a classroom visit focus. The focus could be related to the teachers' concerns as previously discussed or related to the previous visits' agreed areas of improvement. If the purpose is to evaluate teachers' progress then the supervisor should inform the teachers that the visit is to evaluate their progress in a specified area (Glickman, 2002; Reiman & Sprinthall, 1998)

4. Clarifying Classroom observation context
The supervisor should discuss with the teacher the lesson learning outcomes, teaching plan and strategies to be familiar with the observed lesson context and how the teacher is going to measure students learning outcomes. (Reiman &Sprinthal,1998). The supervisor should also decide with the teacher the time and place for conducting the observation and the post lesson discussion (Glickman, 2002). Acheson and Gall (2011) believed that:

> It is important to arrange a mutually convenient time for classroom observation. Teachers are resentful when supervisors come to their room unannounced. Indeed, our experience indicates that few things disturb teachers more than unannounced visits by a supervisor or other individual in a position of authority. Teachers need to feel that the supervisor respects them as professionals and as people with first-line responsibility for their classrooms. They are not likely to feel this way if a supervisor pops in anytime he or she wishes to do so. (p. 147).

5. Choosing the observation instrument
Glickman (2002) mentioned that the supervisor should sit with the teacher during the pre-observation conference to determine the observation form and methodology. According to Acheson and Gall (2011) the supervisor can ask the observed teacher to choose the data collection instrument from various forms or can design a form with the observed teacher that suits the observation focus.

> If the teacher and supervisor use the conference only to talk about instruction, the conversation might drift into vague generalities and abstractions. Selecting an observation instrument brings the teacher "down to earth" by focusing attention on the observable realities of classroom instruction. (Acheson & Gall, 2011, p.149).

6. Preparing the teacher for self analysis
The supervisor should provide the teacher with a self analysis sheet to be filled by the teacher before the post-observation discussion and remind the teacher that the observer and the observed teacher will share their analysis in the post lesson discussion. (Reiman & Sprinthall, 1998). Reiman & Sprinthal (1998) believe that providing

the teacher with self analysis sheet increases teachers' self reflection.

2.6.2. Classroom Observation Techniques:
The previous section was about some effective supervisory techniques to be used during the pre-lesson conference. This section will clarify data collection techniques to be used during the actual classroom observation. Reiman &Sprinthal (1998) classify classroom observation techniques into qualitative, qualitative-quantitative and quantitative observation techniques. According to Reiman & Sprinthall (1998), data collection methods are like video recording an event. When the camera is set in a wide lens it provides a wider picture and a comprehensive sight. It provides a picture of everything happening in the classroom. On the other hand, the narrow lens camera focuses only on some selected aspects of the events. It records specific elements of the event. Thus, qualitative methods are called wide lens techniques as the observer records general data about the classroom. The quantitative methods are called narrow lens techniques as the observer selects some aspects of the classroom instruction to focus on during the observation.

2.6.2.1. Qualitative methods.
Qualitative methods provide a general data of the whole classroom observation events. Reiman and Sprinthall (1998) mentioned various examples of qualitative methods like video and audio recordings, narrative observations and focused questionnaires. Video and audio recording is useful in providing more detailed observations, especially for novice teachers who need more training in recalling classroom events and increasing their self-reflection. Audio recording can help the teacher focus on analyzing their own performance. In narrative observations, the supervisor can record the most important events in the classroom that appear to be worthy of recording. This method helps the supervisor record more data that can't be recorded with checklists. Focused questionnaires depend on answering some questions about the lesson. They can guide the qualitative data recording (Reiman &Sprinthall, 1998).

2.6.2.2. Qualitative / Quantitative methods.
1. Verbatim observations
In verbatim observations, the observer records what the teacher and students say during the lesson (Neide, 1996). It's difficult to script all the lesson discourse, thus the supervisor may use abbreviations. This method has some limitations, like requiring recording speed to record all verbal behaviors in the classroom. It may also provide extended data that is difficult to analyze for specific information.

2. Selective verbatim observations
Instead of recording all classroom discourse the teacher might be willing to investigate some verbal behaviors like reinforcement. Reiman & Sprinthal (1998) believe that this method provides focused data for the teacher and increases teaching efficiency. According to Acheson and Gall (2011), selective verbatim observations can be used to transcribe various elements of verbal behaviors like teachers' questions, teachers' task structuring statements, teachers' feedback statements and teachers' classroom management statements. Teachers questions can be analyzed in terms of their cognitive level or quantity.

2.6.2.3. Quantitative (Narrow Lens) observation systems.
Quantitative methods of data collection record frequency of specific instructional behaviors. There are three types of quantitative observation techniques: Categorical frequency format and visual diagramming (Reiman & Sprinthall, 1998).

1. Categorical frequency format
The observer identifies a set of behaviors to be recorded with the teacher. When these behaviors appear in the classroom the observer tallies or marks in a sheet. Then, after the observation the observer finds out the frequency of the classroom behavior. This method can be used to find various elements like the most

dominant types of questions the observed teacher is using (memory, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis or evaluation) (Reiman &Sprinthal, 1998).

2. Visual Diagramming
This method requires the observer to draw a picture of specific classroom events such as student teacher interactions or students' movements in the classroom. For example, the observer can select to record students' participation opportunities based on their location in classroom, gender or ethnicity (Reiman & Sprinthal, 1998).

According to Acheson and Gall (2011), seating charts can be used to collect data about various aspects of instruction. The supervisor can use seating charts to record data about students who are working at task and those who are doing something else that isn't related to the task assigned by the teacher like sleeping or chatting. This method can help in recognizing students' engagement time in the lesson. The supervisor can also indicate students' classroom movement patterns. Recording students' movement in class can help the teacher analyze efficient data to improve classroom management.

2.6.3. Post- lesson conference techniques.
1. Eliciting teachers' emotions and opinions
Supervisors should elicit teachers' feelings about the observational data. Some teachers hold very positive views about their instructional performance. They feel anxious if they see observational data that contradicts their views. Thus, supervisors should always bring teachers' feelings and anxieties into discussion and acknowledge whatever they say. This process helps relieve teachers from their anxieties and help them find solutions for their concerns and bring up a constructive change (Acheson & Gall, 2011).

The supervisor should ask the teachers about the aspects they want to talk about and the aspects they want to change. These questions encourage teachers to reflect on their practice. Acheson & Gall (2011) stated that they "have asked these questions of hundreds of teachers—primary, intermediate, secondary, and college—who have examined observational data on their teaching behavior. No one has answered all the questions with 'I wouldn't change a thing.' (p.152).

Supervisors should provide teachers with the observational data so they can analyze it and draw conclusions. According to Pajak (2001) the main element of successful implementation of clinical supervision is to understand the teacher's perception of the data collected by the supervisor. The major assumption of clinical supervision as previously discussed is that teachers are capable of reflecting on their classroom performance and are responsible for their instructional growth. However, according to Acheson and Gall (2011), some supervisors show their own conclusions by searching the observational data for evidence. This reverses the supervision process and doesn't help teachers in developing their instructional performance. Teachers may become defensive as they feel judged by their supervisors.

According to Acheson and Gall (2011) some supervisors tend to give advice to teachers. He argues that teaching isn't a fixed physical exercise in which the coach can give a consistent straight forward advice. He also believes that giving teachers advice invalidate the supervision process. He thinks that there are always alternatives for teaching anything and giving prescriptive advice makes teachers feel suspicious about the supervisors' experience. Acheson and Gall (2011) believe that supervisors should ask teachers to provide alternative methods for the things they think that need to be changed. This method helps teachers question their own practice and generate new ideas. According to Reiman and Sprinthall (1998), the supervisor and the teacher should establish a focus for the next clinical observation cycles. The teacher can conclude the discussion by restating the discussion- agreed points of areas that need to be changed and state them as the focus for the next observation cycle.

2. Providing the teacher with objective observational data

According to Acheson and Gall (2011), the observer should provide the teacher with objective data as soon as possible after the classroom observation. This makes the teacher feel that the data is objective and helps teachers in analyzing their own classroom performance. If the data contain some symbols the supervisor should remind the teacher of their meaning. The supervisor should ask the teacher to describe what the data reveals but not to evaluate it. Acheson and Gall (2011) believed that:

> Many teachers feel defensive as they enter the feedback conference, because they see it as an evaluation of their competence. Their defensiveness will worsen if they perceive the observational data to be subjective, inaccurate, or irrelevant. Therefore, an objective record of classroom events—such as is provided by videotaping, audiotaping, or selective verbatim transcript—is crucial. Teachers might be surprised by what the data reveal, but they generally will accept the data as valid and instructive. (p.150)

2.7. Criticizing Clinical Supervision

Clinical supervision has been criticized by various researchers. Díaz-Maggioli (2004) stated that:

> It has been criticized for reducing observation to a series of prescribed steps and fostering an imbalance of power with the teacher being disempowered and the coach setting the agenda. This is still the most common type of supervision, largely because of its' focus on teacher improvement. (p.83).

Garman (1990) has criticized clinical developmental and differentiated supervisors as instrumentalists and over technical. According to Stones (1984) clinical supervision for pre-service education focuses on steps and procedures and it doesn't have direct feedback on students' learning. Stones (1984) believes that clinical supervision "may achieve good interpersonal relationships and highly satisfactory supervisory procedures but leave unaddressed the complex question of the theoretical premises about pupil learning upon which our counseling and guidance are based."(p.35).

If we want to summarize the criticism we can say that clinical supervision was criticized for disempowering teachers as the supervisor is the dominant figure in all observation stages, being technical by using prescribed steps and not having a direct influence on students' work. In fact this is against various research results on clinical supervision that we have already discussed in the previous sections.

If we want to understand the real concepts of clinical supervision we need to understand the word "clinical" itself. This term has confused various researchers. According to Prosper (2007) the word "clinical" implies disease and even manipulation. Prosper (2007) believes that we need to understand the main assumptions of clinical supervision to understand the word "clinical". Goldhammer defines clinical supervision as "Close observation, detailed observational data, face-to-face interaction between supervisor and teacher, and an intensity of focus that binds the two in an intimate professional relationship" (as cited in Prosper, 2007.p.54).

Thus, the word "clinical", according to the definition means real or direct observation to the real world. Prosper (2007) believes that collegiality is the main assumption of clinical supervision. This is clarified more by Acheson and Gall (2011), who declared that they are using the word "clinical" because it was suggested by the original founders of clinical supervision. They stated that they:

> use the label clinical supervision because our model is based directly on the methods developed and so named by Robert Goldhammer, Morris Cogan, and other teacher educators who coordinated the Master of Arts in Teaching program at the Harvard School of Education in the 1960s. The word clinical

sometimes connotes pathology, which is inappropriate in the context of our model of clinical supervision. We certainly do not wish you to think that clinical supervision is a remedy applied by the supervisor to deficient or unhealthy behavior exhibit-d by the teacher. Instead, we use the term clinical to suggest a face to face relationship between the teacher and the supervisor and a focus on the teacher's actual behavior in the classroom. (Acheson & Gall, 2011.p.6).

In conclusion, clinical supervision means gathering and analyzing objective data from the classroom in a collegial relationship between the supervisor and teacher. It doesn't mean disempowering teachers and treating them like patients.

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