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Educational Supervision

A Guidebook

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Introduction

Inclusive education in Poland faces many opportunities and challenges that call for novel approaches and solutions. One of the key tools that can contribute to more effective implementation and promotion of inclusive education is supervision. It is a mechanism that empowers educators to cultivate the competences requisite for effectively engaging with students exhibiting differentiated learning needs. The word "supervision" comes from English (Popiel, Pragłowska, 2013), which, in turn, has its roots in Latin (*super-* means "above," "over;" while *videre*, *visio* means "observe," "view," or "see").

The pilot project of the Functioning Model of Specialised Support Centres for Inclusive Education (Polish: *Specjalistyczne Centra Wspierające Edukację Włączającą*, henceforth abbreviated as SCWEW) cover educational supervision among other things. The project was implemented in 23 centres across Poland and included training sessions for SCWEW leaders on issues such as Supportive Observation and Educational Supervision.

Research to date points to the comprehensive benefits of integrating supervision into educational practices, including its positive impact on teachers' development through building their professional identity, supporting personal growth, enhancing decision-making skills, and facilitating the socialisation process. At the core of the supervisory methodology lies the active participation of educators in constructive dialogues which empower them to autonomously guide and refine their professional practices.

Supervisors, acting as facilitators, provide support to teachers in reflecting on their own practice. This support is particularly important owing to rapidly changing educational environments, requiring teachers to continually adapt their teaching methods to meet new challenges and student needs. Practice to date has focused on the developing aspects of supervision in the education sector, highlighting the importance of providing teachers with easy access to this type of support. Diverse forms of supervision are offered, flexibly tailored to the individual needs and participant requirements at distinct levels. It is emphasised that building an atmosphere of mutual trust between teachers and supervisors is

instrumental in an effective supervision process. Such an atmosphere fosters openness and honesty in communication, enabling a deeper analysis and understanding of one's own teaching practices. This guidebook points out that supervision should be seen not as a tool for teacher assessment, but as a practice to support teachers' professional and personal development.

Ultimately, this guidebook plays a role of introduction to the role of supervision in education, offering both theoretical underpinnings and practical insights that can help effectively implement supervision as a developmental tool in educational settings.

This book aims not only to outline the current landscape of educational supervision in Poland, but also to showcase its potential as a tool for assisting teachers and school principals in working with students with differentiated educational needs. We would also like to emphasise the relevance of appropriate legal regulations and the need for work-life balance protection for teachers, which is integral to the effective functioning of an inclusive education system.

This book has six chapters. The first three explore educational supervision from both a conceptual and theoretical angle. Chapter One describes the implementation of the pilot project of the Model of Operation of Specialised Support Centres for Inclusive Education (SCWEW) in Poland in the years 2021–2023. It pioneered the integration of supervision into teacher development activities. Chapter Two focuses on the concept of supervision itself, its role in professions involving various forms of assistance, as in psychotherapy and social work. The chapter further discusses the theoretical foundations of supervision, the role of supervisors, and the future of educational supervision in general. Chapter Three looks at the role of supervision in the professional development of teachers, including in the new system of teacher promotion in Poland, and outlines possible strategies for teacher development.

Chapter Four and Chapter Five provide an insight into the authors' own research into teachers' attitudes towards supervision. The former presents the purpose of the study of teachers' attitudes towards supervision, research problems, methodology and tools, followed by a discussion of research arrangement and the research area, along with the characteristics of the respondents. The latter chapter discusses research results, based on data obtained with the questionnaire, The Scale of Attitudes to Educational Supervision [*Skala Postaw Wobec Superwizji w Edukacji* and the Survey Metrics [*Metryczka*].

Chapter Six offers concluding remarks. It contains further discussion of the research outcomes and related conclusions. Besides, the guidebook has Conclusions and References, along with a list of all tables and figures used.

This monograph work is designed as a resource and source of inspiration primarily for teachers and school administrators who seek to foster inclusive education and enhancing professional development. It is also addressed to su-

pervision professionals and leaders, as well as educational policy makers, who have the capacity to implement effective legislation to support the development of inclusive education. Moreover, the guidebook can serve as a valuable resource for researchers and students of education and educational psychology, as it offers the theoretical foundations and practical guidance on the effective use of supervision as a developmental tool in education contexts.

Chapter I.
Supervision in professional support

Educational supervision in education plays a key role in providing quality education and support for teachers and professionals working in the school environment. It enables analysing pedagogical practice, identifying difficulties and improving professional competence. Supervision is an important tool for supporting both teachers and school management, helping them to deal effectively with the challenges arising from the dynamic changes in the education system.

The contemporary approach to educational supervision combines elements of reflective practice, emotional support and monitoring of pedagogical quality. Through regular supervision sessions, teachers have the opportunity to discuss professional difficulties, analyse their teaching activities and search for optimal teaching methods. An important aspect of supervision is that it fosters growth of interpersonal competences and abilities to work in a diversified educational environment, including inclusive education and work with students with special educational needs.

The aim of this chapter is to outline the importance of supervision in different areas of education, to discuss its functions and the methods used in the supervision process.

Application of supervision in different areas of professional support

Supervision in psychotherapy

Psychotherapy is indisputably a multifaceted and intricate process, demanding psychotherapists to demonstrate a diverse range of competences. These include a profound respect for scientific research methodologies, the integration of contemporary diagnostic knowledge, assessment techniques and therapeutic interventions, as well as advanced interpersonal communication skills. Additionally, it necessitates a keen sense of timing, the capacity for ethical discernment, heightened self-awareness, adeptness in navigating relationships with both pa-

tients and colleagues and sensitivity to cultural variances (Kaslow, 2004; Keegan, 2013). Supervision, too, is a complex and manifold process, wherein the perspectives of its three primary participants – the patient, the therapist and the supervisor – must be considered. Each of these parties brings distinct dynamics into the supervisory process as they employ distinct modes of functioning. For this reason, supervision is more unpredictable and may lead to unexpected situations. Its effectiveness is determined by the interaction between the diverse experiences and perspectives of each process participant (Woźniak, 2023).

In his 2013 analysis, Eduardo Keegan talks about supervision as a key element in the training of psychotherapists. According to Keegan, supervision plays a critical role in maintaining continuity and upholding high standards of care among psychotherapists. It ensures their effectiveness, efficiency, dedication, passion and empathy in addressing patients' concerns, while also ensuring their adherence to ethical principles. The author highlights that the pursuit and exploration of optimal methods of psychotherapist training is not only scientifically justified but also ethically imperative.

Supervision research is in its infancy, and it seems crucial to identify the necessary competences that therapists need to acquire and to identify the most effective strategies of teaching them. Keegan underscores that a supervisor should not be regarded as a guru, but rather as a researcher and a clinician attuned to maintaining therapeutic integrity within a specific theoretical model. At the same time, they must remain open to understanding the rationale behind a therapist's decision to combine strategies stemming from various psychotherapeutic traditions.

Keegan also highlights that supervision serves a dual purpose: it functions as both personal therapy for the therapist and as training in therapeutic techniques. While addressing the therapist's personal issues is crucial, it alone is insufficient to transform a novice into a competent practitioner of psychotherapy. The author emphasises that a growing body of scientific evidence supports the effectiveness of supervision in growing therapists' competence and improving the overall efficiency of their therapeutic practice. The effectiveness of supervision has been positively evaluated by both psychotherapy students and established experts in the field.

Speaking of the role of supervisors in the process, their preparation to initiate and guide discussions on diversity is of paramount importance. Supervisors must be acutely aware of the considerable power that they wield over the professional development of their supervisees, especially in the context of evaluations and summaries of the therapeutic work done by novice therapists. Their actions can profoundly impact the trajectory of the supervisee's professional growth. Furthermore, supervisors bear the responsibility of cultivating and sustaining a safe, supportive and developmentally enriching environment, one

that offers supervisees optimal conditions for learning how to conduct effective therapies (Kaslow et al., 2007; Keegan, 2013). Simultaneously, supervisors are required to identify significant issues and deficiencies in therapeutic practice and to take appropriate corrective measures. They are tasked with safeguarding professional standards by intervening when supervisees are either unable or unwilling to make necessary adjustments to their professional conduct. Supervisors must also establish clear benchmarks for ethical decision-making, continuous self-learning, awareness of current trends and developments in their region, and the ability to maintain appropriate professional boundaries. It is essential to prevent the supervision process from devolving into a supervisee's personal therapy. Additionally, supervisors should demonstrate skill in interdisciplinary collaboration and consultation, as these are critical components of effective supervisory practice (Kaslow et al., 2007; Keegan, 2013).

Supervision in social work

The concept of supervision in social work was originally outlined by Alfred Kadusin and grafted to the Polish ground by Jerzy Szmagalski (Dybowska & Wojtanowicz, 2020; Ścigaj, 2020). In a historical context, the practice of supervision, which emerged in the 19th century among English and American charity organizations, evolved from a mechanism for overseeing the efforts of volunteers facilitating aid to the impoverished into a multifaceted and comprehensive practice. This evolution was particularly pronounced within charitable societies. Back then, females of means often signed up as volunteers to work for the poor and excluded, often acting as supervisors for social workers. Their actions were aimed at controlling and ensuring the effectiveness of social work. Therefore, supervision can be said to have functioned as a management instrument. In 1917, Mary Richmond pioneered and employed a method known as social casework, which subsequently became a foundational element in the practice of social work (van Hees, 2013). In the 1930s, a new element emerged in the field of social work supervision: the concept of professional self. In 1936, Virginia Robinson introduced the concept of social worker as an instrumental figure in the social work process. Godelieve van Hees (2013) underscores the significance of learning as an effective instrument in interactions with others. Self-reflection and understanding of one's own socialization process emerged as pivotal objectives of supervision. The relational dimension of supervision consequently gained prominence, becoming an essential condition for the rendering of effective social work services. Psychoanalytic influences and the counselling methods in humanistic psychology, as represented by Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers, were ranked among the elements defining the very essence of supervision. Kadushin

(Kadushin & Harkness, 2002) identified a third aspect of supervision: support. The inherent complexity and demanding nature of the social work profession led to the integration of support as a fundamental aspect of supervisors' responsibilities in their conceptual development. Over time, as social work evolved, supervision took on additional developmental and educational dimensions, including the new ways of working and enhancing workers' capacity. The influence of psychoanalysis contributed to the transformation of supervision into a form of therapy for people working in the field. From the 1980s onwards, emphasis was placed on administrative aspects, thus altering the dynamics of social work (Szmagalski after Domaradzki et al., 2016).

The contemporary approach (Tsui, 2005) to supervision highlights its three main aspects: personal, professional and organisational. Personal supervision focuses on the emotional aspects of work; professional supervision prioritises the development of worker's competence; organisational supervision focuses on the administrative, efficiency and quality aspects of social services. Philip Rich (1993) proposed an integrated model of supervision which embraces the work environment, relationships, structure, supervision skills, educational aspects and roles of the supervisor. His model emphasises the relevance of fostering a safe and interactive environment, cultivating trusting relationships, and advancing both supervisory and educational competences. Alfred Kadushin (after Domaradzki et al., 2016), an American social work theorist, defines the supervisor as belonging to the administrative staff and being responsible for guiding, coordinating and evaluating social work. He names three functions of supervision: administrative, educational and supportive. British authors Veronica Coulshed and Audrey Mullender (after Domaradzki et al., 2016) stress the critical importance of embedding supervision within the organizational framework, emphasizing its dual role in enhancing staff performance and providing emotional support. Furthermore, they advocate for supervision to become more than a mere oversight instrument but a mechanism for fostering reflective practice. Permutter, Bailey & Netting (2001) divide supervision into managerial and clinical, noting the differences in approaches and required skills.

Given the foregoing, some differences can be noted between traditional and managerial approaches in social aid management, with a tendency towards hierarchical and directive management. Lishman (2002) highlighted the pivotal role of supervision in safeguarding the autonomy of social workers. She stressed its capacity to promote reflective practice and anti-oppressive approaches as key strategies for mitigating the tension between management and professional development. Jerzy Szmagalski (after Domaradzki et al., 2016) links the notion of organisational development with supervisory management, thus emphasising the role of the supervisor as a change broker.

Contemporary supervision rests upon the paradigm of reflective practice. It is defined as the continuous monitoring and adjustment of one's own actions. Inspired by Dewey's theory of reflective thinking, this paradigm integrates theory and practice, thus enabling professional development through the identification, evaluation and modification of pursued theories and practices.

In legal terms, supervision in social assistance in Poland was first defined in Article 121a of the Act on Social Assistance of 12 March 2004. It reads, "… supervision of social work involves the continuous professional development of social workers with a view to maintaining a high level of services provided, sustaining and enhancing professional competence, providing support, identifying sources of workplace challenges, and devising strategies to overcome them…" The currently binding regulation of 2016 defines:

"(1) the objectives, guidelines and standards for supervision of social work, hereinafter referred to as 'supervision';

(2) the minimum training curriculum for social work supervisors, hereinafter referred to as 'supervisors';

(3) the training methods for supervisors, hereinafter referred to as 'training';

(4) the payment of fees for the certification procedure, including for the examination and repeated examination;

(5) the organisation of the examination;

(6) a sample supervisor certificate;

(7) the requirements to be met by applicants seeking approval to provide training services;

(8) the procedure and terms of granting approvals to provide training services;

(9) the requirements to be met by trainers;

(10) the procedure of substantive supervision over training sessions;

(11) the terms of selection of the organisational unit referred to in Article 117(6) of the Act of 12 March 2004 on Social Assistance, hereinafter referred to as "Act," and the terms of its cooperation with the Central Examination Commission for professional degrees awarded to social workers, hereinafter referred to as "Commission," with regard to the organisation of supervisor examinations" (Journal of Laws of 2004, No. 64, item 593).

Definitions and theoretical foundations of supervision

The conceptualization of supervision within an educational context underscores its inherently multidimensional character, integrating diverse terminologies and methodologies. In education, supervision can be said to encompasses a range of practices: from traditional oversight to mentoring and coaching, each of these contributing distinctively to the broader process. Oversight focuses on monitoring and enforcing standards; mentoring provides support and ensures

knowledge transfer; coaching focuses on personal and professional development (Rawati et al., 2022). Supervision is also explained "as a programmed effort to change or improve a person's behaviour in carrying out their primary duties and responsibilities professionally. Alternatively, supervision is the process of assistance, guidance, and coaching from the supervisor (principal) to the teacher to improve the learning process" (Kartini & Susanti, 2019). An analysis of the definitions of supervision in the educational context reveals a notable paucity of Polish research addressing the subject and a more extensive treatment of supervision within international literature and legal frameworks (Chojak, 2021). In a global context, supervision is often equated with control, internal and external evaluation and pedagogical oversight. In this role, supervisors are required to perform three basic tasks: oversight, support and mediation between different administration levels (Nowicka & Wzorek, 2016). This holistic approach to supervision in education emphasises its two main layers: administrative, which focuses on the management and effectiveness of educational systems; and pedagogical, which caters for teachers' professional development and the quality of educational programmes. Consequently, supervision in education seems to be evolving into a holistic strategy that aspires not only to exercise management and control, but also to foster development and ensure assistance within educational institutions.

In this context, it is pertinent to highlight Hanna Kędzierska's compelling conceptualization of the school as a site for teacher learning, a notion that holds significant relevance to the discourse on supervision. The author envisions the school as a natural setting where supervision should be cultivated. Initially, Kedzierska's theory focused on the learning trajectories of novice teachers, but over time it evolved to see learning as a dynamic process related to participation in different communities of practice. She approaches learning as a social process which needs interaction and negotiation of meanings within the said communities. This theory challenges the cognitivist approach to learning, instead emphasising the social and dynamic nature of the process. Furthermore, teacher learning occurs informally and non-formally through everyday routines and interactions. Such an approach stands in clear contrast to earlier perspectives that primarily emphasized the formal acquisition of knowledge (Kedzierska, 2023).

Toh et al. (2022) have yet a different view of the problem. In their approach, supervision is defined as an interventionist method, process and professional activity, grounded in the collaborative relationship between practitioner and supervisor. As part of this process, the practitioner, with the help of the supervisor, analyses his or her work with clients (students and parents in the case of school) while reflecting on his or her own role in the client-practitioner relationship and the systemic context in which he or she works. The goals are to

enhance the quality of professional practice, transform the practitioner's relationship with the student or parent, and foster continuous personal and professional development. Supervision also plays a crucial role in identifying and addressing competence gaps of the practitioner, facilitating both remedial and developmental processes.

When setting supervision in relation to other forms of professional support for teachers, it is important to recognize its distinctive features, particularly in contrast to mentoring and coaching. Whereas mentoring often involves the transfer of knowledge and experience by a more experienced teacher, supervision focuses on reflection on and development of teaching practice. Coaching, on the other hand, is more oriented towards the achievement of specific professional goals and the development of competences, while supervision offers a deeper insight into the teacher's personal and professional career path, practices, concepts and their impact on the teaching process. Moreover, supervision also embeds psycho-educational aspects, thus focusing on the teacher's emotions, attitudes and values (Mańkowska, 2020).

Supervision methods in education and therapy

When seeking exemplary practices, it is worth considering both domestic and international approaches. In the Netherlands, for instance, the supervisory process is long and well-organised. It covers multiple sessions within a clearly defined framework. Within the university setting and similar institutions, supervision serves as a crucial tool for fostering ongoing professional development. Supervisory bodies operate as integral components of professional practice, providing essential services to practitioners. Most supervision practices in the Netherlands are integrated into educational institutions, especially in the domains of social work, psychology, medicine and education, providing support and development for students and professionals. Supervision can be held on a one-to-one basis or in small groups. In undergraduate teaching, group supervision prevails, while individual supervision is preferred in professional contexts. The process takes from six months to a year and consists of 10–15 sessions. Each has three phases: opening, central and closing. The opening phase is an icebreaker and a goal-setting exercise; the central phase focuses on personal and professional integration; and the closing phase is to reflect on the goals achieved. In Dutch supervision, the recording of the learning process and supervisor-supervisee assessment are equally important (van Hees, 2013).

According to the curriculum of first-cycle studies at Zuyd University (van Hees & Geissler-Piltz, 2010), supervision begins when students start their school placements. It is held in a group format: three students and a supervisor. Su-

pervision sessions take place at the school facility every two-three weeks, lasting 1.5 hours each. There is a total of 12 sessions. The university hires both internal and external supervisors. There is also the option of student practice abroad, although this requires resort to different methods of supervision and sometimes the use of e-coaching. What appears rather controversial is the grading system. The supervisor evaluates the students and vice versa. This seems to stray significantly from the core concept of supervision. Nevertheless, research supports the idea that supervision of supervisors is an effective strategy for improving teacher performance. Professionalism and creativity are instrumental in influencing teaching effects. When supervised, teachers are in a position to enhance their excellence (Enny et al., 2024).

Beach & Reinhartz (2000) maintain that supervision can be employed in professional development planning for novice and experienced teachers. Teachers are free to select the best approach to supervision to support their professional development. Tesfaw & Hofman (2014) name the following: clinical supervision, collaborative supervision (peer coaching, cognitive coaching and mentoring), self-reflection (self-directed development), professional growth plans and portfolios. The last three cover measures taken by the teacher independently, while the others are briefly outlined below.

Clinical supervision

According to Sergiovanni et. al. (2014), clinical supervision is a face-to face encounter with teachers with the intent of professional development and improvement of teaching performance. Clinical supervision achieves this goal by providing teachers with expert feedback on their performance. It helps them diagnose and solve teaching challenges and develop teaching strategies. It fosters a positive attitude towards CPD, engage in reflective practices and higher order thinking, a sense of autonomy, agency and self-development (Wong & Lee-Piggott, 2021).

Collaborative supervision

Collaboration and collegiality are important prerequisites for effective professional development. According to Burke & Fessler (1983), collaborative supervision is about supporting novice teachers by more experienced colleagues. The main elements of the collaborative approach are peer coaching, cognitive coaching and mentoring. These approaches may overlap meaning-wise but differ in terms of purpose and function (Sergiovanni et al. 2014).

Peer coaching

Sullivan & Glanz (2013) argue that peer coaching encourages teachers to help each other reflect on and enhance their teaching practices and/or implement new teaching skills. Peer coaching differs from other coaching approaches in that it addresses teachers of equal status (novice with novice or experienced with experienced) and focuses on curriculum innovations and development.

Cognitive coaching

"Cognitive" in supervision refers to becoming aware of one's own teaching effectiveness. Cognitive coaching is an effective method for fostering a beneficial relationship between professionals of varying status (such as novice and experienced teachers, novice teachers and their assigned supervisors, or experienced teachers and supervisor). In cognitive coaching, a coach (a more experienced teacher or supervisor) acts as an intermediary between a novice teacher to be coached and his or her own thinking. Cognitive coaching differs from peer coaching in that the latter focuses on innovations in curriculum and teaching strategies, whereas the former seeks to refine existing practices (Showers & Joyce, 1996).

Mentoring

According to Sullivan & Glanz (2013), mentoring is a process that contributes to better teaching and learning. An experienced teacher (mentor) works with a novice or less experienced teacher to help them identify and pursue ways to improve their teaching – all that in a kind and respectful manner. Mentoring differs from peer and cognitive coaching in that it involves a hierarchy: novice and senior (more experienced) teacher. In mentoring, one senior teacher from the same school is assigned to one novice teacher as a mentor. Therefore, a one-to-one relationship is established between the two (Murray & Mazur, 2009).

Developmental supervision is yet another approach employed in teacher supervision. At the core of developmental supervision is its adaptation to the developmental stage, the level of experience and commitment of an individual or group (Glickman et al., 2024). Teachers can view themselves as being at different stages of career development. The choice of the appropriate approach: directive, informative, collaborative and non-directive (Glickman et al., 2024) should be tailored to that stage. Among the stages of developmental supervision, a starting stage must be identified. Next, the selected approach must be followed and the

teacher's development supported while gradually increasing responsibility for decision-making.

The supervisor's role in education

Brown's study, referenced by Małgorzata Nowicka and Aleksandra Wzorek (2016), names a number of qualities that should mark a supervisor. These include strong interpersonal skills, latest theoretical knowledge, professional experience, technical expertise, diligence, maturity, emotional stability, impartiality and objectivity, problem-solving skills, authority, high requirements, optimism, proactive attitude, the capacity to motivate others, managerial skills, honesty and integrity, enthusiasm for research effort, openness to change, and a comprehensive understanding of social realities.

The supervisor's communication skills, such as active listening and clear articulation, are extremely important. The supervisor should also possess such qualities as calmness, maturity, confidence, as well as the ability to lead, learn and teach others. Marion Gillie (after Nowicka & Wzorek, 2016) points out that the core competences of a supervisor encompass a thorough understanding of the supervision process and the ability to apply it effectively when working with the client. Additionally, this list includes professional experience, psychological knowledge and expertise, as well as a deep understanding of the specific working environment of the supervisee.

Speaking of ethical principles, supervisors must confine their activities to the actual scope of their competence and expertise. They should establish clear boundaries in the supervisory relationship, considering cultural nuances. They should ensure that evaluation processes are fair and transparent. They must not overstep their role and maintain strict confidentiality of private information (Nowicka & Wzorek, 2016).

The experience that supervisors gain in different areas, such as counselling, career management, communication skills, teamwork, conflict management, or learning styles, is essential to tackle challenges that occur in the supervising process. As Kozłowska-Piwowarczyk (2002) underlines, a therapist's behaviour extends beyond verbal and conscious levels. Within supervision, the supervisor is the linchpin of the process, serving as a primary success and effectiveness factor. This role transcends the conventional understanding of supervision and demands not only managerial competence but also adaptability to address the diverse and often intricate challenges and dilemmas that arise throughout the process. In addition, the supervisor is expected not only to monitor but also to actively support the supervisee, i. e. the process participant, by providing the necessary tools for personal and professional development. However, it is im-

portant to understand and accept the limitations of the supervisor's role. Often, supervision participants may have disproportionate expectations, regarding the supervisor as a guru who can resolve all problems. This image of the supervisor is unrealistic and can lead to frustration and demotivation when these expectations go unfulfilled. Supervisors are not omniscient or omnipotent; rather, they are professionals who use their knowledge, experience and interpersonal skills to conduct the supervision process in an effective and ethical manner. Supervisors must therefore be prepared to operate in environments that demand flexibility, quick problem-solving and adaptability to shifting circumstances. They are also required to be able to manage emotions, both their own and those of the supervisee, and to foster trust and open communication. This blend of interpersonal acumen and professional expertise enables supervisors to navigate the complexities of the supervision process, working towards its success even in the absence of a universal "magic formula."

Supervision is understood as a dynamic process marked by an alliance, intervention, and supervisory relationship that persists throughout the duration thereof. This relationship is a cornerstone for the development and consolidation of a productive working alliance, as well as using transference and countertransference phenomena. The quality of this supervisory relationship is increasingly acknowledged as a crucial element within the framework of supervision, exerting a profound influence on both the effects of the supervision itself and the satisfaction of the supervisee. Perceived support from the supervisor is positively correlated with effectiveness, whereas perceived criticism has negative implications, leading to the so-called avoidance coping strategies (Jelonkiewicz, 2023).

It goes without saying that the supervisor must possess the requisite training and expertise and must be equipped with the capacity to employ sophisticated therapeutic techniques within the psychoeducational process. The ability to adapt and apply a diverse array of therapeutic methods and interventions, tailored to the unique needs and challenges of each client, is of paramount importance in ensuring the expected results of the supervisory procedure. The supervisor should also demonstrate the ability to listen empathetically, communicate effectively and build a relationship based on trust and cooperation. Moreover, a thorough knowledge of psychology, psychopathology and research methodology is indispensable, as it provides the supervisor with the analytical tools necessary to gain a profound understanding of the psychological processes unfolding within therapy. The professional background knowledge and continuous development of the supervisor's skills are crucial in achieving effective results in therapeutic work, as well as providing adequate support and guidance to other professionals. This allows the supervisor to conduct supervision effectively, thereby fostering the development of therapists' competences. What is

more, the process enhances the quality of the therapeutic and psychoeducational services provided to clients (Mańkowska, 2020).

Summary

According to Prysak (2022), supervision for teachers is instrumental in the process of autonomy-building and expansion of knowledge on both how to address the differentiated developmental and learning needs of students and on how to build greater self-awareness.

Research that verifies the impact of teacher supervision on student development is apparently hard to find.

The literature on the subject recommends the following (Prokopiak, 2023) for supervision in education:

– Teachers, including school principals, face specific challenges of inclusive education. They need effective support promised by supervision. Under this form of support, they can talk openly about difficulties, doubts and professional dilemmas they face, which is crucial for their professional development and work performance.
– Supervision in inclusive education functions not only as a means of supporting teachers but also as a mechanism for ensuring adherence to its core principles, while addressing the diverse needs of all participants within the model.
– Supervision can take a variety of forms, from individual and group work to online sessions. Its methods can draw from a range of approaches, including lesson observation, interviews, or video analysis. The selection of a specific format should be tailored to the needs and abilities of the participants. It is crucial that supervision remain flexible and responsive to the evolving demands of the educational setting.
– The supervision process requires time to build mutual trust and understanding between supervisors and teachers. It is a gradual process that demands patience and commitment from both parties. Participants in supervision should be free to choose their supervisor, as this is crucial for ensuring that the sessions be comfortable and effective.
– It is worth noting that supervision in education should not exploit deeply personal matters that require psychotherapeutic intervention instead. If need be, such a supervisee should be referred to a competent professional.
– The legal regulation of teachers' working hours is a significant issue, too. At present, many teachers are facing excessive workloads, which is undermining their work-life balance. The requirements of the Teachers' Charter allow working effort that often exceeds the standard 40 hours per week. This needs

to be addressed legislation-wise to ensure a better work and life quality for teachers. Supervision cannot be considered yet another duty adding to overtime.

Chapter II.
The role of supervision in teachers' professional development

This chapter looks into the role of supervision in the pursuit of teacher excellence, including under the new system of professional promotion. It also discusses teacher professional development strategies, both theoretically and based on available research.

Professional development of teachers: a theoretical perspective

A range of theoretical models is employed in the academic literature to analyse the stages of teachers' professional development. Ralph Fessler and Eric Rice (2010) proposed a model of eights stages of the teacher career cycle. They frame this cycle in the context of a dynamic and flexible social system. The model emphasises that the progression through the stages is not irreversible and linear but follows a regular pattern. Each stage comes with specific challenges, interests and attitudes towards teacher's work and educational activities. Fessler and Rice (2010) name the following career stages: (1) preservice, (2) induction, (3) competence building, (4) enthusiasm and growth, (5) career frustration, (6) career stability, (7) career wind-down and (8) career exit. Kwaśnica (2004) proposes a similar career development cycle. His model relies on Lawrence Kohlberg's theory of moral development. The two models are compared below. Only those stages from the Fessler and Rice (2010) model are shown that have the greatest bearing on promotion in the teaching profession.

Table 1. Contrastive analysis of the Fessler & Rice v. Kwaśnica professional development models

Fessler & Rice	Kwaśnica
Induction spans the early years of work. Young teachers try to "step into" the role and gain acceptance of the social environment; they engage in socialisation with the educational community, adopting teaching practices established by their colleagues.	**Pre-conventional stage.** Young teachers assume their professional role by imitating behaviours prevalent within the school setting. They seek to identify which actions are accepted by the group and adopt them without critically reflecting on their legitimacy. In doing so, they wants to gain reward and acceptance in the new environment. Novice teachers are thus driven by conformism; they wish to live up to the accepted convention in the teaching fraternity. Their further professional development depends on the perceived and accepted patterns of behaviour.
Competence building occurs once teachers have navigated through the socialisation process and are motivated to engage in professional development programmes. Fessler referred to this phase as a "crossroads:" if they succeed, they will move to the next stage; if not, they may experience frustration.	**Conventional stage.** Teachers adapt completely to their professional roles. Not only do they become familiar with the rules of teacher behaviour, but they also accepts their rationale. Teachers accept the "role prescription," understand the conventions that govern the teaching profession and strive to meet them effectively. At the same time, they are not unreflective performers; they can exhibit some non-conformity and innovate. In this stage, teachers can act effectively and achieve professional success.
Enthusiasm and growth. Teachers at this stage have attained a high level of professional competence and continue to develop intensively. They exhibit a positive emotional attitude: they are passionate about their work, are eager to come to the school and engage actively in activities and interactions with students. They consistently seek new approaches to teaching and contribute increasingly to the organisation. Some become mentors, and their enthusiasm for acquiring knowledge, honing skills, and commitment to professional growth can have a positive influence on colleagues.	**Post-conventional stage.** Teachers undergo processes that lead to the development of ethical awareness. The source of the "role prescription" in the teacher as an autonomous and integral individual.

A comparison of the professional development models proposed by Fessler and Rice (2010) and Kwaśnica (2004) reveals that both models share similar categories, which are described across the three stages of teacher development. The first stage involves the assumption of the new role; the second stage is about

competence building, which appears to be a combination of conformism and innovation; the third stage is when the teacher matures into an autonomous personality and shows readiness to support the development of other teachers. Both models highlight that the foundation of professional development lies in the formation of the teacher's personality (Szumiec, 2021) and identity, a crucial category that still remains undervalued in educational policy (Rushton et al., 2023). The first model is more comprehensive, encompassing both the pre-service stage and the stages that mark a decline in intensive professional development, ultimately leading to the end of career. It also addresses periods of frustration. They are not conducive to professional growth but rather signal the nearing conclusion of the teaching career. The analysis of anxiety plays a foundational role in the teacher development model proposed by Fuller (1974). As noted by Kwee (2020), this theory mainly covers the early stages of professional development, yet ignoring the careers of mature teachers. It describes a continuum involving three stages: (1) concerns about self, (2) concerns about task, and (3) concerns about impact (on students and teaching). Contemporary research also notes a similar succession of concerns in teachers' professional development. Conway & Clark (2003) analysed trainee teacher development during a two-semester internship programme. They mainly studied the patterns of evolving concerns and aspirations of the trainees. The findings both support and extend Fuller's teacher developmental model. The trainees' concerns seemed to shift, as Fuller predicted, from themselves, through tasks, to students ("journey outward"). However, their concerns and aspirations also shifted from their personal ability of classroom control and management to concerns about their personal ability to develop as a teacher and as a person. It happened because their understanding of teaching and all that it entails changed ("journey inward"). Thus, the trainees' pattern of concerns and aspirations shifts outward, as Fuller suggests, but also inward, with a growing focus on reflexivity identity development as teachers. The research of Bojanek et al. (2021) suggest the possibility of autonomous personality formation. They found that the results of teacher self-determination training (Self-Determined Learning Model of Instruction (SDLMI)), a competence central to professional development, proved positive. The research participants showed improved knowledge and skills related to self-determination.

Professional teacher's development: a research perspective

Teachers' professional development has been addressed in numerous studies and analyses. They examine strategies to be followed at various stages of professional growth, factors influencing its effectiveness, and impact of professional devel-

opment on students' achievements. Selected research from recent years, which shed light on these aspects, is discussed below.

El Islami et al. (2022) conducted a systematic review of research reports published in the journal *Teaching and Teacher Education* between 2015 and 2019. Their aim was to identify major trends in professional development strategies. The analysis of 267 articles revealed that professional development strategies were mainly collaborative and took advantage of the collective learning environment. The learning outcomes achieved through professional development programmes focus on teaching skills, classroom control and management, as well as competence in taught subjects.

Ventista & Brown (2023), based on a review of 125 research reports from the years 2010–2022, found that training, regular coaching and continuing professional development (CPD) fostered student skills and effective learning. The review underlay the I/M/T/P theory which helps describe the variables that distinguish between more and less effective teacher professional development. Sims et al. (2023) proposed four factors that ensure effective professional development. Such development should offer (1) insights (I) into teaching and learning to enable teachers to gain a deeper understanding of how teaching and learning occurs in the classroom; (2) motivation (M) to make teachers more willing to alter their practices; (3) techniques (T) to put insights into practice; (4) and practice (P) to make the change a reality.

In contrast, a meta-analysis of selected forms of teacher excellence programmes for inclusive classrooms found that three specific forms had the greatest impact on student achievement: lesson analysis, instructional coaching and strong teacher learning communities (Sims & Fletcher-Wood, 2021).

Holmqvist & Lelinge (2020) conducted a systematic review of literature spanning the period 1993–2019 and exploring collaborative professional development (CPD) in inclusive education. Their analyses showed that CPD models vary, but due to methodological shortcomings of the analysed literature, effective CPD models could not be identified. The authors only found that participation in professional development training improved teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education, yet the results of impact of CPD on the development of students' knowledge of inclusive education were limited. Although most of the reports focused on the benefits of collaboration for teachers' professional development, four papers highlighted the benefits of their collaboration with researchers.

Lelinge & Alwall (2022) arrived at similar conclusions. They shared the outcomes of a Swedish research project on professional development in inclusive schools. They concluded that school improvement and collaborative professional development for teachers in inclusive education depends on research-based education. Moreover, they said that the content of professional development should include teaching, research and collaboration.

Meadows and Caniglia (2018) provided an example of implementation of the aforesaid approach. They described the results of observation of a co-teaching exercise. Once carefully investigated and subjected to reflection, the experience enhanced the teachers' professional development collaboration-wise. The results suggest that in order for co-teaching to become more effective and teachers' practices more coherent, professional development should be designed and put in place with a view to: (a) practising intentional acknowledgment of co-teacher's teaching effort in the classroom, (b) enhancing reflection, (c) focusing on teacher compatibility, and (d) providing time and space for teachers to develop, communicate, collaborate and build relationships.

De la Iglesia et al. (2024) recognised the importance of the potential of teachers' professional collaboration as a mechanism for teacher professional development (TPD). They conducted a systematic review of peer-reviewed articles for the years 2012–2022. They explored the problem of feedback gathered during collaboration. Based on 30 papers, the authors show that feedback fosters learning, relationship-building between teaching partners, as well as improving school climate. The main difficulty is in teachers' inability to provide quality feedback. All the reviewed articles highlighted the benefits of feedback for the methodology of the teaching-learning process stemming from the use of feedback in the teacher-teacher relationship. Yet, few of them offered a profound analysis of feedback effects and even fewer analysed its impact on teachers' professional development.

The analyses presented indicate that professional collaboration is one of the prerequisites for teachers' professional development. Teachers who are eager to improve their skills are generally open to it, although they are not always satisfied with the outcomes. A study by Lopes & Oliveira (2021) demonstrates that, while Portuguese teachers express satisfaction with the quality of their professional development, work and teaching outcomes, they remain pessimistic about professional collaboration. This indicates the need to integrate supervision into the formal stages of teachers' professional development and its continuous improvement.

Professional development and teacher promotion levels

As Skawiński (2021) observed, the link between the scientific concepts of teacher identity and professional growth and the formal process of career development through promotion has yet to be extensively explored in research. The existing literature for teachers is primarily guidebooks that offer some practical instruction on how to successfully meet the requirements associated with each level of professional advancement. Kwiatkowska (2005, p. 148) argues that "devel-

opment is inherent in the profession," thus emphasising the urgency of teachers' continuous professional development. Professional development is also required by the law. Article 6 of the Teachers' Charter obliges Polish teachers to seek full personal development and professional excellence aligned with school expectations.

According to the currently binding law, there is a two-level system of professional promotion of teachers in Poland: (1) novice teachers become appointed teachers and (2) appointed teachers become chartered teachers (Article 9a, Teachers' Charter). Novice teachers enter a professional role. They prepare for the teaching profession for three years and nine months. During this period, they fulfil tasks corresponding to the pre-conventional stage (or induction). In accordance with the provisions of the Regulation of the Minister of Education and Science of 6 September 2022 on Teachers' Professional Promotion Degrees (item 1914), the novice teacher learns about the organisation, tasks and rules of educational institutions. They teach classes and engage in tasks mandated by the school statutes. They observe classes conducted by a mentor or another teacher. The elements of the conventional stage (competence building) are reflected in the subsequent requirements to be met, such as competence development in relation to school duties, including in relation to students with special education needs, among them school talents. Novice teachers also need to evaluate their own work and build on that in improving further. They are also expected to share knowledge with other teachers as part of in-service professional development.

To earn the rank of appointed teacher, a novice educator must receive at least a "good" performance evaluation grade during the final year of their preparatory phase and successfully pass an examination before an examination board. The board assesses the classes taught not only in terms of content accuracy and attainment of class objectives but also looks at the teacher's didactic skills. This includes their ability to respond flexibly to the volatile classroom setting, maintain propriety and engage in verbal and non-verbal communication with students effectively. Next, the examination board interviews the teacher to examine not only the methods and strategies employed in class but also the degree of individualized teaching provided. This assessment aligns with the conventional stage of teacher development.

To obtain the highest level of professional attainment, the applicant must have worked for at least five years as an appointed teacher, while implementing didactic innovations and obtaining a very good assessment of professional performance. During this period, the teacher is expected to engage in activities that fall within both the conventional and post-conventional stages of professional development. In the conventional stage, the focus is on competence building, which includes refining teaching practices, deepening knowledge and enhancing skills to improve the overall quality of the school's work. Simultaneously, the

teacher is encouraged to undertake autonomous activities that typify the post-conventional stage, such as demonstrating enthusiasm for professional growth and contributing to the development of other tutors. This may involve the sharing of knowledge and experience with colleagues, undertaking mentoring responsibilities, developing and implementing didactic innovations or experiments, publishing scholarly papers, leading training sessions, or conducting and reviewing educational research reports.

Compared to the Polish two-level system of teacher promotion, two stages of professional development following the acquisition of formal qualification are usually practised in other European countries. The European Commission report (2021) mentions: (1) an induction stage, which permits the adaptation of acquired skills and competences to the needs and expectations of the establishment, and (2) a continuous development stage, which builds on competences already held and responds to the learning needs of individuals, identified through self-reflection, evaluation, employer needs, or policy changes. In addition, CPD is required more or less obligatorily in different countries. It is usually considered to be: (1) mandatory but without a fixed time limit for implementation; (2) mandatory with a minimum time limit for implementation; (3) optional, when not explicitly mandated in the legislation but a CPD offer is available.

In European countries, the CPD needs among experienced teachers are assessed by the school principal based on periodic interviews with teachers. This appraisal underlies the drawing up of an individual teachers' professional growth plan. Data from the Eurydice Report (2023) shows that around two-thirds of European education systems employ such a system for measuring teachers' needs. In another 14 education systems, provisions on appraisal for in-service teachers include the objective to address teachers' needs not only in terms of CPD but also regarding access to personalized support from specialists to develop certain skills or deal with specific challenges. Specialist support may be provided by senior teachers, pedagogues, psychologists, mentors, counsellors, therapists or other specialists. In more than two-thirds of education systems, regulations indicate links between teacher appraisal and promotion, salary progression, or other economic incentives. In Bulgaria, Croatia, Cyprus, Latvia, Lithuania, Hungary, Poland, Romania and Slovenia, decisions on promotion to higher career levels take into account the results of teacher appraisal. This is also the case in Slovakia, where, however, promotion to the next career level is linked to CPD but not to teacher appraisal.

Supervision strategies in supporting teachers' professional development

For professional development to be effective and not end in frustration, it should meet certain conditions. Bull (1997) and Desimone (2009) named the following characteristics of effective professional development:

a) individualised and school-based: the most effective acquisition of competences takes place in the teacher's own school facility and classroom through practice and self-reflection (Desimone, 2009);
b) the use of coaching and other follow up procedures to permit mutual support;
c) collaboration achieved through a unified approach to professional development, joint planning of activities, co-teaching;
d) integrates practice into teachers' daily routines.

Supervision has all the qualities of effective professional development listed above: it takes place at school during the teacher's daily work, uses coaching strategies and is collaborative. For teachers at a lower stage of career development, a directive control approach and a directive informative approach are appropriate. This is because they struggle with defining problems and do not assume full responsibility for making decisions. They should be supported through guidance and suggestions. Teachers at the middle stage of career progression can benefit a collaborative approach to the greatest extent. This group is able to find solutions to some instruction challenges but still needs help in preparing a comprehensive professional growth plan and exploring all available avenues. Teachers at a top level of development, knowledge and commitment are usually ready for independent development due to their non-directive approach to supervision (Glickman et al., 2024).

The table below provides an overview of research from the years 2000–2024 on the use of different supervision strategies in supporting teachers' CDP.

Table 2. Use of different supervision strategies in supporting teachers' professional development

Author, country	Country	Studied group	Type of supervision	Conclusions
Kalule & Bouchamma (2013)	Uganda	106 teachers	clinical	Changes implemented under the guidance of a supervisor are an integral part of teachers' CDP and positively influence both internal domain and external domain qualities of CDP. The internal domain comprises the personal domain (knowledge consolidation, reflective attitude, self-assessment and motivation), the practice domain (application of pedagogical knowledge and adaptation of existing teaching methods), and the outcomes domain (effective teaching practices and student attainment). The external domain covers professional discussion, support and teamwork.
Tesfaw and Hofman (2014)	Ethiopia	200 novice and experienced teachers	clinical supervision, collaborative supervision, reflective, professional growth plans and portfolios	Teachers practised all approaches to supervision, with the exception of peer coaching and portfolios. No significant differences were found between novice and experienced teachers in their attitudes and satisfaction with supervision. Moreover, significantly weak to moderate positive relationships were found between the implemented supervision methods, teachers' attitudes and satisfaction with professional development. Teachers' attitudes and satisfaction are the key factors contributing to professional development. Experienced teachers are more convinced to supervision having an impact on their professional development than novices.

(Continued)

Author, country	Country	Studied group	Type of supervision	Conclusions
Cetin (2018)	Turkey	6 supervisors	clinical	Supervision has a positive impact on teachers' professional development and in-class activities; it helps with classroom management and organisation of teaching and has a positive impact on undesirable student behaviours.
Zhukova (2018)	Latvia	4 trainee teachers	mentoring	Mentoring is important for novice teachers.
Göksoy (2018)	Turkey	30 teachers	developmental supervision	Teachers identified areas of their professional development that call for supervision: lesson preparation and planning, teaching-learning process (lesson), appraisal and evaluation, professional development, communication, counselling, classroom management, projects and time management.
Amini & Gholami (2018)	Iran	4 supervisors	peer rotary supervision	During rotational supervision, experienced teachers take turns to observe the other teacher's class and classes taught by their less experienced colleagues; they give constructive feedback, mainly in the form of compliments, less often as mild criticism and suggestions.
Wong, J., & Lee-Piggott, R. (2021)	USA	Teacher and supervisor	clinical	The teacher's way of asking questions before the supervision revealed popular errors; after intervention, there was a significant improvement in the teacher's inquiry skills.

Source: own research based on literature review

The research outlined above demonstrates the usefulness of supervision at all stages of professional development of teachers.

Impact of supervision on teachers' professional development

A literature review in Toh et al. (2022), including positions published between 2000 and 2021 in the PubMed, Scopus, ERIC and Cochrane databases, provides insight into the role of supervision in the formation of professional identity. For the sake of their analysis, the researchers carefully reviewed 12,201 abstracts. Next, they selected 207 articles addressing the topic of supervision. The articles comprehensively addressed the concept of mentoring, encompassing supervision, coaching and tutoring. Through a meticulous research methodology, the authors concluded that supervision played a pivotal role in amplifying interest in the field, shaping personal and professional decisions and stimulating personal growth. In addition, supervision has a significant impact on decision-making skills and socialisation, which translates into increased professional identification. The research also shows ample evidence that supervision can contribute to building teacher excellence, through improved effectiveness of the teaching and learning processes (Amelia et al., 2022).

A study on supervision among Indonesian primary school teachers showed that group supervision is more common than individual supervision, mainly due to the large number of teachers. Group supervision enhances teachers' professional competence, yet it exerts little to no influence on their work incentives. Conversely, individual supervision proves more effective in fostering teacher motivation. Moreover, empirical evidence reveals that motivation at work plays a pivotal role in shaping and enhancing teacher performance. The study advances supervision theory by demonstrating the value of group supervision in building teachers' competence and individual supervision in boosting their sense of purpose. Additionally, the findings hold significance for human resource management theory as they underscore the importance of adopting a systematic approach to supervision and ensuring the holistic application of its principles (Wiyono et al., 2022). Obstacles to the implementation of supervision as part of educational oversight are linked to (i) the extensive authority of school principals and their many responsibilities; (ii) teachers' belief that supervision is merely a fault-finding tool, which, in turn, undermines their motivation to participate; (iii) the high degree of subjectivity of supervising persons (also teachers); (iv) frequent changes in the principal position; (v) limited facilities and infrastructure; (vi) and lack of discipline among teachers (Rusdiman et al., 2022).

Dorota Prysak's study carried out in Poland in 2022 provides an in-depth analysis of teachers' opinions on their professional position while implementing inclusive education. Prysak (2022) highlights the critical role of supervision as a powerful mechanism furthering the development of teachers' competences. These competences are essential to effectively address the diverse developmental and educational needs of students and help facilitate the development of

teachers' self-awareness. In the Polish context, the author discusses the pilot project of the Model of Specialised Support Centres for Inclusive Education (SCWEW), which prioritises educational supervision. The implementation of this project in 23 educational institutions across Poland included training for SCWEW leaders in supportive observation, educational supervision and monitoring the quality of support by means of self-assessment tools. Prysak (2022) advances an opinion that supervision will become an integral part of teacher support. She stresses its importance in promoting inclusive education as a key aspect of high-quality education. In Prysak's view, supervision is a method that supports teachers' professional and personal development, but also takes their professional practice to a next level, particularly in the domain of work that requires intensive interpersonal relationships. A key element of supervision is learning. It rests upon the exchange of experience, reflection on current practices and analysis of the sources of challenges. The author posits that the methodology of supervision engages teachers in constructive dialogue about teaching methods, while deliberately refraining from evaluating individual competence. The supervisor is a facilitator and observer who helps teachers reflect on their practice. What follows, they are in a position to decide the trajectory of their action for themselves.

The benefits of implementing supervision within the context of inclusive education is highlight by the other studies as well. The lessons learned from supervisions conducted at the Specialised Support Centres for Inclusive Education in Świdnik have significantly added to the Polish experience in the field. Nearly 1,000 hours of supervision were completed. The early supervision meetings mainly resembled training sessions. They focused on the exchange of experience and addressing challenges encountered when working with students requiring extra support. Leaders, including school principals, play a key role in driving change. Their commitment and flexibility is essential to the success of inclusive education. However, supervision meetings happen to be challenging when proposed changes meet resistance from governing bodies. However, many meetings were successful, and teachers were willing to respond creatively to learners' needs. As a process involving teachers in a discussion of teaching methods, the supervision process in Świdnik avoided the assessment of participants' competence. In a supportive and coordinating role, the supervisor focused on reflecting on teachers' practices, encouraging them to come to their own conclusions. The supervision sessions adopted various forms, from individual to group meetings, depending on participants' needs. Group sessions, more timesaving and stimulating broader approaches, fostered group interaction and development, while individual meetings allowed for a deeper focus on the specific needs of individual teachers. In both cases, facilitation of the process

by the supervisor was crucial as the participating teachers were given freedom to work independently on their professional development (Prokopiak, 2023).

Polish teachers, however, often resist supervision (Mańka & Morańska, 2023). The study reveals that teachers perceive supervision as an assessment situation, which creates anxiety and resistance to looking deeper into their own competence gaps. Limited trust in supervisors and participants in the supervision group is also observed, creating a sense of distance and conflict. Teachers exhibit scepticism regarding the effectiveness of supervision, often favouring traditional training methods and prioritizing classical forms of education. They tend to trust their established concepts, thus being reluctant to test new approaches and solutions for fear of having to make formal commitments and satisfy superiors' expectations. The results point to the need to remodel the approach to supervision to better serve the development of teachers' skills. Jachimczak, Podgórska-Jachnik & Tomaszewska (2023) highlight the need for supervision despite teachers' fears and early resistance. In the professional teaching setting, there is obvious resistance to supervision, peer observation and demo classes. This phenomenon can be explained by a reluctance to be watched while working. However, there is a shift in attitudes among teachers in some school establishments, where an increasing openness to this type of activity is more than noticeable. Such a shift is indicative of a willingness to embrace supervision as a method of professional development, which can have a positive impact on the quality of educational work.

In the teaching profession, the attitude of a reflective practitioner entails a commitment to continuous professional growth. It builds on the ability to introspect one's own competence and to trigger changes, ultimately fostering the evolution of the school into a "learning organisation" (Duda-Machejek, 2023). At the same time, it should be borne in mind that, especially when working with students with differentiated learning needs, overload can occur, which often leads to exhaustion and professional burnout. Such conditions can be prevented, one of the methods being supervision which aims to improve the effectiveness of work in non-teaching professions, such as care and assistance for others. It is a form of professional methodological support in the workplace aimed at enhancing staff competence and professional development (Róg, 2023).

In Poland, sustainable models of supervision as a professional development tool have gained a foothold in the social services sector (Ferreira, Grewiński & Reis-Jorge, 2014) and in psychotherapy. However, supervision can also be employed in other areas where working with people occurs, including among researchers pursuing qualitative projects (Golczyńska-Grondas, 2019, pp. 6–33). It testifies to its versatility and support potential in different professional provinces.

Summary

In conclusion, some general conclusions can be drawn:

1. Professional development is a continuous process of building excellence, involving both novice and experienced teachers.
2. Collaboration and collegiality are among the drivers of teachers' professional development. Supervision therefore allows the objectives of effective professional development to be met.
3. Understanding at what stage of development teachers are can help education facilities render a relevant form of support for their career development by adopting an appropriate approach to supervision.
4. Last but not least, it is beneficial for the education system to prevent talent drain in the profession due to frustration and lack of sufficient support from supervisors.

Chapter III.
Specialised Support Centres for Inclusive Education (SCWEW) in Poland

This chapter presents experiences in developing solutions to support the work of schools in providing optimal conditions for the development of all students. Activities to support the work of teachers and specialists in public schools in working with students with diverse needs marked the early stages of effective support in Polish schools. One of the elements of the support system under construction are Specialised Support Centres for Inclusive Education (SCWEW), newly created institutions, established on the basis of special schools, with the aim of supporting mainstream schools and increasing the quality of inclusive education. As part of the project implemented by the Centre for Education Development entitled 'Developing a model for the functioning of Specialised Support Centres for Inclusive Education', the assumptions and principles for the functioning of the above-mentioned institutions were developed.

About inclusive education

The contemporary world is defined through dynamic change, and educational solutions need to adapt to these changing circumstances. This adaptation encompasses not only the enhancement of educational quality but also the awareness of social responsibility before all members of the community. A responsible community cares for all as well as taking into account their needs and developmental opportunities at every stage of life.

Over the past decades, educationists and policymakers have been exploring the directions in which education could go to face the challenges of a globalising and – consequently – more diversified world. The school model that focuses on an "average student" that permeates many educational policies has been frequently assessed as incompatible with the contemporary, individualised student needs, which are more and more often recognised diagnostically and call for a quick and multifaceted turn towards the "education of diversified learner groups" (Jachimczak, 2021).

An increasing segment of society is focusing on creating an informed educational environment that promotes the development of every student, regardless of age or learning needs, and prepares them for independent living. This, in turn, stimulates the growth of human resources within society. The challenges faced by teachers in identifying and addressing the individualized needs of students have become a permanent aspect of the educational landscape. These challenges stem from the growing number of learners with differentiated developmental and educational needs in preschools and mainstream schools, including those with officially certified as having special education needs. School groups and classes are not a homogeneous environment. Hence, it is extremely challenging for teachers to respond to the needs of all students.

The standards related to social inclusion, their implementation and integration are key principles of educational reform for early childhood and youth education of students with disabilities, whose emergence in Poland was, to some extent, driven by the country's accession to the European Union. They allowed for an opening of the educational system to changes that encompassed all the students, regardless of the degree of disability, and took into account individual learning needs. In addition, various measures are being taken to provide these students with optimal conditions for school and out-of-school activities in a rapidly changing reality (Prysak & Trojanowska, 2023, p. 94). Inclusive education can be effectively implemented through thoughtful design of educational programmes, tailored learning strategies and by dedicated and skilled educators (Gajdzica et al., 2021).

It is important to recognize that defining inclusive education is a complex and nuanced task. In the currently drafted regulatory amendments, it is understood in a broad way as quality education for all the stakeholders, ready to cater for the diverse needs of learners, irrespective of disability levels. It is therefore an education that takes account of the needs of all participants in the educational process (Jachimczak & Podgórska-Jachnik, 2023, p. 12).

Under current inclusive education practices, teachers from schools that address students' special needs continuously support teachers in mainstream schools in solving problems that are not to be often seen in their institutions. This advisory and support function is now being taken over by Specialised Support Centres for Inclusive Education (SCWEW).

The theoretical concept for support activities was developed in 2020 by a project team working with the Centre for the Development of Education. They designed a theoretical and functional model of the Specialised Support Centre for Inclusive Education. The concept relied on the previous activities of the Polish Ministry of Education and Science aiming at support for each learner participating in the education process and relied on lessons learned from the teacher assistance initiatives undertaken by various entities and designed for teachers. In

its theoretical framework, the SCWEW model clarified how structures, tasks, support mechanisms and forms of collaboration with the educational environment are to ensure that SCWEWS operate effectively.

Key concepts behind SCWEWs

Specialised Support Centres for Inclusive Education were established as part of the project, Pilot Implementation of the Specialised Support Centres for Inclusive Education (SCWEW) Model. What follows, 23 SCWEWs were set up and operated in Poland between 2020 and 2023. They were created within the structures of special needs schools and institutions (Figure 1).

The pilot project was a pioneer and innovative solution in the Polish educational system. It was envisaged to verify the feasibility of creating a formal inclusive education framework in Poland with the support of the newly established SCWEWs. The project was about designing solutions to support schools' efforts to provide optimal developmental conditions to all students. The measures developed in the project, aiming to support teachers and specialists in mainstream schools in their work with students with differentiated educational needs, were a first step for launching the fully-fledged support framework in the educational system unit[1]. The primary objective of the project was to enhance the accessibility of educational services for students with differentiated learning needs, including disabilities, while fostering optimal support for both the school environment and the local community.

SCWEWs are composed of specialised teams operating within a special preschool, special school or a special education facility, and employ its staff and resources, as well as external resources, i. e. other entities. The aim of a SCWEW is to support mainstream preschools and schools by enhancing staff competence and ensuring that all leaners may enjoy full developmental opportunities. This is achieved by through the educational offering at each stage, while taking into account individual learning needs and abilities. Long-term actions are aimed to support preschool and school institutions in delivering quality education for all students. In a broader context, these efforts should contribute to fostering the principles of an inclusive society (Pietryka, 2021). The figure below shows graphically the position of the SCWEW Model within the structure of collaborating stakeholders.

The foundation of SCWEW's activities on special education staff was predicated on the assumption that their advanced qualifications and extensive expe-

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1 https://ore.edu.pl/2020/01/pilotazowe-wdrozenie-modelu-specjalistycznych-centrow-wspier ajacych-edukacje-wlaczajaca-scwew/ (accessed 4.07.2024).

Map of Specialised Support Centres for Inclusive Education in Poland
with a number of public educational institutions with SCWEW support

Figure 1. Map of Specialised Support Centres for Inclusive Education in Poland, 2020–2023

rience in working with children and students with disabilities (Bełza, 2015, pp. 183–198; Chrzanowska 2019) enabled the support in preschools and schools, adequately to the diagnosed needs. The teaching effort taken by special institutions were equally significant, as they ensured the continuous professional development of staff in the direct work with children and students. This enabled SCWEWs were able to trigger a process change in preschools and schools, as well as serving as a platform of collaboration between special and mainstream teaching staff.

Building on the staff resources of special schools, the approach simultaneously considered the broad spectrum of collaboration among various institutions and partners, aiming to optimise and harmonise the resources available
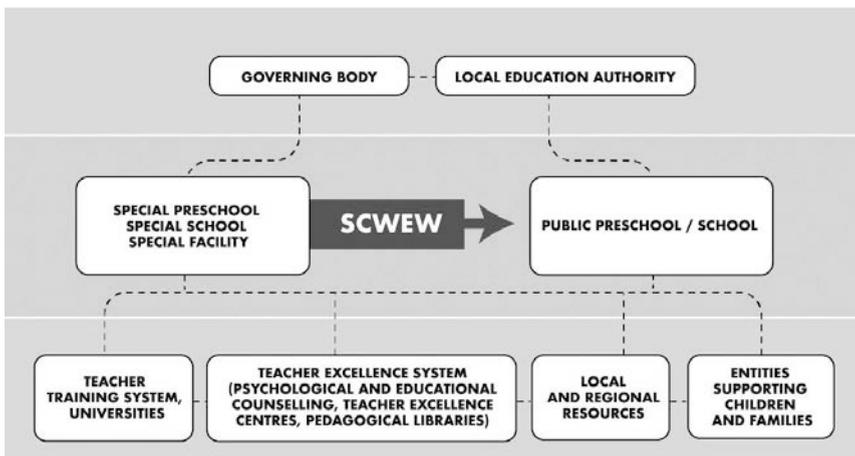
Figure 2. The positioning of SCWEW within the stakeholder framework (based on Pietryka, 2021, p. 54)

within the educational system. In this approach, education was so designed as to meet the needs of all students. The intended outcome of the pilot was to move from an ideal model to the development of a viable solution that responds to the needs of the support target groups, i. e.:

– the management of preschools and mainstream schools offering general and/ or vocational education;
– teachers, specialists, other preschool and mainstream school staff;
– children and young people and their parents or legal guardians, mainly through preschool or school institutions;
– adults attending further education institutions (adult schools) through a school institution;
– local community (Pietryka, 2023).

Many years of school practice demonstrate that informal inclusive education has been around for decades, beginning with the point at which parents began to make decisions regarding the selection of an institution for their child, particularly one formally certified as requiring special education. The aforesaid pilot project has made mainstream school teachers aware that inclusive education is a reality. There are many teachers among the school community who accept the idea of inclusive education (Mroczek, 2021). This has been confirmed by a report by the Supreme Chamber of Control which names the benefits of inclusion initiatives. The pilot equipped them with tools usable when working with diverse groups. It also systematised and enriched their knowledge of the forms and methods of working with children and young people with differentiated learning

needs. It became a valuable support for children and students, fostering an environment that promotes their development. Throughout the support process, the project also strongly emphasised the role of parents, who are an extremely important link in work with the child, especially one with diverse expectations. Besides students and parents, teachers and specialists are an important component of the entire learning process. As the latter's awareness is a key prerequisite for effective action in the current process of transformation of the Polish education system, it is paramount that special education teachers cooperate with mainstream education staff for the benefit of students with diverse developmental and educational needs and their families.

The inclusion-centred collaboration between SCWEWs and mainstream schools and preschools in the long term has contributed to, or in fact, opened the way to inclusive schools and inclusive society.

The driver behind the operational model for Specialised Support Centres for Inclusive Education (SCWEW) was the need to support mainstream preschools and schools to put better quality inclusive education in place. The following factors can be named as driving the change:

– the need to prepare special preschools, special schools and special education institutions for their new role in pursuing inclusive education;
– the need to increase the effectiveness of activities for students with differentiated learning needs by unlocking the potential of resources in special preschools, special schools, special facilities;
– the need to use the resources and potential of the staff of special preschool, special schools and special education institutions;
– the need to broaden the knowledge and improve the competence of mainstream preschool and school staff and support them in implementing inclusive education and working with diverse groups and classes;
– support action taken by local government units to create local solutions for the implementation of high-quality inclusive education.

SCWEW specialist teams triggered process changes both in the special preschool/special school/special education institutions that accepted SCWEW tasks and in mainstream preschools and schools supported by SCWEWs. The processes were combined.

The substantive, resource-centred and financial support provided by SCWEW covered the following:

– activities corresponding to the diagnosed needs of preschools and mainstream schools,
– transfer of knowledge and skills of special education specialists to mainstream preschools and schools in response to the needs of groups with differentiated learning needs,

–   purchase of specialised materials, teaching aids, equipment necessary for the differentiated classroom,
–   preparing training and educational materials, organising support and self-learning networks,
–   exchange of knowledge and experience among teachers and specialists in the use of various forms and methods of work, according to the diagnosed needs of mainstream educational institutions (Pietryka, 2023).

The SCWEW team was made up of a leader, an expert in inclusive education, an information and evaluation expert, and an expert in support technologies. In addition, each SCWEW was able to hire extra specialists and teachers to meet their objectives, based on the current needs identified in diagnoses conducted in the supported institutions (Figure 3).
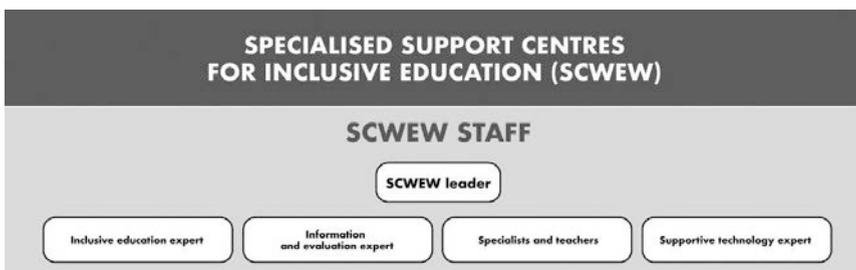
Figure 3. SCWEW staff

An additional support for SCWEW was the establishment of a Coordination Division (CD) within the Education Development Centre. The aim of the CD was to ensure the high quality of operation of SCWEWs in the country and the exchange of best practice, as well as the continuous upskilling of the educational system cadre, in particular with regard to inclusive education. The CD coordinated and furthered the work of SCWEWs and supported the implementation of inclusive education in practice. Its objective was primarily to ensure that the pilot and the newly established SCEWs operate seamlessly. The CD also participated in monitoring and evaluation. This entire effort made it possible to improve the quality of inclusive education and to test the SCWEW Model in practice (Pietryka, 2021, p. 118).

SCWEW: the areas of activity

The original area of SCWEW activity was training and counselling, which was the main focus of the cooperation with mainstream preschools and schools. This work included individual and group consultations, supportive observation and open classes taught in one special school and several mainstream schools for assistance purposes. The SCWEW team conducted workshops and training sessions in cooperation with teacher excellence centres as well as with psychological and educational counselling centres.

The SCWEW expert team targeted various types of support at the managerial staff of mainstream preschools and schools providing general and vocational education; teachers, specialists, other personnel, children and young people, along with their parents or legal guardians. The support also covered adults attending post-secondary and adult schools (Pietryka, 2021, pp. 49–50).

In addition, collaboration and self-education networks were established on top of the exchange of experience and best practice. It was possible thanks to teacher excellence centres, psychological and educational counselling facilities, pedagogical libraries, universities and non-governmental organisations.

The SCWEW team developed the competence of mainstream school and preschool institutions in the field of counselling and consultation for parents, including intervention measures. An important activity in this area involved the creation of educational materials, such as descriptions of best practices, innovative approaches and successful organizational and methodological solutions conducive to inclusive education. Also, mainstream schools were given advice on distance learning practices, including hybrid or remote classes. Teachers and professionals experienced mentoring. Educational supervision was an innovative activity. The operation of SCWEWs also enabled the development and learning of best practice in the planning and implementation of innovative collaboration with parents and support for teachers and education specialists (Pietryka, 2021, pp. 47–48).

The second area of SCWEW activity was the provision of specialised equipment, teaching and exercise materials and special textbooks or assistance in the selection of equipment intended for students and those in a lifelong learning process. The rental of specialised equipment and teaching aids proved to be one of the key and relevant elements of support offered by the SCWEWs. It was an innovative solution that afforded mainstream schools the option of borrowing – on a temporary basis – of specialised equipment to test in the mainstream school setting and in the learner's home (Pietryka, 2021, pp. 48–49).

The third area encompassed information and promotional activities aimed at fostering a supportive environment for inclusive education. This was achieved through the preparation of materials that detailed best practices, innovative

initiatives as well as effective organizational, methodological and promotional solutions. Additionally, it involved the organization of conferences and scientific sessions that incorporated the latest research findings (Knopik, 2021; Kazanowski, Prokopiak & Krupa, 2023, pp. 241–258). Open day events were also held with the latest news being aired on social media. The SCWEWs played a key role in supporting the development of local communities by stimulating and partaking in promotional, informational and preventive initiatives fostering inclusive education. They partnered up with local government units, institutions and NGOs working for people with differentiated learning needs and their families.

The last area covered by the SCWEWs was cooperation with other partners to exchange experience, as well as to ensure coordination and coherence of interventions (Pietryka, 2021, p. 49). In the process of identifying the needs and providing assistance to children, young people and their families, the centres cooperated with psychological and educational counselling centres, healthcare units, family and social assistance providers, community support centres, institutions and NGOs. The collaboration was aimed to ensure access to assistance and proper coordination (Figure 4). In addition, they pursued tasks identified during past collaboration experience in the local setting.
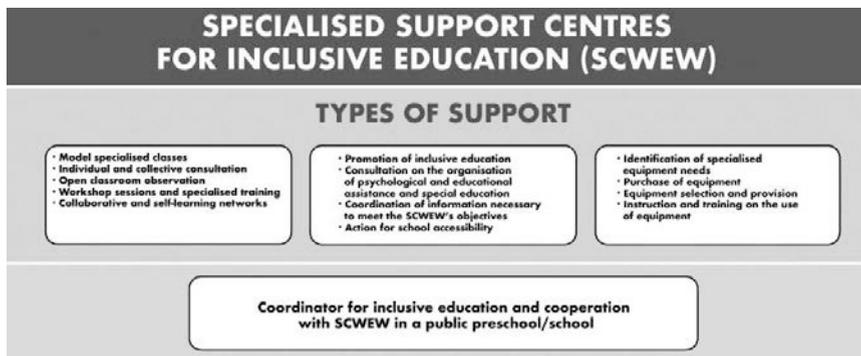
Figure 4. Types of support rendered within SCWEWs

The partners supporting the implementation of the SCWEW tasks include: school governing bodies; teacher excellence centres (psychological and educational counselling centres, teacher excellence centres, educational libraries); community psychological and psychotherapeutic care units for children and youth (reference level one); universities; local education authorities; employers; non-governmental organisations; integration schools, revalidation and education centres, special education centres, extramural educational establishments etc.; entities participating in the Accessible School and Assistant for Learners

with Special Education Needs projects; The State Fund for Rehabilitation of People with Disabilities; institutions focusing on children and the family.

The project in question proposed a detailed description of support consolidating all forms of assistance provided by SCWEWs. Moreover, the description defined the centre's scope of operation, its position in the adopted implementation method, as well as identifying the beneficiaries of project activities. The Model concept included both direct impact on the staff of preschools and mainstream schools but also less indirect support of students, parents, carers and even the local environment.

The overarching objective of the project was to build an inclusive setting through pursuing inclusive education. The project target groups (direct beneficiaries) were:

– management personnel (MP);
– teachers' meeting (TM);
– preschool education teachers (PET);
– class masters (CM);
– teachers of general subjects (TGS);
– teachers of vocational subjects (TVS);
– specialists (SP);
– other school staff (OTHERS);
– parents (PAR);
– local community (LCOM).

In contrast, the indirect target group were students in mainstream preschools and schools and representatives of the local community (Model, 2021, pp. 186–217).

Table 3. Types of support provided by SCWEWs. Own study based on Model (2021, pp. 185–186)

Type of support	Detailed description	Support implementer	Support beneficiaries
Implementation task	Conducting information meetings for teachers' meetings of mainstream preschools/ schools	SCWEW leader, representative of the governing body	MP, TM, CM, PET, TGS, TVS, SP, OTHERS, PAR, LCOM

(Continued)

Type of support	Detailed description	Support implementer	Support beneficiaries
In-depth diagnosis of resources and needs of supported schools and pre-schools	Identification of resources and needs of mainstream pre-schools/schools and SCWEW resources needed to implement the project	SCWEW leader, inclusive education expert, supportive technology expert, coordinator for inclusive education and collaboration with SCWE, pre-school/school teachers' meeting, representative of the governing body, psychological and educational counselling centre	MP, TM, CM, PET, TGS, TVS, SP, OTHERS, PAR, LCOM
Dissemination of information	Keeping the project website up-to-date	Information and evaluation expert	MP, TM, CM, TGS, TVS, SP, OTHERS, PAR, LCOM
Individual consultation	Telephone/email/online support to principals of mainstream preschools/schools provided by coordinators for inclusive education and collaboration with SCWEW	SCWEW staff and other persons performing project-related functions	MP, coordinator for inclusive education and collaboration with SCWEW
Rental facility	Running the rental facility in cooperation with the State Fund for Rehabilitation of People with Disabilities; Information and Advisory Centres for Persons with Disabilities		
Expert consultation	Identify the extent of specific work with students in identified support areas	SCWEW staff, experts of the SWEW project team and CD, stakeholders, persons performing project-related functions	MP, TM, CM, TGS, TVS, SP, OTHERS

(Continued)

Type of support	Detailed description	Support implementer	Support beneficiaries
Counselling and training activities	Identification of the scope of upskilling for preschool/school staff related to intervention activities	SCWEW leader, inclusive education expert, inclusive education coordinator, SCWEW cooperation coordinator, representative of the governing body, psychological and educational counselling centre	MP, TM, CM, PET, TGS, TVS, SP, OTHERS
Consultation for parents and students on specialist support	Scheduling fixed duty dates	SCWEW leader, inclusive education expert, inclusive education coordinator, SCWEW cooperation coordinator, representatives of institutions working for children and family	PAR
Consultation on working with parents	Defining the terms of collaboration with the student's family and cooperation between teachers and parents of all students in the group/class	SCWEW leader, inclusive education expert, coordinator for inclusive education and cooperation with SCWEW	MP, TM, CM, PET, TGS, TVS, SP, OTHERS
Sharing knowledge on the theory and practice of inclusive education	Organisation of a conference showcasing SCWEW activities	SCWEW leader, inclusive education expert, information, and evaluation expert	MP, TM, CM, PET, TGS, TVS, SP, OTHERS, PAR, LCOM
Open classroom lessons	Improving teachers' skills in mainstream preschools/schools	SCWEW staff/inclusive education expert, education coordinator	CM, TGS, TVS, SP, OTHERS
Tailored training offer for teachers of mainstream preschools/schools and SCWEW staff	Development of a targeted training offer that meets the needs of staff involved in the project	External trainers	TM, MP, JC, TGS, SP, TVS, OTHER, SCWEW staff

(Continued)

Type of support	Detailed description	Support implementer	Support beneficiaries
Instruction in the use of specialised equipment	Introduction of instruction in the use of rented equipment	SCWEW supportive technology expert/ specialist in a particular disability	CM, TGS, TVS, SP, OTHERS
Training council	Conducting training sessions in the operation of training councils; attendees: teaching and non-teaching staff of mainstream preschools/schools	SCWEW staff/coordinator for inclusive education and cooperation with SCWEW, others	TM, MP, CM, TGS, SP, TVS, OTHERS
Collaborative and self-learning networks for SCWEW and mainstream school staff and individuals from outside the project	Skill and knowledge sharing, exchange of experience	SCWEW staff	TM, CM, TGS, TVS, SP, OTHERS
Publication	Development and description of a selected organisational and/or methodological solution for the teacher's work with a group/class of students with differentiated developmental and educational needs	SCWEW staff in cooperation with representatives of mainstream preschools/schools and/or local community and/or stakeholders/partners	MP, TM, JC, TGS, TVS, SP, OTHERS, PAR, LCOM, visitors to the project website and others interested in SCWEW activities
Supportive observation/educational supervision	Observing, sharing experience, issue analysis, pinpointing problem roots, developing new solutions.	SCWEW staff, including teachers and specialists hired as needed to meet the objectives of the SCWEW; persons performing project-related functions	MP, CM, TGS, TVS, SP, OTHERS

(Continued)

Type of support	Detailed description	Support implementer	Support beneficiaries
Promotional/social campaign in the local setting	Supporting the process of social idea implementation.	SCWEW staff in collaboration with representatives of mainstream pre-schools/ schools and/or local environment and/or stakeholders/partners	MP, TM, CM, TGS, TVS, SP, OTHERS, PAR, LCOM

The new model of inclusive education introduced in the pilot project necessitated a paradigm shift in approaches to general education and prompted corresponding legal reforms. Inclusive education has become a topic of discussion among many local authorities, which is part of their mission anyway. Indeed, the role of governing bodies in supporting development and education is primarily to set the priorities of quality care and education of students in their strategy documents (Jachimczak & Podgórska-Jachnik, 2023).

In the presented model, one of the promoted solutions for new educational needs was to propose a form of support for teachers and specialists in the form of educational supervision. In Poland, there is no systemic solution in the school working culture that would involve supervision as a form of support for teachers and specialists. In the pilot study, "educational supervision" was regarded as a method of supporting personal and professional development. It covered the exchange of experience, issue analysis, pinpointing problem roots and designing new solutions. The outcome of this process was the discovery of barriers encountered in working with people and sources of success. Educational supervision was conducted either individually or in groups, with teaching staff as the primary participants. A crucial aspect of this process was the regular meetings between the participants and the supervisor. The qualifications of the supervisor were equally significant, encompassing a range of communication, interpersonal and social skills. These included the ability to establish and maintain effective relationships, engage in active listening, lift communication barriers, and approach problem-solving in a constructive manner. Additionally, expertise in education and psychology, as well as a deep understanding of the supervised environment, were critical to the supervisory process. According to the model, educational supervisors had a high level of content knowledge and extensive experience of working in the field, including working with individual students with differentiated learning needs, groups, classes, other teachers and parents. Besides, they needed do possess a noticeable training background intended for

SCWEW staff and, if they were a SCWEW leader, also in courses for leaders (Pietryka, 2021, pp. 215–216).

Upon the completion of the pilot project, an evaluation was conducted in 2023. Based on its findings and the results of other analyses, the form of support was retained; however, its designation was modified to ensure greater clarity. A key component of the current project, Development of a Coordinated System of Targeted Support based on Specialised Support Centres for Inclusive Education, which started in 2024, is "school supervision." This form of support aims to deepen teachers' and experts' reflection on their own work through the exchange of experience that enrich their working toolbox. The recipient of school supervision can be a teacher, a specialist, or a group of the same. Depending on identified needs, school supervision may be a one-off event, or it may be conducted periodically. School supervision fosters professional development, which takes place through partnership-building and learning from each other. It is based on mutual trust, too.

School supervision can be employed to create a new framework for discussion, knowledge and skill sharing, exchange of experience, goal setting, handling challenges together, and reflecting on how to teach and educate. A SCWEW expert carrying our school supervisor accompanies teachers and specialists and shares his or her insights with them.

School supervision requires the following:
– the willingness of the supervisee to accept this form of support;
– a sense of safety for the supervisee;
– mutual trust (Pietryka, 2023, p. 23).

Summary

Chapter One explores the dynamic nature of the contemporary world, emphasizing its impact on the evolution of education systems to address the increasingly diverse needs of students, including those with disabilities. It looks at the adaptation of educational policies to evolving social realities, highlighting a focus shift from the "average student" towards embracing a more individualized and diversity-sensitive model of education. Poland's adoption of European standards related to inclusive and integrated education has led to reforms that have sought to make education more adapted to the needs of all students. This is also covered in this chapter.

The role of Specialised Support Centres for Inclusive Education has been discussed. They have been introduced in response to teachers' needs. Their role in the effective education of students with differentiated learning needs is highlighted. Relying upon the resources of special schools and other facilities,

SCWEWs focus on the development of teacher competences, enabling them to teach in a manner that is both dovetailed with individual students' needs and supportive of their autonomy. The activities of SCWEWs embrace a wide range of substantive and organisational support, including training to counselling, which aims to foster integration and standardisation.

In a broader context, the chapter outlines a fundamental shift in the perception of the role of education, with an emphasis laid on the quality and accessibility of education for all, regardless of individual limitations or challenges. This transformation marks a shift from segregation to full inclusion and integration. It can be seen as a cornerstone in fostering a society grounded in equal opportunities and the development of each student's potential.

As follows from the analysis presented in this chapter, it is pivotal to continuously monitor the outcomes of implemented changes, adapt educational strategies and nurture conditions for the exchange of experience and best practice. These elements are critical for realizing the objectives of contemporary inclusive education. Given that, every educational activity should be viewed as part of a continuum of interconnected social and educational processes, intricately linked to and influenced by dynamically evolving socio-cultural contexts. Understanding the drivers and conditions behind the establishment of SCWEWs provides a better insight into the need and rationale for supporting teachers through supervision. The term "supervision" will be discussed in the following chapters. Still, it is important to acknowledge that while this support is highly anticipated, it reveals numerous ambiguities in both its theoretical and methodological assumptions.

Chapter IV.
Methodological basis of own research

Although the term *attitude* was defined in the early 20th century and has then been widely used in research, it remain largely ambiguous. In the scientific literature, two main groups of definitions of attitudes can be distinguished. The first one treats attitudes as internal factors that condition experiences and behaviour, and therefore they signify a state of readiness of an individual to act and react. The second one defines attitudes as a specific type of reaction or behaviour towards certain objects or situations. Both concepts emphasise different components of attitudes, referring to their internal predispositions and external manifestations in behaviour, respectively (Pielecki, 2013, pp. 37–38).

Attitudes can greatly determine reactions to social stimuli, influencing our feelings, thoughts and behaviour. Böhner & Wänke (2004) point out that attitudes play a key role at the individual, interpersonal and social level. At the individual level, they influence perception, thinking, other attitudes and behaviour. Knowledge of others' attitudes makes the world more predictable; this knowledge can also shape our thoughts and actions, enabling us to influence the behaviour of others by modifying their attitudes (interpersonal level). At the social level, attitudes towards the groups to which a person belongs and towards other groups are important for cooperation and intergroup conflict (Böhner & Wänke, 2004, p. 27). Attitudes not only shape the social world, but are also fundamental to the everyday life of every individual.

The research was conducted to analyse teacher attitudes towards the supervision process. Attitudes were studied in terms of the emotional dimension and teacher experiences within the supervision process, knowledge about supervision and declared behaviour towards this phenomenon. This research is innovative in Poland and internationally. The authors have not reached such a scale of research on educational supervision. Research on the method of supervision in this area points to its comprehensive benefits, such as the impact on teacher professional development, including professional identity formation. Supervision also promotes personal development, strengthens decision-making skills and facilitates teacher professional socialisation. A key element of the supervi-

sion methodology is the involvement of teachers in a constructive discussion that enables them to independently decide on the development directions and educational activities. Are teachers open to it? Are they ready to participate in such a process? Will they find time among their numerous duties? This chapter will present an empirical analysis which is the result of theoretical research. This analysis focuses on issues concerning teacher attitudes towards supervision, with special regard to possible differences in the sociodemographic context of the respondents.

Research purpose and questions

The analysis undertaken in the research focuses on teacher attitudes towards supervision. It examines both the affective attitude and the level of knowledge as well as the declared and actual teacher behaviour towards this process, with regard to possible differences in the sociodemographic context of the respondents. The purpose of the research is therefore to analyse in detail teacher attitudes towards supervision, and the main research question is:
– What are teacher attitudes towards supervision?

In response to the main question, sub-questions were identified to understand and analyse teacher attitudes towards supervision. Sub-questions aim to explore different components of attitudes, including affective, cognitive and behavioural, in different educational contexts.
    The following sub-questions were formulated:
1. What are teacher attitudes with regard to possible differences in the sociodemographic context towards supervision?
2. Are there any differences in teacher attitudes with regard to possible differences in the sociodemographic context towards supervision, and if so, what are they?

Formulating a hypothesis is a key element of organizing pedagogical research, especially in the context of studying relationships between variables. However, as Łobocki (2000, p. 28) notes, diagnostic studies of the properties of the variables under analysis do not require a hypothesis. Therefore, in this diagnostic research, no hypothesis has been made in relation to the formulated questions.
    To obtain answers to the research questions, variables and corresponding indicators were extracted. These are outlined in Table 4.

Table 4. Variables and indicators in own research

Variable	Variable nature	Indicators	Research tool
Attitudes towards educational supervision	- dependent	- declared attitudes Factor I Support Perspective on Supervision Factor II Critical Perspective on Supervision Factor III Autonomy Perspective on Supervision Factor IV Supervisor Intervention Perspective	Questionnaire on Attitudes Towards Educational Supervision
Gender	- independent	- female/male	Interview questionnaire
Age bracket (y)	- independent	- <37 - 37–49 - >49	Interview questionnaire
Work experience (y)	- independent	- <11 - 11–24 - >24	Interview questionnaire
Teaching rank	- independent	- no rank - trainee teacher - contract teacher - nominated teacher - certified teacher	Interview questionnaire
Work location and residence	- independent	- rural/urban	Interview questionnaire
Marital status	- independent	- single - divorced - married or cohabiting - widowed	Interview questionnaire
Number of children	- independent	- none - 1 - 2 - 3 and more	Interview questionnaire
Economic status	- independent	- unsatisfactory/satisfactory	Interview questionnaire

(Continued)

Variable	Variable nature	Indicators	Research tool
Participation in supervisions within the SCWEW pilot project:	- independent	- I participated in supervisions at the SCWEW - supervisions were carried out at my SCWEW, but I did not participate in them - supervisions were not carried out at my SCWEW - there was no SCWEW support at my facility and I have never participated in supervisions - there was no SCWEW support at my facility, but I participated in supervisions on another occasion	Interview questionnaire

Research method and techniques

To answer the research question and sub-questions, an experimental questionnaire –the Scale of Attitudes Towards Educational Supervision [*Skala Postaw Wobec Superwizji w Edukacji*] – and a dedicated, own Interview Questionnaire were constructed.

The Scale of Attitudes Towards Educational Supervision (henceforth as the Scale) consists of 30 statements to which each respondent replied according to their beliefs. The Scale uses the Likert scale system. The above-mentioned tool was selected and constructed, as this technique is simple, easy to complete, and does not take too much time for respondents (Kazanowski, 2018). When replying to each statement, respondents had 6 options: strongly agree, agree, rather agree, rather disagree, disagree, strongly disagree. The first 10 statements determine the affective attitude of respondents towards supervision, the next 10 establish the state of knowledge, i.e. what respondents think about the subject matter to with the attitude relates, and the last 10 examine the behavioural component of the attitude, i.e. what respondents would like to do, how they would like to behave towards the attitude and its subject matter, their intentional or real behaviour.

Exploratory factor analysis using the principal components method with Varimax rotation was applied to determine the internal structure of the questionnaire. The number of factors was determined from a scree plot. The statements qualified for each dimension if their factor scores were at least 0.400. Consequently, 30 variables were reduced to a few conceptual variables. This solution was chosen to obtain uncorrelated factors.

All statements were distributed into specific dimensions. It is worth noting that statement 7 has the highest factor score on Factor I (-0.580), but also a relatively high load on Factor II (0.554). The same applies to statements 5 and 3 – they belong mainly to Factor II, but can also fill Factor I. This solution explains 56% of the variance.

Table 5. Factor analysis of the Scale of Attitudes Towards Educational Supervision

Item	Factor			
	I	II	III	IV
Q_14 Due to supervision, I improve the quality of my work	0.891	-0.114	-0.121	0.097
Q_10 I am glad that supervision expands my knowledge and experience	0.877	-0.201	-0.136	0.121
Q_11 Supervision supports professional development	0.862	-0.151	-0.174	0.065
Q_9 I would like to participate in supervision	0.843	-0.193	-0.205	0.071
Q_18 Supervision can enhance teacher professional skills	0.837	-0.131	-0.047	0.133
Q_12 Supervision is a mutual exchange of experience	0.816	-0.136	-0.088	0.112
Q_15 Supervision increases professional identification	0.812	-0.116	-0.153	0.152
Q_2 Participation in supervision evokes my positive emotions	0.774	-0.219	-0.188	0.043
Q_8 I feel relieved at the thought of supervision and the possibility of using it to solve difficulties at work	0.757	-0.223	-0.194	0.050
Q_16 The most important aspect of supervision is learning	0.734	-0.045	0.009	0.265
Q_21 I would like to participate in supervision at least once a month	0.710	-0.232	-0.251	0.055
Q_1 I am curious how supervision will be carried out in education	0.690	-0.048	0.034	0.072
Q_26 I would participate in supervision conducted by supervisors from outside my facility	0.673	0.052	-0.021	0.010
Q_7 Supervision is a source of stress and frustration for me	-0.580	0.554	0.122	0.049
Q_24 I would like to participate in group supervisions	0.567	-0.177	-0.007	0.208
Q_27 In my opinion, individual supervisions are a waste of time	-0.562	0.184	0.215	0.159
Q_28 I would attend supervision sessions with supervisors who know what the work in my school is like	0.510	0.020	0.259	0.240
Cronbach's alpha: 0.954				
% of explained variance: 34.47%				

(Continued)

Item	Factor			
	I	II	III	IV
Q_6 Supervision is too unclear for me now, it is not clear whether it will be used in education	-0.352	0.629	0.144	0.049
Q_4 I do not like to talk about my difficulties at work	-0.311	0.592	-0.131	0.008
Q_5 I am impatient with supervision as another attempt to blame teachers for problems in education	-0.522	0.572	0.199	0.035
Q_3 I am angry to get another obligation to participate in supervision	-0.473	0.525	0.158	0.046
Q_13 Supervision does not influence my personal decisions	0.033	0.416	0.035	0.162
Q_25 Online supervision is not a good idea	0.035	0.403	0.083	-0.078
Cronbach's alpha: 0.658				
% of explained variance: 8.50%				
Q_22 I would not like supervision to be mandatory	-0.195	0.225	0.638	-0.197
Q_23 I would not like to participate in supervision beyond my working hours	-0.094	0.266	0.611	-0.210
Q_29 If supervisors lack methodological competences, working with them is time wasted	-0.124	0.118	0.609	0.183
Q_30 I want to decide myself who will supervise my work	-0.126	-0.144	0.565	0.080
Cronbach's alpha: 0.566				
% of explained variance: 6.87%				
Q_19 Supervisors should point out what mistakes I make when working with my students	0.157	0.054	-0.058	0.776
Q_17 Supervision focuses on competence gaps	0.066	0.022	-0.088	0.764
Q_20 Supervisors should indicate a solution to a given difficulty discussed during the supervision	0.308	0.114	0.256	0.557
Cronbach's alpha: 0.636				
% of explained variance: 6.52%				
total explained variance: 56.36%				

Following factor analysis, the reliability of the Factors created in this way was assessed. Cronbach's alpha coefficients were obtained in for the results.

The following factors were determined:

Factor I: The Support Perspective on Supervision: emphasises the perception of supervision as a tool to support teacher professional development.

This attitude emphasises two key areas of supervision: teacher professional development and their emotional well-being, reflecting the educational and developmental aspects as well as the personal and emotional benefits of super-

vision. This attitude towards supervision includes an affective (question 10, 9, 2, 8, 1, 7, 6, 4, 5, 3), cognitive (question 14, 11, 18, 12, 15, 16) and behavioural (question 21, 26, 24, 27, 28, 25) factor. This is kind of attitude is known as *comprehensive attitude*, that is one which displays a full repertoire of psychological qualities of a person, including affective predispositions for reacting to the subject matter of the attitude, a cognitive construal of this subject matter and a more or less determined 'programme' for a behavioural response to the subject matter. (Nowak, 1973; Prokopiak, 2012).

Factor I items are listed below according to the decreasing strength of the factor score, while the numbers refer to the sentence order on the Scale:

14. Due to supervision, I improve the quality of my work
10. I am glad that supervision expands my knowledge and experience
11. Supervision supports professional development
9. I would like to participate in supervision
18. Supervision can enhance teacher professional skills
12. Supervision is a mutual exchange of experience
15. Supervision increases professional identification
2. Participation in supervision evokes my positive emotions
8. I feel relieved at the thought of supervision and the possibility of using it to solve difficulties at work
16. The most important aspect of supervision is learning
21. I would like to participate in supervision at least once a month
1. I am curious how supervision will be carried out in education
26. I would participate in supervision conducted by supervisors from outside my facility
7. Supervision is a source of stress and frustration for me (reverse is true)
24. I would like to participate in group supervisions
27. In my opinion, individual supervisions are a waste of time (reverse is true)
28. I would attend supervision sessions with a supervisor who knows what the work in my school is like

Factor II: The Critical Perspective on Supervision: refers to teachers' sceptical and critical view of the role of supervision in their work.

This attitude emphasises the teachers' critical and diverse view of supervision, taking into account its potential ambiguities, the emotional reactions it evokes and the perceived effectiveness. It includes the affective factor (6, 4, 5, 3) – which is most fully represented – the cognitive (13) and the behavioural (25). It is a comprehensive attitude.

Factor II items are listed below according to the decreasing strength of the factor score, while the numbers refer to the sentence order on the Scale.

6. Supervision is too unclear for me now, it is not clear whether it will be used in education
4. I do not like to talk about my difficulties at work

5. I am impatient with supervision as another attempt to blame teachers for problems in education

3. I am angry at another obligation to participate in supervision

13. Supervision does not influence my personal decisions

25. Online supervision is not a good idea

Factor III: The Autonomy Perspective on Supervision: marks the teachers' pursuit of maintaining autonomy and influence in the supervision process.

This attitude highlights central issues regarding teacher preferences towards supervision, their pursuit of professional autonomy and expectations regarding supervisor competence. It contains only a behavioural factor. Thus, it seems that in this case we should not speak of attitudes but of fragmented perceptions, opinions or perhaps mindsets towards supervision. This is because mindset is a less complex and permanent concept compared to attitude (Nowak, 1973; Prokopiak, 2012).

Factor III items are listed below according to the decreasing strength of the factor score, while the numbers refer to the sentence order on the Scale.

22. I would not like supervision to be mandatory

23. I would not like to participate in supervision outside my working hours

29. If supervisors lack methodological competences, working with them is time wasted

30. I would like to decide myself who will supervise my work

Factor IV: The Supervisor Intervention Perspective: focuses on the supervisor role as a key element in identifying and solving educational problems.

This attitude highlights the direction of supervision focused on identifying errors and suggesting solutions, emphasising the analytical and developmental nature of this intervention in the context of teacher work. The attitude contains only the cognitive component, it is incomprehensive, here we can speak rather of an opinion or mindset as well.

Factor IV items are listed below according to the decreasing strength of the factor score, while the numbers refer to the sentence order on the Scale.

19. Supervisors should point out what mistakes I make when working with my students

17. Supervision focuses on competence gaps

20. Supervisors should indicate a solution to a given difficulty discussed during the supervision

* * *

Four Factors were therefore identified:
– Factor I Support Perspective on Supervision
– Factor II Critical Perspective on Supervision

– Factor III Autonomy Perspective on Supervision
– Factor IV Supervisor Intervention Perspective

The first two present comprehensive attitudes (Factor I and Factor II) and the next two show incomprehensive attitudes. Factor III contains only the behavioural component, there is a lack of knowledge and ideas about the nature of the attitude object. Factor IV, on the other hand, contains the cognitive component without a specific behavioural pattern. In both cases, respondents do not reveal emotions towards supervision. Here we can therefore speak more of opinions or mindsets towards supervision rather than attitudes. (Prokopiak, 2012)

Interview questionnaire
For the purpose of our own research, an interview questionnaire was developed regarding: gender, age, work experience, including work experience as a teacher, teaching rank, work location, residence, marital status, number of children, economic status, participation at the SCWEW and experience in supervisions.

Statistical analysis methods

The results obtained were subject to statistical analysis. The values of the analyzed measurable parameters were presented with the mean, median, lower and upper quartiles and standard deviation, and for the unmeasurable ones with the count and percentage.

To identify the factor structure of the Attitudes Scale, a factor analysis was performed using principal components analysis with Varimax rotation. The reliability of the resulting scales was verified with the Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient. The Mann-Whitney test was used to check the discrepancies when two groups were compared, and the Kruskal-Wallis test was used for more than two groups researched simultaneously. To check the significance of differences between the results for individual factors, Friedman's ANOVA analysis and Wilcoxon's signed-rank test with Bonferroni correction were performed. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient was used to assess the relationship between some variables as well. A significance level of $p < 0.05$ was adopted to indicate statistically significant differences or relationships. The database and statistical tests were carried out with Statistica 9.1 software (StatSoft, Polska).

Research design, scope and respondent profile

The research was conducted between June and October 2023. The selection of the sample was purpose-based. The status of being an active teacher in a Polish school served as a selection criterion, as well as willingness to take part in the study. A total of 544 people participated, including 511 females and 33 males from all over Poland. The results are presented in Table 6.

Table 6. The study group profile

Variable analysed			N	%
Gender	Female		511	93.93
	Male		33	6.07
Age (y)	<37		148	27.21
	37–49		252	46.32
	>49		144	26.47
	M ± SD		43.01 ± 9.64	
	Me [Q1-Q3]		43 [36–50]	
	Min–Max		24–68	
Work experience (y)	<11		141	25.92
	11–24		235	43.20
	>24		168	30.88
	M ± SD		18.63 ± 9.96	
	Me [Q1-Q3]		18 [10–25]	
	Min–Max		0–42	
Teaching rank	beginner teacher	with no rank	39	7.17
		trainee teacher	25	4.60
		contract teacher	112	20.59
	nominated teacher		108	19.85
	certified teacher		260	47.79
Work location	secondary school		128	23.53
	primary school		266	48.90
	preschool		150	27.57
	Other		57	10.48

(Continued)

Variable analysed		N	%
Employment position	preschool teacher	107	19.67
	early childhood education teacher	59	10.85
	general class teacher	154	28.31
	vocational teacher	22	4.04
	teacher in a special needs school	59	10.85
	SEN educator (introduced 01/09/2022)	61	11.21
	support teacher	73	13.42
	psychologist	30	5.51
	school educational counsellor	26	4.77
	other	66	12.15
Work location	rural	163	29.96
	urban	381	70.04
Residence	rural	165	30.33
	urban	379	69.67
Marital status	single	72	13.24
	divorced/separated	43	7.90
	married/cohabiting	413	75.92
	widowed	16	2.94
Number of children	none	123	22.61
	1	117	21.51
	2	235	43.20
	3 and more	69	12.68
Economic status	unsatisfactory	136	25.00
	satisfactory	408	75.00
Total		544	100.00

The age of the respondents varied. The youngest respondent was 24 years old, the oldest 68. The median age was 43 (Table 6). The respondents also differed in terms of work experience, which ranged from zero to 42 years, with a median of 18. In case of teachers, work experience spanned from zero to 42 years, with a median of 14 years. Three categories were selected for analysis: teachers with <11 years, 11 and 24 and teachers with >24 years of experience. The first group comprised 141 teachers, the second group 235 teachers, and the third group 168 teachers.

The teachers held various teaching ranks (Table 6). 176 teachers were beginner teachers (just over 32%), of whom 112 had reached the contract teacher rank in the previous promotion procedure. 108 people (nearly 20%) held the rank of a

nominated teacher while nearly 48% of a certified teacher (260 people). Of those surveyed, 150 were employed in a preschool, 266 in a primary school, and 128 in a secondary school. Among the respondents, there were also people (57) who were employed in various other institutions, e.g. in Special School and Educational Centres, psychological and pedagogical counselling centres, NGOs, universities, health care institutions, and nurseries. (Table 6).

Among the teachers surveyed, the employment structure was as follows (Table 6): 107 respondents were kindergarten teachers, 59 were early childhood education teachers, 154 taught general subjects, 22 taught vocational subjects, 59 were employed in special schools, 61 acted as SEN educator, 73 respondents were support teachers, 30 worked as psychologists, and 26 as school counsellors. In addition, the group of respondents identified as 'other positions' included a variety of professional roles in the sector, including head teachers, speech therapists, and common room supervisors.

The demographic analysis (Table 6) showed that 163 respondents, representing about 30% of the study population, were employed in rural areas. In contrast, 381 respondents, representing 70% of the sample, were employed in an urban environment. In parallel, data distribution for residence showed (Table 6) that 165 people (30%) lived in rural areas, while 379 people (70%) lived in urban areas.

In the group of teachers surveyed, 413 respondents, representing about 76% of the study population, were married or in a civil partnership. In contrast, 72 respondents, which translates into more than 13% of the group, identified as unmarried. Additionally, 43 respondents, representing nearly 8% of the total, experienced divorce or separation, while 16 teachers, representing about 3% of the sample, were widowed (Table 6).

Among the teachers surveyed, 23 respondents, representing 22.6% of the study population, had no children. The analysis also showed that 117 respondents (21.5% of the sample) were parents of one child, 235 respondents (43.2% of the sample) were raising two children, and 69 respondents (12.7% of the study population) had three or more children (Table 6).

Among the teachers surveyed, 408 respondents, representing 75% of the sample, rated their economic status as satisfactory. In contrast, 136 teachers, representing 25% of the study population, indicated that their economic status was unsatisfactory. (Table 6)

The teachers surveyed represented the following Specialised Support Centres for Inclusive Education (SCWEW): Lublin (111), Świdnik (72), Bydgoszcz (26), Białystok (24), Olsztyn (21), Skarżysko-Kamienna (18), Ropczyce (16), Łódź and Wrocław (14) and Kraków (11). Bartoszyce, Częstochowa, Laski, Łomianki, Podgłębokie, Sieradz, Sosnowiec, Toruń and Węgrów were represented by single

teachers. 184 respondents were employed in schools not supported by the SCWEW (Table 7).

Table 7. Teachers in Specialised Support Centres for Inclusive Education by location

SCWEW	N	%
Bartoszyce	4	0.74
Bialystok	24	4.41
Bydgoszcz	26	4.78
Częstochowa	4	0.74
Krakow	11	2.02
Laski	1	0.18
Lublin	111	20.4
Łomianki	1	0.18
Łódź	14	2.57
Olsztyn	21	3.86
Podgłębokie	5	0.92
Ropczyce	16	2.94
Sieradz	6	1.1
Skarżysko-Kamienna	18	3.31
Sosnowiec	8	1.47
Świdnik	72	13.24
Toruń	2	0.37
Węgrów	2	0.37
Wrocław	14	2.58
My school was not supported by the Specialised Support Centre for Inclusive Education	184	33.82
Total	544	100.00

In the study population of teachers, 132 of them, representing more than 24% of the respondents, had participated in supervisions organised by the Specialised Support Centres for Inclusive Education (SCWEW).

Table 8. Participation in supervisions

Responses	N	%
I participated in supervisions at the SCWEW	132	24.27
Supervisions were carried out at my SCWEW, but I did not participate in them	70	12.87
Supervisions were not carried out at my SCWEW	58	10.66
There was no SCWEW support in my facility and I have never participated in supervisions	207	38.05

(Continued)

Responses	N	%
There was no SCWEW support in my facility, but I participated in supervisions on another occasion	77	14.15
Total	544	100.00

Meanwhile, 70 respondents (nearly 13%) did not take an opportunity to participate in supervision in their SCWEW, despite the availability of this form of support. Additionally, 58 people (over 10%) did not have an opportunity to participate in supervisions, as their SCWEW does not carry them out. The analysis also showed that 207 teachers (38% of those surveyed) had never participated in supervision while being employed in facilities that did not offer SCWEW support. In contrast, 77 (over 14%) had participated in supervision on various occasions despite the lack of SCWEW support in their facilities (Table 8).

Chapter V.
Teacher attitudes towards educational supervision

Differences between the Factors of the Questionnaire on Attitudes Towards Educational Supervision

Exploratory factor analysis using the principal component method with Varimax rotation distinguished four Factors in the Questionnaire on Attitudes Towards Educational Supervision:
– Factor I Support Perspective on Supervision
– Factor II Critical Perspective on Supervision
– Factor III Autonomy Perspective on Supervision
– Factor IV Supervisor Intervention Perspective

The first two Factors listed (I and II) represent comprehensive attitudes, covering the full range of reactions – affective, cognitive and behavioural. In contrast, Factors III and IV are characterised by incomprehensive attitudes. Factor III focuses exclusively on the behavioural aspect, not including knowledge or perception regarding the attitude object. Factor IV, on the other hand, focuses on the cognitive aspect, leaving out the behavioural programme. Both these Factors show no emotional involvement in the context of supervision, thus it is more appropriate to speak of opinions or mindsets towards supervision rather than comprehensive attitudes.

It was decided to verify the scores on each Factor and the discrepancies between the Factors. Where discrepancies are statistically significant, they are presented in plots. Factor scores are the average for the responses within a given Factor (according to factor analysis) – all between -3 and +3. The higher the score in a Factor, the more the respondents agree with the statements that build the Factor.

Table 9. Individual Factor scores

	M	Me	Min	Max	Q1	Q3	SD
Factor I	1.26	1.47	-3.00	3.00	0.71	2.06	1.12
Factor II	-0.38	-0.50	-3.00	3.00	-1.17	0.33	1.06
Factor III	0.93	1.00	-2.50	3.00	0.25	1.75	1.11
Factor IV	0.71	0.67	-3.00	3.00	0.00	1.67	1.15
Chi^2 Friedman ANOVA = 399.628. p < 0.001							
I > II ***. I > III ***. I > IV ***. II < III ***. II < IV ***. III > IV **							

M – mean, Me – median, Min – minimum value, Max – maximum value, Q1 – lower quartile, Q3 – upper quartile, SD – standard deviation, Chi^2 Friedman ANOVA – result of statistical test, p – p-value, ** p < 0.010 (Bonferroni-adjusted), *** p < 0.001 (Bonferroni-adjusted)

The highest result convergence occurs for Factor I (M=1.26), slightly lower for Factor III (M=0.96), followed by Factor IV (M=0.71). All responses were at the 'rather agree' level. For Factor II, the score (M=-0.38) indicates the responses were 'rather disagree.'
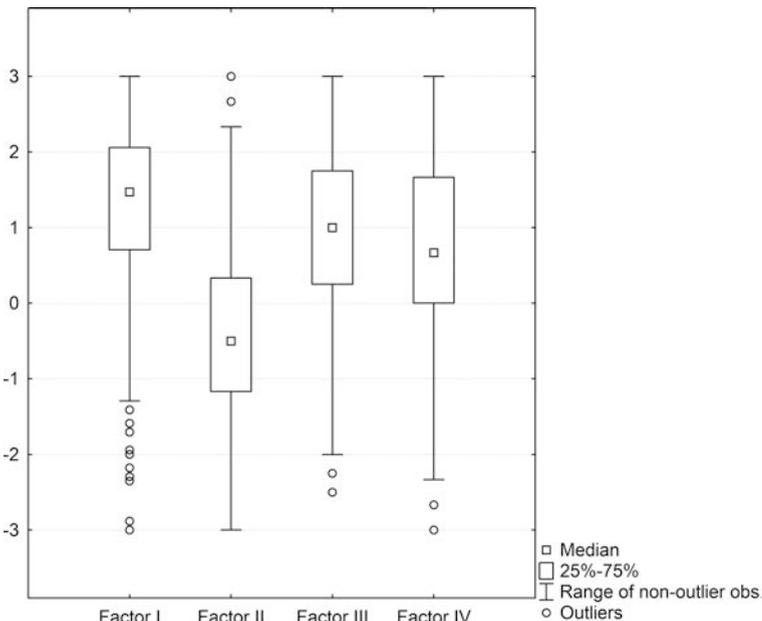
Plot 1. Factor discrepancies in the responses collected

The individual Factor scores were therefore compared with each other to establish results convergence or divergence. Analysis was carried out using Friedman ANOVA, and the test result was statistically significant (p<0.001). The

discrepancies in individual Factor scores are presented in Plot 1. The largest differences occur between Factor II and the others.

Comparison of Factor scores by independent variables – teachers' gender

Gender differences in attitudes towards supervision were further examined.

Table 10. Comparison of Factor scores by teachers' gender

Factor analysed	Gender	M	SD	Me	Q1	Q3	Group comparison
Factor I	female	1.27	1.11	1.47	0.71	2.06	Z = 0.435 p = 0.664
	male	1.10	1.29	1.41	0.76	1.94	
Factor II	female	-0.38	1.06	-0.33	-1.17	0.33	Z = 0.496 p = 0.620
	male	-0.45	1.10	-0.67	-1.17	0.67	
Factor III	female	0.95	1.11	1.00	0.25	1.75	Z = 1.201 p = 0.230
	male	0.67	1.03	0.75	0.25	1.50	
Factor IV	female	0.73	1.14	0.67	0.00	1.67	Z = 1.344 p = 0.179
	male	0.43	1.26	0.67	0.00	1.00	

M – mean, SD – standard deviation, Me – median, Q1 – lower quartile, Q3 – upper quartile, Z – Mann–Whitney U test, p – p-value

There was no statistically significant difference between males and females in any of the Factors. (Table 10)

Comparison of Factor scores by independent variables – teachers' age

Then, the results obtained were compared among the three age groups of the teachers: teachers under 37, followed by a group in the bracket 37–49 years, and the last group was teachers who were >49 years. The results are presented in Table 11.

Table 11. Comparison of Factor scores by teachers' age

Factor analysed	Age (y)	M	SD	Me	Q1	Q3	Group comparison
Factor I	I) <37	1.48	0.98	1.68	1.03	2.15	H = 9.373 p = 0.009 I > II* I > III*
	II) 37–49	1.20	1.15	1.41	0.59	2.06	
	III) >49	1.12	1.18	1.29	0.62	1.88	

(Continued)

Factor analysed	Age (y)	M	SD	Me	Q1	Q3	Group comparison
Factor II	I) <37	-0.60	0.99	-0.67	-1.33	-0.17	H = 8.827 p = 0.012 I < II* I < III*
	II) 37–49	-0.31	1.10	-0.33	-1.00	0.42	
	III) >49	-0.29	1.03	-0.33	-1.08	0.50	
Factor III	I) <37	0.64	1.05	0.50	0.00	1.25	H = 20.981 p < 0.001 I < II** I < III***
	II) 37–49	0.95	1.14	1.00	0.13	1.75	
	III) >49	1.20	1.02	1.25	0.50	2.00	
Factor IV	I) <37	0.92	1.04	1.00	0.00	1.67	H = 7.528 p = 0.023 I > III*
	II) 37–49	0.68	1.20	0.67	-0.33	1.67	
	III) >49	0.56	1.14	0.67	-0.33	1.33	

M – mean, SD – standard deviation, Me – median, Q1 – lower quartile, Q3 – upper quartile, H – Kruskal-Wallis test, p – p-value, * $p < 0.050$, ** $p < 0.010$, *** $p < 0.001$

We are interested in possible discrepancies between the groups. There was a statistically significant difference in Factor I between the respondents in the three age groups compared.
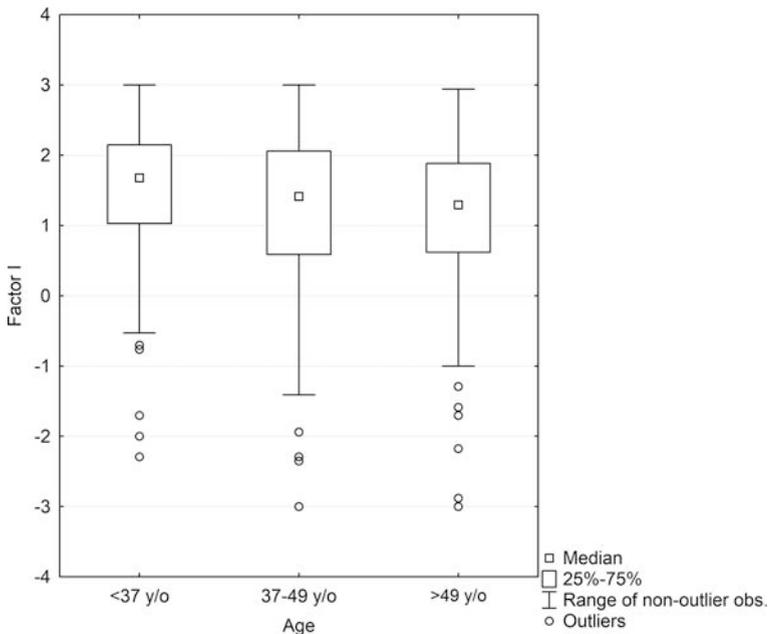
Plot 2. Factor I discrepancies in the three age brackets

Above:
– The bracket <37 years was statistically significantly different from the bracket 37–49 years (significance p=0.039). The descriptive statistics reveal that the score of the former bracket was higher than that of the latter bracket on Factor I. In their attitudes towards supervision, the teachers aged <37 years more often identify themselves with Factor I than the teachers in the bracket 37–49 – Support Perspective on Supervision.
– The bracket <37 years was statistically significantly different from the bracket >49 years (significance p=0.012).

The descriptive statistics shows that the score of the bracket <37 years group was higher than that of the bracket >49 on Factor I. The teachers aged <37 years were significantly more likely to identify in their attitudes towards supervision with Factor I than the teachers in the >49 years group – the Support Perspective on Supervision.
– There was NO statistically significant difference between the bracket 37–49 years group and the >49 years group. Parallel differences were observed for Factors II and III.

Based on the analysis of the statistical data presented in Table 11, differences in scores between the age groups in terms of identification with specific attitudes towards supervision in relation to Factor II were observed.

In particular, the scores with a minus sign for the bracket <37 were lower than for the bracket 37–49, indicating a greater discord of the teachers aged <37 years from the attitudes identified on Factor II as the Critical Perspective on Supervision, compared to the 37–49 teachers.

In addition, the research showed a significant difference (p=0.024) between the bracket <37 years and the bracket >49 in terms of Factor II, with lower scores with a minus sign for the younger age group, also suggesting a discord with attitudes related to Factor II among teachers <37 years compared to the >49 teachers. This highlights the difference in perception and attitudes towards supervision between these age groups. (Plot 3)

At the same time, no statistically significant difference was identified between the bracket 37–49 and the bracket >49 in relation to Factor II, indicating convergent identification with attitudes correlated with this Factor. This finding suggests that teachers belonging to both age groups have comparable approaches towards the Critical Perspective on Supervision.
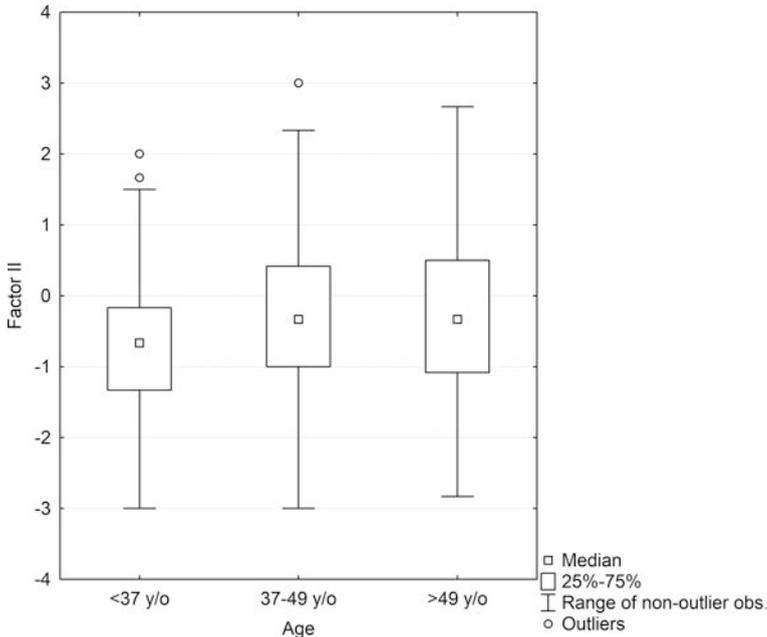
Plot 3. Factor II discrepancies in the three age brackets
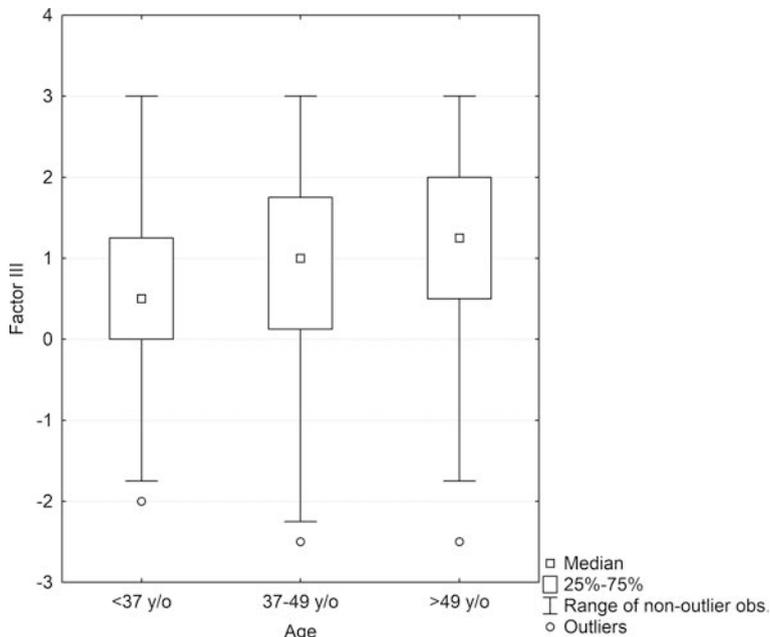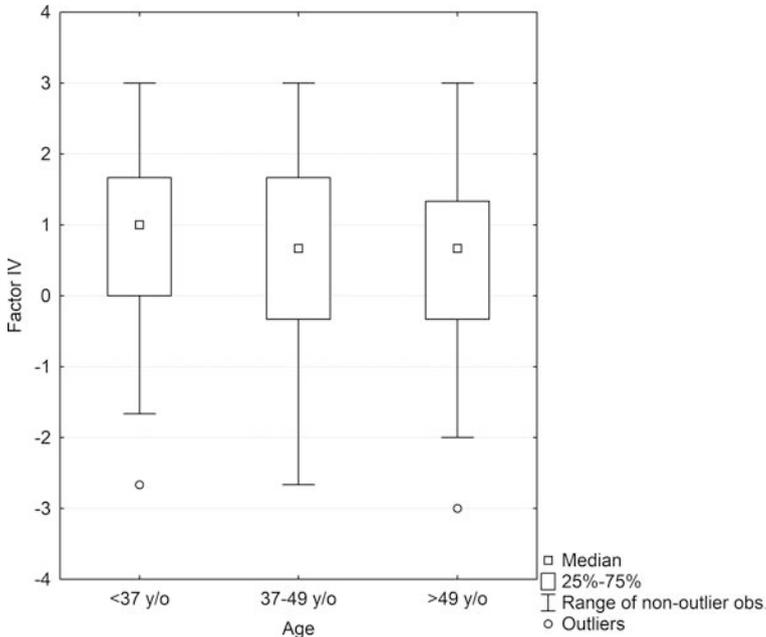
Factor III: Autonomy Perspective on Supervision

The bracket <37 years was statistically significantly different from the bracket 37–49 (significance p=0.01). (Plot 4)

The research revealed that the score of the <37 years group was lower than the score of the bracket 37–49 on Factor III. In their attitudes towards supervision, the teachers aged <37 years more often identify themselves with Factor III than the teachers in the age bracket 37–49 – Autonomy Perspective on Supervision.
– The <37 years group was statistically significantly different from the >49 years group (the difference significance is p=0.001).

Based on the descriptive statistics (Table 9), it can be seen that the score of the <37 years group was lower than the score of the >49 years group on Factor III. The teachers aged <37 years were significantly less likely to identify in their attitudes towards supervision with Factor III than the teachers of the >49 years group – the Autonomy Perspective on Supervision.
– There was NO statistically significant difference between the 37–49 years group and the >49 years group.

Plot 4. Factor III discrepancies in the three age brackets

These results indicate a significant difference in the level of identification with the Autonomy Perspective on Supervision between the teachers aged <37 years and their older colleagues. In contrast, the analysis showed no statistically significant differences between the 37–49 years group and the >49 years group on Factor III, suggesting similarity in identification with attitudes correlated with the Autonomy Perspective on Supervision. This finding highlights that teachers in these two older age groups have comparable approaches towards autonomy in the context of supervision.

Factor IV – The Supervisor Intervention Perspective only differentiates the group of teachers aged <37 years with the >49 years group. The difference significance is 0.028.

The bracket 37–49 does not differ from either <37 years old group or the >49 teachers. The research (Table 11) allow an observation that the score of the bracket <37 was higher than that of the other two groups. The teachers aged <37 years were significantly more likely to identify in their attitudes in consistency with Factor IV –Supervisor Intervention Perspective.

Analysis of the statistical data presented above reveals variation in levels of identification of teachers from different age groups with specific attitudes towards supervision, reflecting significant differences in perception and approaches towards the topic. In particular, statistically significant differences were

Plot 5. Factor IV discrepancies in the three age brackets

noted on Factor I, where teachers aged <37 years show higher levels of identi-
fication with the Support Perspective on Supervision compared to the 37–
49 years group (p=0.039) and the >49 years group (p=0.012). However, no sig-
nificant difference was observed between the latter two groups, indicating their
similar approach to Factor I.

Similarly, in the context of Factor II and Factor III, the research shows dif-
ferences in perception between the youngest age group and the older groups. On
Factor II, the Critical Perspective on Supervision, teachers aged <37 years present
a lower level of identification than their 37–49 and >49 age brackets corre-
spondents, with statistical significance of p=0.024 for the comparison with the
>49 years group. Similarly, on Factor III, Autonomy Perspective on Supervision,
the bracket <37 years differs significantly from the bracket 37–49 (p=0.01) and
the bracket >49 years (p=0.001), disclosing a lower level of identification with
this Factor.

An interesting finding is the lack of significant differences between the 37–
49 years group and the >49 years group on Factors II and III, suggesting similar
attitudes towards the Critical and Autonomy Perspectives of Supervision.

Factor IV, concerning the Supervisor Intervention Perspective, differentiates
the group of teachers aged <37 years from the group of >49 years (p=0.028), with
a higher level of identification in the youngest group. The bracket 37–49 shows

no significant differences compared to the other two groups, which may indicate a more balanced approach to intervention supervision.

In conclusion, the analysis shows significant differences between the age groups in their identification with different perspectives on supervision. Younger teachers seem to identify more with Support and intervention attitudes, while older teachers show more predilection towards critical and Autonomy attitudes. These results highlight the importance of divergent approaches to the supervision process, adapted to the perceptions and expectations of teachers in different age groups.

Comparison of Factor scores by independent variables – teachers' work experience

The data analysis was then extended to cover a comparison based on work experience of the participants. Three categories were selected for analysis: teachers with <11 years of working experience, teachers between 11 and 24 years of work experience, and teachers with >24 years of work experience. There was a statistically significant difference on Factor I between the respondents in the three compared groups in terms of work experience.

Table 12. Comparison of Factor I scores by teachers' work experience

Factor analysed	Work experience (y)	M	SD	Me	Q1	Q3	Group comparison
Factor I	I) <11	1.56	0.93	1.71	1.00	2.18	H = 14.403 p = 0.001 I > II** I > III***
	II) 11–24	1.20	1.12	1.41	0.59	1.94	
	III) >24	1.08	1.21	1.29	0.53	1.88	
Factor II	I) <11	-0.67	1.04	-0.67	-1.33	-0.17	H = 14.257 p = 0.001 I < II** I < III***
	II) 11–24	-0.31	1.04	-0.50	-1.00	0.33	
	III) >24	-0.25	1.06	-0.17	-1.00	0.58	
Factor III	I) <11	0.68	1.07	0.50	0.00	1.50	H = 23.132 p < 0.001 I < III*** II < III**
	II) 11–24	0.87	1.12	1.00	0.00	1.50	
	III) >24	1.22	1.05	1.25	0.50	2.00	
Factor IV	I) <11	0.98	1.10	1.00	0.33	1.67	H = 11.925 p = 0.003 I > II* I > III**
	II) 11–24	0.65	1.13	0.67	0.00	1.33	
	III) >24	0.58	1.18	0.67	-0.33	1.33	

M – mean, SD – standard deviation, Me – median, Q1 – lower quartile, Q3 – upper quartile, H – Kruskal-Wallis test, p – p-value, * $p < 0.050$, ** $p < 0.010$, *** $p < 0.001$

The analysis of differences in identification with attitudes towards supervision depending on total work experience found out statistical significance between the selected groups. Teachers with <11 years of work experience show significant differences compared to teachers with 11–24 years, with a significance level of $p=0.007$. The data analysis indicates a higher level of identification with the Support Perspective on Supervision (Factor I) among teachers with shorter work experience (<11 years), compared to the group of teachers with 11–24 years of work experience.

In addition, comparing teachers with the shortest work experience (<11 years) with the group of teachers with work experience of >24 years also revealed significant statistical differences ($p=0.001$), with a higher score for the first group in relation to Factor I. This indicates that teachers with total work experience of <11 years were more likely to identify with attitudes supporting supervision, compared to teachers in the >24 years group (Plot 6).
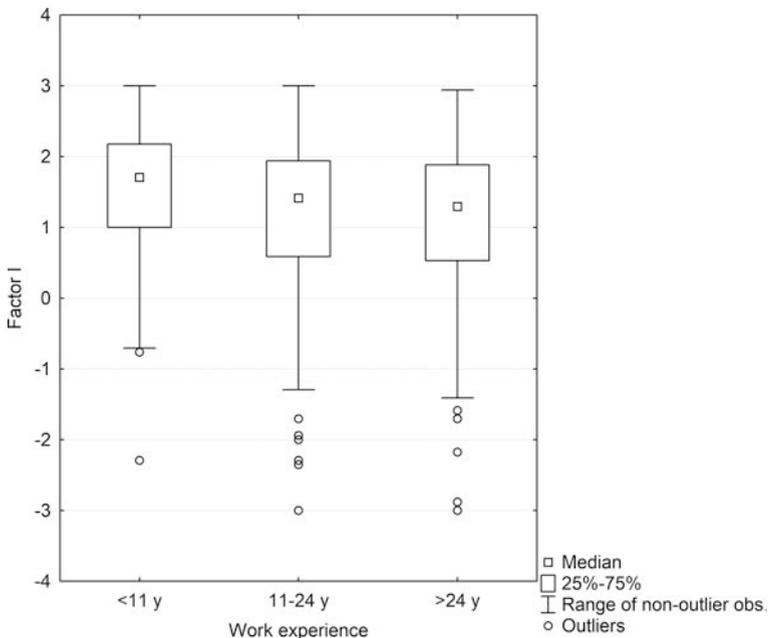
Plot 6. Factor I discrepancies by work experience

However, the analysis showed no statistically significant differences between the group of teachers with work experience of 11–24 years and that with >24 years on Factor I, suggesting that these two groups have comparable levels of identification with the Support Perspective on Supervision. These results highlight how

work experience influences teacher perceptions and attitudes towards supervision, with clear discrepancies due to work experience.

The statistical data presented in Table 10 revealed significant differences in the level of identification with the Critical Perspective on Supervision (Factor II) in the context of work experience of the teachers. In particular, teachers with <11 years of experience showed a lower level of concord with the attitudes correlated with Factor II compared to teachers with 11–24 years of work experience, as manifested by a greater discord of teachers with shorter work experience with the attitudes correlated with this Factor (p=0.008). This observation suggests a significant difference in the perception of the Critical Perspective on Supervision between the aforementioned groups.
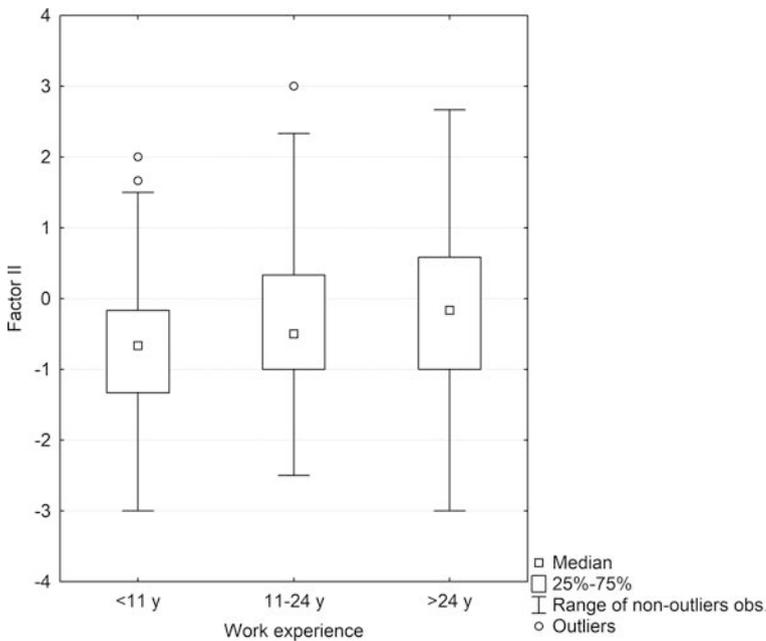
Plot 7. Factor II discrepancies by work experience

Furthermore, the statistical analysis revealed a significant difference (p=0.001) between teachers with <11 years of experience and the group with >24 years of experience, with lower scores among the group with shorter work experience, indicating their stronger discord with the Critical Perspective on Supervision compared to teachers with longer work experience. This result highlights the discrepancy in how these groups approach supervision.

In contrast, the lack of significant statistical differences between the group of teachers with 11–24 years of work experience and the group of >24 years of work

experience in relation to Factor II indicates similarity in identification with the Critical Perspective on Supervision.

With regard to total work experience, Factor III statistically significantly differentiates the following groups: the group with total work experience of <11 years with the group with the group of >24 years (p=0.001) and the group with total work experience of 11–24 years with the group of >24 years (p=0.002).

Referring to the descriptive statistics of Factor III, it should be recognised that, due to the lower scores, the group with work experience of <11 years agrees with the attitudes consistent with Factor III, i.e. the Autonomy Perspective on Supervision, less than the group of >24 years, similarly the group with total work experience of 11–24 years and the group with the longest work experience.
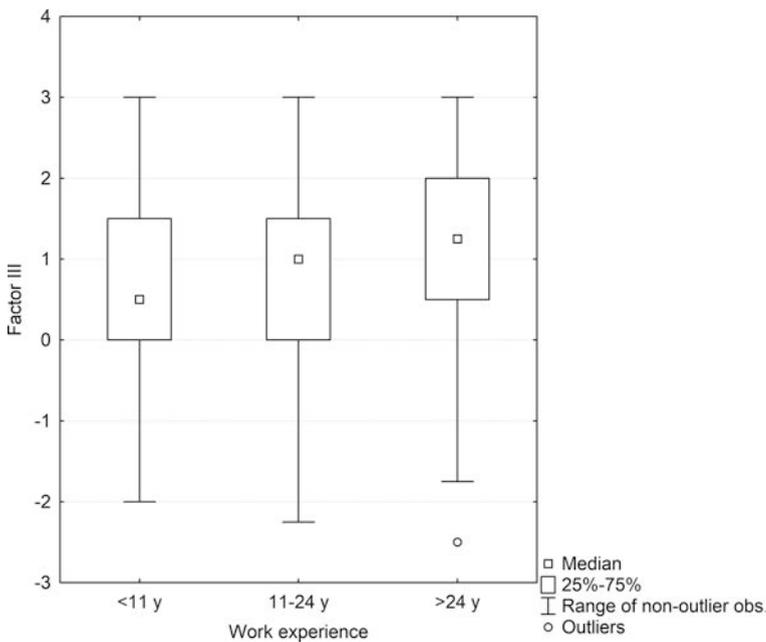
Plot 8. Factor III discrepancies by work experience

Factor IV – The Supervisor Intervention Perspective differentiates the group of teachers with work experience of <11 years with the other two groups – the group with work experience of 11–24 years (p=0.01) and the group of >24 years (p=0.003).

The group with total work experience of 11–24 years and the >24 years group were not significantly different. The data shows that the score of the group of <11 years is higher than that of the other two groups. The teachers surveyed belonging to the group with total work experience of <11 years were more likely
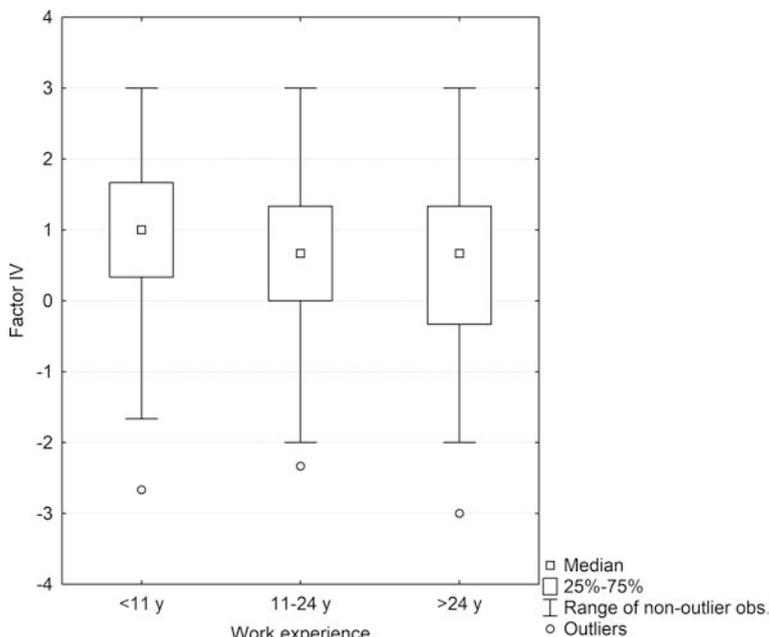
Plot 9. Factor IV discrepancies by work experience

to identify, rather agree, with attitudes consistent with Factor IV – the Supervisor Intervention Perspective.

In summary, the analysis of the statistical data regarding the work experience of the teachers surveyed revealed differences in identification with the particular perspectives on supervision. Three groups were separated: teachers with <11 years of work experience, teachers with between 11 and 24 years of work experience, and teachers with >24 years of work experience, with a corresponding distribution in the study population. The results of the statistical analysis, as presented in the tables, indicate significant differences in the level of identification with the different perspectives on supervision, depending on work experience.

In particular, teachers with the shortest work experience (<11 years) show significant differences compared to teachers with longer work experience in terms of the Support Perspective on Supervision (Factor I), with higher levels of identification among this group. This comparison highlights the differences in the perception of Support attitudes towards supervision between teachers with different work experience, especially between the groups with the shortest and the longest work experience.

Similarly, the analysis with regard to the Critical Perspective on Supervision (Factor II) reveals that teachers with experience of <11 years differ significantly

from teachers with longer work experience, demonstrating lower concord with the attitudes correlated with this perspective. This highlights that work experience influences the critical approach to supervision.

Further, on the Autonomy Perspective on Supervision (Factor III), significant statistical differences between the groups indicate that teachers with the shortest and medium work experience were less likely to identify with this perspective than the group with the longest work experience. This suggests that greater work experience correlates with greater autonomy in supervision.

Recent observations concern the Supervisor Intervention Perspective (Factor IV), where teachers with <11 years of work experience differ from the other groups, showing higher levels of identification with this Factor. The lack of significant differences between the groups with longer work experience suggests similarity in approach to intervention supervision.

The analysis results show that total work experience of teachers influences their identification with different perspectives on supervision. Clear differences between the groups highlight how work experience shapes teacher attitudes towards supervision, indicating diverse needs and expectations depending on the work experience.

Comparison of Factor scores by independent variables – teaching rank of the teachers surveyed

As part of further research, an analysis of differences in teacher attitudes towards supervision was carried out, taking into account their teaching ranks. A five-level classification was used for this purpose, including: teachers with no rank, trainee teachers, contract teachers, nominated teachers and certified teachers.

The results for the individual Factors by teaching ranks revealed that there was a statistically significant difference between teachers with no rank and certified teachers, and only these two groups differ in Factor I with significance at p=0.002 (Table 10, Plot 10), as well as Factor II at p=0.01 (Table 11, Plot 11).

Table 13. Comparison of groups by teaching ranks

Factor analysed	Teaching rank	M	SD	Me	Q1	Q3	Group comparison
Factor I	I) no rank	1.78	0.71	1.88	1.35	2.18	H = 16.308 p = 0.003 I > V**
	II) trainee	1.31	0.86	1.41	0.71	2.00	
	III) contract	1.36	1.06	1.62	0.82	2.12	
	IV) nominated	1.35	1.08	1.50	0.82	2.09	
	V) certified	1.08	1.20	1.29	0.47	1.94	

(Continued)

Factor analysed	Teaching rank	M	SD	Me	Q1	Q3	Group comparison
Factor II	I) no rank	-0.87	0.92	-0.83	-1.33	-0.33	H = 11.719
	II) trainee	-0.24	1.36	-0.50	-1.00	0.50	p = 0.020
	III) contract	-0.49	0.92	-0.50	-1.00	0.17	I < V *
	IV) nominated	-0.36	1.10	-0.33	-1.17	0.33	
	V) certified	-0.28	1.06	-0.33	-1.08	0.50	
Factor III	I) no rank	0.56	1.08	0.50	0.00	1.25	H = 12.892
	II) trainee	0.87	1.24	0.75	0.50	1.75	p = 0.012
	III) contract	0.79	1.13	0.75	0.00	1.50	~ I < V
	IV) nominated	0.84	1.02	1.00	0.00	1.50	
	V) certified	1.09	1.10	1.00	0.38	2.00	
Factor IV	I) no rank	0.66	1.16	0.67	0.00	2.00	H = 9.690
	II) trainee	1.05	1.06	1.00	0.33	1.67	p = 0.046
	III) contract	0.90	1.14	1.00	0.33	1.67	
	IV) nominated	0.80	1.13	1.00	0.00	1.67	
	V) certified	0.57	1.15	0.67	-0.33	1.33	

M – mean, SD – standard deviation, Me – median, Q1 – lower quartile, Q3 – upper quartile, H – Kruskal-Wallis test, p – p-value, * $p < 0.050$, ** $p < 0.010$, *** $p < 0.001$, ~ at the limit of significance

For Factor I – the Support Perspective on Supervision, we conclude from the descriptive statistics (higher mean) that teachers with no rank declare attitudes more identified with Factor I, indicating teacher professional development and emotional well-being.

In contrast, the differences in the results for Factor II by teaching ranks indicate that teachers with no rank were significantly more likely to disagree with the Critical Perspective on Supervision attitude than certified teachers.

When analysing Factor III (Autonomy Perspective on Supervision) and Factor IV (Supervisor Intervention Perspective), the result of the Kruskal-Wallis test was statistically significant (Factor III) or close to the significance threshold (Factor IV), but further analyses did not clearly indicate a significant difference between the groups (Plot 12 and Plot 13). The teaching rank varies attitudes towards supervision in these Factors to a small extent.

In summary, a variation in the distribution of teachers by teaching rank was revealed, with a dominance of certified teachers. The results indicated significant statistical differences between teachers with teaching ranks, particularly in relation to the Support and Critical Perspectives on Supervision, highlighting the differentiation of approaches according to teaching rank. However, the analysis did not show clear differences between groups on the Autonomy and Intervention Perspectives on Supervision, suggesting a limited effect of teaching rank on
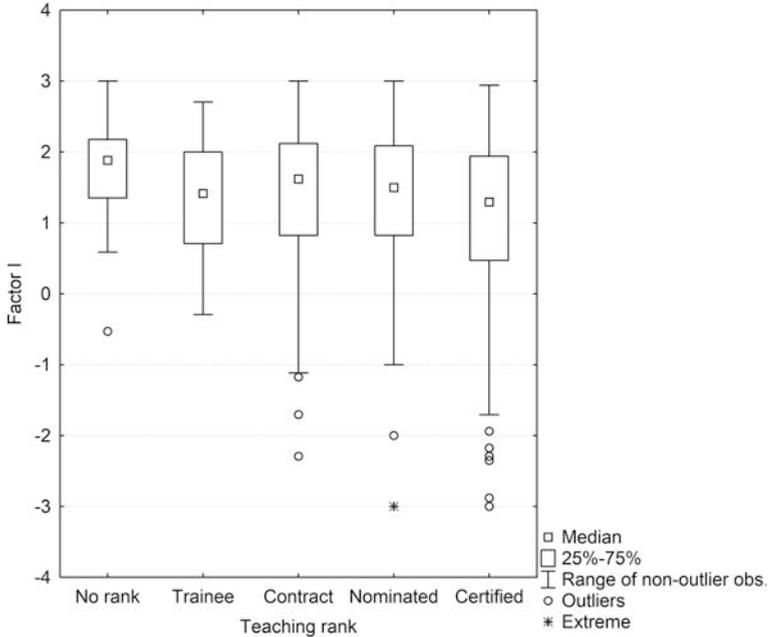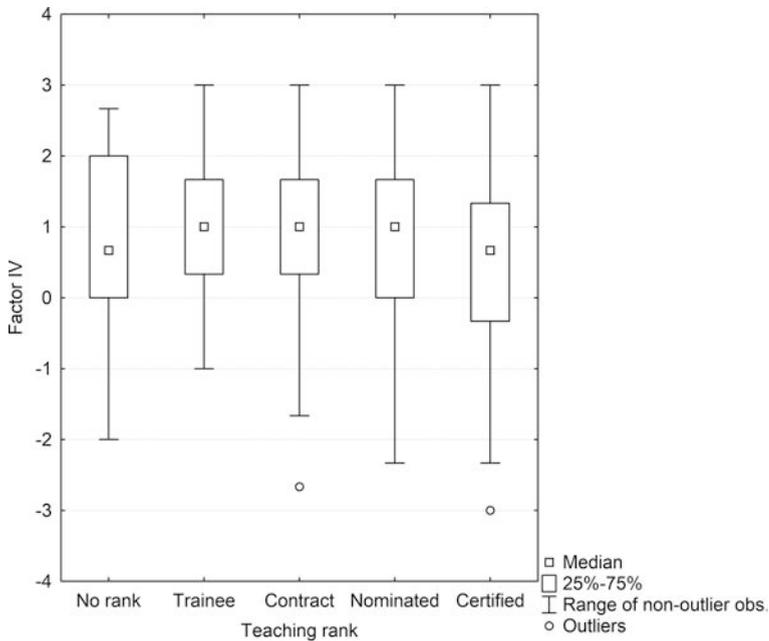
Plot 10. Factor I discrepancies by teaching rank
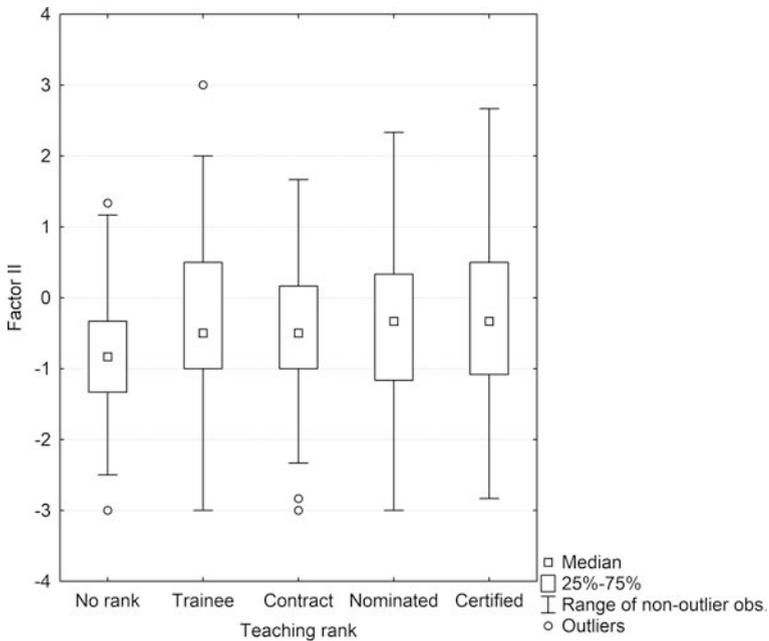
Plot 11. Factor II discrepancies by teaching rank
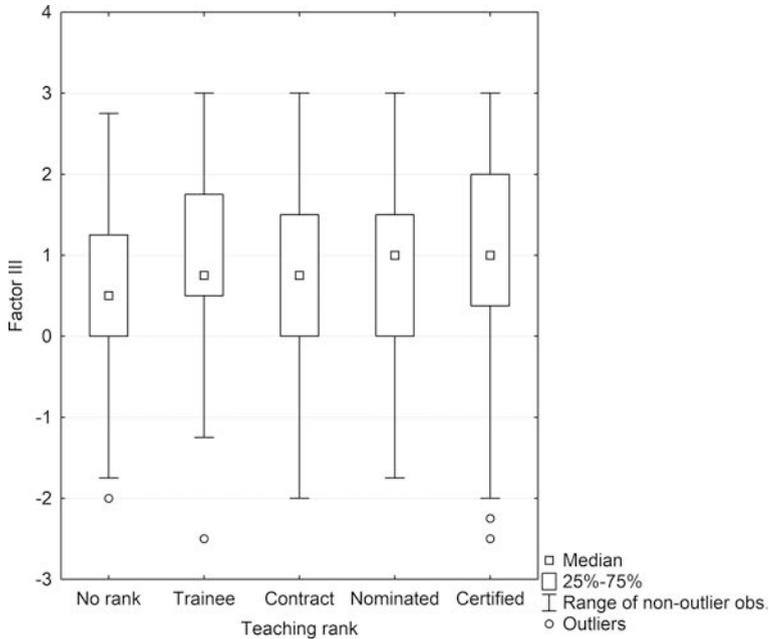
Plot 12. Factor III discrepancies by teaching rank

Plot 13. Factor IV discrepancies by teaching rank

attitudes towards supervision in this respect and pointing to the need to consider other factors in research on teacher attitudes.

Comparison of Factor scores by independent variables – work location and residence

The results of the descriptive statistics on the relationship between work location and residence and identification with particular supervision Factors are included in Table 14.

Table 14. Comparison of scores by work location

Factor analysed	Work location	M	SD	Me	Q1	Q3	Group comparison
Factor I	rural	1.14	1.08	1.29	0.59	1.88	Z = -1.983 p = 0.047
	urban	1.30	1.13	1.53	0.76	2.12	
Factor II	rural	-0.30	1.03	-0.33	-0.83	0.33	Z = 1.563 p = 0.118
	urban	-0.42	1.07	-0.50	-1.17	0.33	
Factor III	rural	0.84	1.10	1.00	0.00	1.50	Z = -1.338 p = 0.181
	urban	0.97	1.11	1.00	0.25	1.75	
Factor IV	rural	0.76	1.08	1.00	0.00	1.67	Z = 0.813 p = 0.416
	urban	0.69	1.18	0.67	-0.33	1.67	

M – mean, SD – standard deviation, Me – median, Q1 – lower quartile, Q3 – upper quartile, Z – Mann–Whitney U test, p – p-value
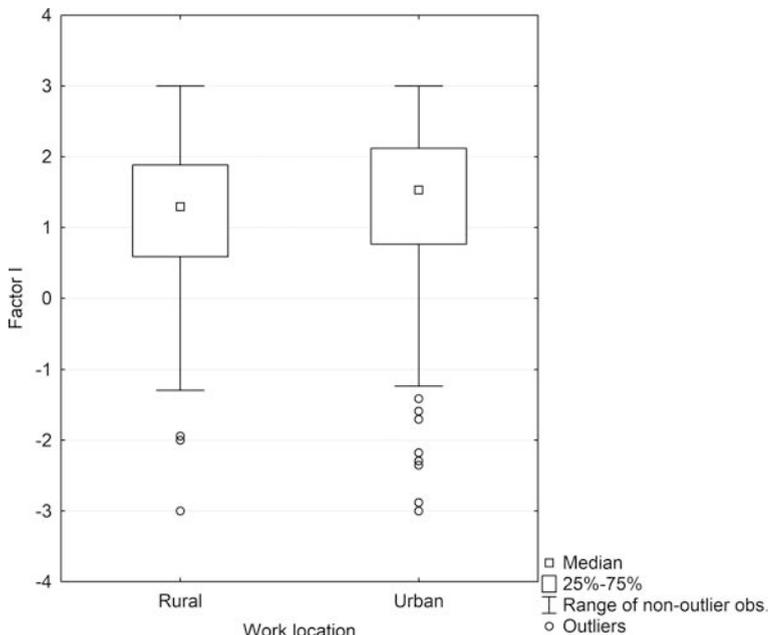
Work location differentiates the attitudes towards supervision of the teachers surveyed only on Factor I, while residence does not differentiate on any of the Factors.

Table 15. Comparison of scores by residence

Factor analysed	Residence	M	SD	Me	Q1	Q3	Group comparison
Factor I	rural	1.21	1.08	1.35	0.65	1.94	Z = -0.933 p = 0.351
	urban	1.27	1.13	1.47	0.71	2.06	
Factor II	rural	-0.31	1.00	-0.33	-1.00	0.33	Z = 1.244 p = 0.213
	urban	-0.41	1.08	-0.50	-1.17	0.33	
Factor III	rural	0.90	1.11	1.00	0.00	1.75	Z = -0.406 p = 0.684
	urban	0.94	1.10	1.00	0.25	1.75	
Factor IV	rural	0.81	1.17	1.00	0.00	1.67	Z = 1.392 p = 0.164
	urban	0.67	1.14	0.67	0.00	1.67	

M – mean, SD – standard deviation, Me – median, Q1 – lower quartile, Q3 – upper quartile, Z – Mann–Whitney U test, p – p-value

The teachers working in urban areas were significantly more likely (p=0.04) to identify in their attitudes with Factor I, indicating teacher professional development and their emotional well-being, that is with the Support Perspective on Supervision, than teachers working in rural areas (we infer it from descriptive statistics – higher mean) – Plot 14.

Plot 14. Factor I discrepancies by work location

Comparison of Factor scores for independent variables – marital status

Differences in teacher attitudes towards supervision due to the marital status were analysed. A four-level classification scale was used for this purpose: single; divorced, separated; in a relationship (married, cohabiting) and widowed.

The results for the relationship between marital status and identification with particular supervision Factors are presented in Table 16.

Table 16. Comparison of groups by marital status

Factor analysed	Marital status	M	SD	Me	Q1	Q3	Group comparison
Factor I	I) single	1.29	1.26	1.65	0.65	2.15	H = 3.864 p = 0.277
	II) divorced/separated	1.26	1.09	1.47	0.59	2.06	
	III) in relationships	1.26	1.10	1.47	0.76	2.06	
	IV) widowed	0.92	0.90	1.15	0.62	1.38	
Factor II	I) single	-0.59	1.16	-0.67	-1.33	-0.08	H = 13.294 p = 0.004 I < IV** III < IV*
	II) divorced/separated	-0.18	1.13	-0.33	-0.83	0.67	
	III) in relationships	-0.39	1.03	-0.50	-1.17	0.33	
	IV) widowed	0.30	0.67	0.33	0.08	0.67	
Factor III	I) single	0.81	1.10	0.75	0.00	1.50	H = 9.846 p = 0.020 I < IV* II < IV*
	II) divorced/separated	0.72	1.15	0.75	0.00	1.50	
	III) in relationships	0.95	1.10	1.00	0.25	1.75	
	IV) widowed	1.64	0.84	1.75	1.13	2.00	
Factor IV	I) single	0.67	1.13	0.67	0.00	1.67	H = 1.899 p = 0.594
	II) divorced/separated	0.85	1.07	1.00	0.33	1.67	
	III) in relationships	0.69	1.16	0.67	0.00	1.67	
	IV) widowed	0.96	1.02	1.00	0.33	1.67	

M – mean, SD – standard deviation, Me – median, Q1 – lower quartile, Q3 – upper quartile, H – Kruskal-Wallis test, p – p-value, * p < 0.050, ** p < 0.010, *** p < 0.001

The differences in the results indicate statistically significant differences in Factor II (Critical Perspective on Supervision) and Factor III (Autonomy Perspective on Supervision). Factor I and Factor IV do not differentiate the respondents by marital status.

Widows and widowers, compared to singles and people in a relationship (married, cohabiting), were significantly more likely (p=0.003) to adopt an attitude towards supervision that is consistent with Factor II in the Critical Perspective (Plot 15). This attitude highlights a critical and diverse approach of widowed teachers towards supervision, taking into account the potential ambiguities associated with it, as well as the emotional reactions and perceived effectiveness of supervision.

Factor III is the Autonomy Perspective on Supervision, which marks the teachers' pursuit of autonomy and directedness in the supervision process. It was significantly more often (p=0.02) declared by widows/widowers than by singles, divorced or separated people (Plot 16). This attitude highlights the widows'/widowers' pursuit of professional autonomy and high expectations regarding the supervisor competences.
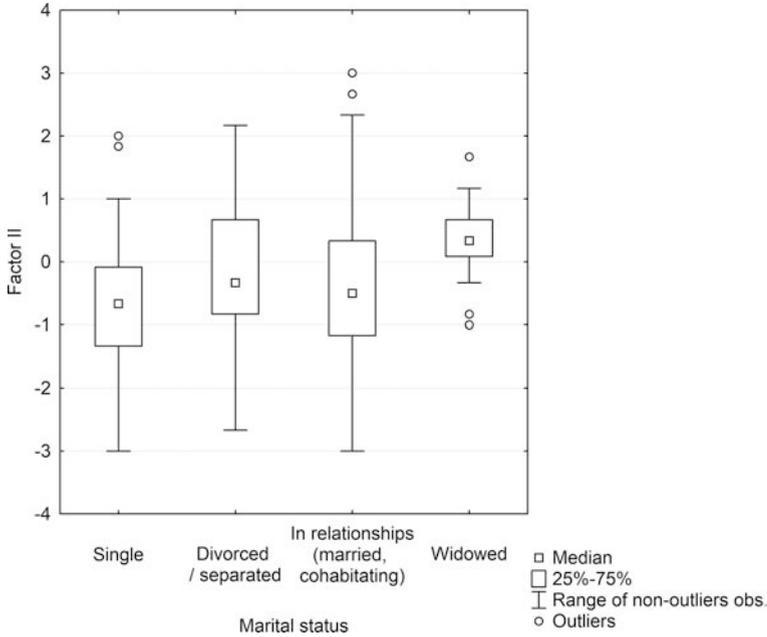
Plot 15. Factor II discrepancies by marital status
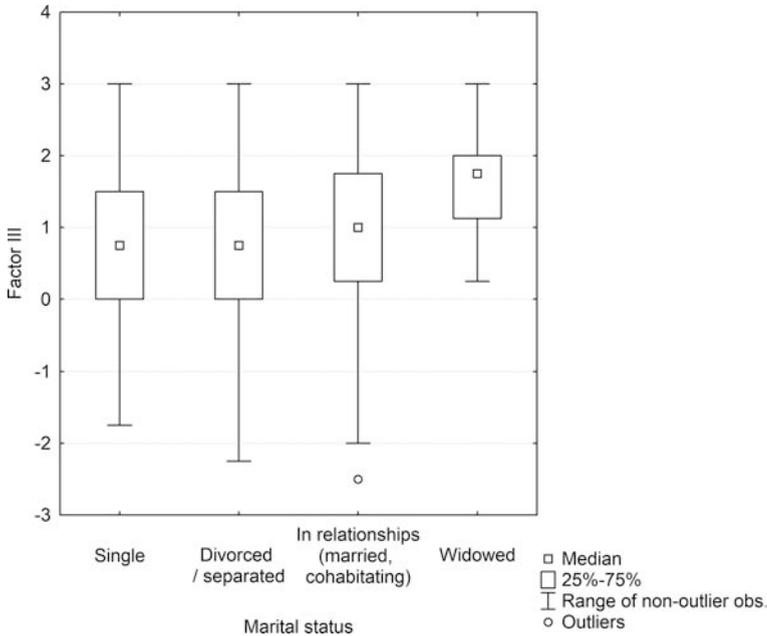
Plot 16. Factor III discrepancies by marital status

Widows and widowers were significantly more likely to adopt an attitude consistent with Factor II in the Critical Perspective than singles or people in a relationship (married or cohabiting). This attitude is distinguished by a critical and diverse approach to supervision, drawing attention to potential ambiguities, emotional reactions and the perceived effectiveness of the process. Factor III, the Autonomy Perspective, emphasises the widows' and widowers' pursuit of maintaining autonomy and influence in the supervision process, which they declared significantly more than those who were single, divorced or separated. This attitude accentuates their expectations of supervisor competence and their pursuit of professional autonomy.

Comparison of Factor scores by independent variables – number of children

An analysis was made of differences in teacher attitudes towards supervision by the number of children of the respondents. A four-level classification scale was used for this purpose: no children, one child, two children, three children and more.

Table 17. Comparison of groups by number of children

Factor analysed	Number of children	M	SD	Me	Q1	Q3	Group comparison
Factor I	(I) 0	1.31	1.30	1.65	0.82	2.24	H = 6.975
	II) 1	1.33	1.20	1.53	0.88	2.12	p = 0.073
	III) 2	1.21	1.03	1.41	0.65	1.94	
	IV) ≥3	1.20	0.91	1.18	0.59	1.88	
Factor II	(I) 0	-0.51	1.13	-0.50	-1.33	0.17	H = 10.676
	II) 1	-0.52	1.06	-0.67	-1.33	0.17	p = 0.014
	III) 2	-0.32	0.99	-0.33	-1.00	0.33	II < IV*
	IV) ≥3	-0.13	1.08	-0.17	-0.83	0.83	
Factor III	(I) 0	0.92	1.13	0.75	0.25	1.75	H = 1.280
	II) 1	0.92	1.16	1.00	0.00	1.75	p = 0.734
	III) 2	0.97	1.13	1.00	0.25	1.75	
	IV) ≥3	0.82	0.84	1.00	0.25	1.50	
Factor IV	(I) 0	0.69	1.16	0.67	-0.33	1.67	H = 4.787
	II) 1	0.91	1.27	1.00	0.00	2.00	p = 0.188
	III) 2	0.65	1.11	0.67	0.00	1.33	
	IV) ≥3	0.63	1.02	0.67	0.00	1.00	

M – mean, SD – standard deviation, Me – median, Q1 – lower quartile, Q3 – upper quartile, H – Kruskal-Wallis test, p – p-value, * $p < 0.050$

The independent variable 'number of children' differentiated the attitudes towards supervision of the teachers surveyed on Factor II in the Critical Perspective on Supervision. There was a difference only between respondents with one child and respondents with three or more children (respondents with one child scored lower on Factor II than respondents with three or more children). The other groups do not differ. Teachers with three children or more declared the lowest level of disagreement (mean -0.13) with the Critical Perspective on Supervision, but this level was not significantly lower than that of the other groups. The statistically significant difference ($p=0.014$) concerns the group of teachers with one child. They significantly disagreed more with the Critical Perspective on Supervision. This attitude manifested itself by a diverse approach to supervision, drawing attention to potential ambiguities, emotional reactions and the perceived effectiveness of the process.
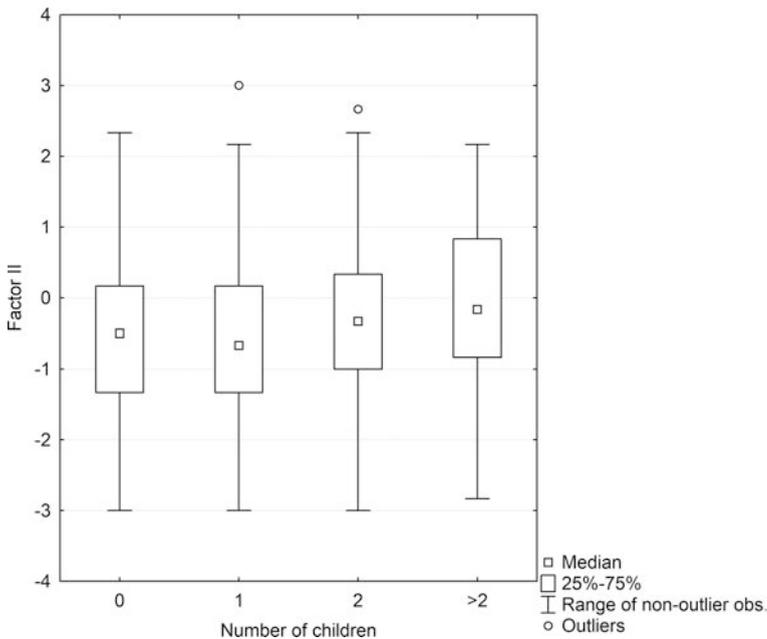
Plot 17. Factor II discrepancies by number of children

In terms of Factors I, III and IV, there were no significant differences for the number of children the teachers had.

Comparison of Factor scores due to independent variables – economic status

As part of further proceedings, an analysis of differences in teacher attitudes towards supervision was carried out, taking into account their social status. A two-level classification was used for this purpose: teachers with unsatisfactory economic status and teachers with satisfactory economic status.
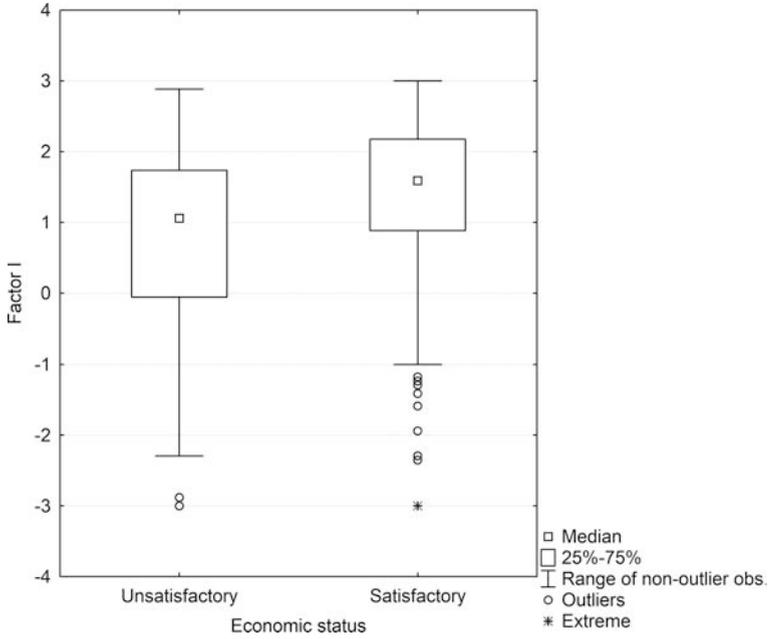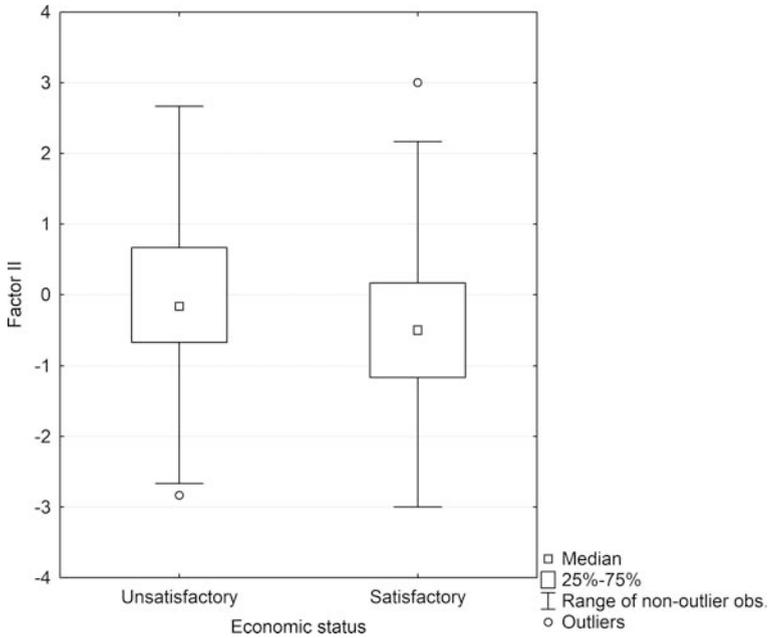
Table 18. Comparison of scores by economic status

Factor analysed	Economic status	M	SD	Me	Q1	Q3	Group comparison
Factor I	unsatisfactory	0.80	1.23	1.06	-0.06	1.74	Z = -5.212
	satisfactory	1.41	1.04	1.59	0.88	2.18	p < 0.001
Factor II	unsatisfactory	-0.12	1.05	-0.17	-0.67	0.67	Z = 3.742
	satisfactory	-0.47	1.04	-0.50	-1.17	0.17	p < 0.001
Factor III	unsatisfactory	1.18	1.06	1.25	0.50	2.00	Z = 2.713
	satisfactory	0.85	1.11	1.00	0.00	1.50	p = 0.007
Factor IV	unsatisfactory	0.61	1.15	0.67	0.00	1.33	Z = -1.037
	satisfactory	0.75	1.15	1.00	0.00	1.67	p = 0.300

M – mean, SD – standard deviation, Me – median, Q1 – lower quartile, Q3 – upper quartile, Z – Mann–Whitney U test, p – p-value

Differences in the results for economic status suggest that there were statistically significant differences on Factor I (Support Perspective on Supervision), Factor II (Critical Perspective on Supervision) and Factor III (Autonomy Perspective on Supervision). Factor IV showed no differences between the respondents due to economic status.

Teachers satisfied with their economic status declared attitudes more consistent with Factor I – the Support Perspective on Supervision (p=0.001) (Plot 18), were more critical of Factor II – the Critical Perspective on Supervision (p=0.001) (Plot 19) and expressed attitudes that were less intense on Factor III – the Autonomy Perspective on Supervision (p=0.006) than teachers declaring dissatisfaction with their economic status (Plot 20).

Thus, teachers who were satisfied with their economic status were more likely to emphasise two key areas of supervision: teacher professional development and their emotional well-being. This reflects both the educational and developmental aspects as well as the personal and emotional benefits of supervision. These teachers were much less likely to emphasise a critical and diverse view of supervision, considering both its potential ambiguities as well as the emotional reactions it evokes and its perceived effectiveness. Less often do they emphasise central issues regarding teacher preferences towards supervision, the pursuit of professional autonomy and expectations regarding supervisor competences.

Plot 18. Factor I discrepancies by economic status

Plot 19. Factor II discrepancies by economic status
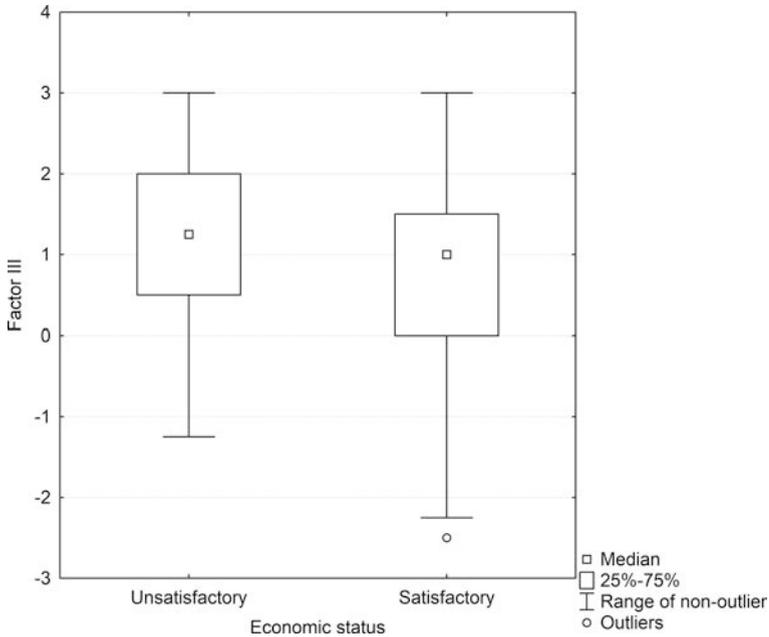
Plot 20. Factor III discrepancies by economic status

Comparison of Factor scores for independent variables – participation in supervisions

The results obtained were compared according to the participation in supervisions of the teachers surveyed. Five groups were identified, i. e. teachers who participated in supervisions at the SCWEW; teachers from facilities where there were SCWEW supervisions, but they did not participate in them; teachers from facilities where there was SCWEW, but no supervisions were carried out; teachers from facilities where there was no SCWEW support and they have not participated in supervisions; and teachers from facilities where there was no SCWEW support, but they participated in supervisions on another occasion. We are interested in possible differences between the groups. A statistically significant difference was noted on Factors I and II. No such differences were noted on Factors III and IV.

Table 19. Comparison of groups as regards participation in supervisions

Factor analysed	Participation in supervision	M	SD	Me	Q1	Q3	Group comparison
Factor I	Response A	1.46	0.92	1.62	0.94	2.09	H = 29.364 p < 0.001 A > B***. B < D*. B < E***. C < E**
	Response B	0.75	1.24	1.00	-0.06	1.71	
	Response C	0.89	1.30	1.09	-0.06	1.82	
	Response D	1.28	1.04	1.47	0.76	2.06	
	Response E	1.56	1.17	1.65	1.29	2.35	
Factor II	Response A	-0.33	1.07	-0.33	-1.00	0.33	H = 24.583 p < 0.001 A > E**. B > E***. C > E**. D > E**
	Response B	-0.04	1.06	-0.08	-0.83	0.83	
	Response C	-0.21	1.00	-0.33	-1.00	0.50	
	Response D	-0.40	0.98	-0.33	-1.00	0.33	
	Response E	-0.87	1.11	-0.83	-1.50	-0.33	
Factor III	Response A	0.87	1.05	1.00	0.25	1.50	H = 5.343 p = 0.254
	Response B	1.10	1.01	1.00	0.50	2.00	
	Response C	0.94	1.14	1.00	0.25	2.00	
	Response D	1.00	1.11	1.00	0.25	1.75	
	Response E	0.68	1.21	0.75	0.00	1.50	
Factor IV	Response A	0.90	1.10	1.00	0.33	1.67	H = 6.680 p = 0.154
	Response B	0.69	1.00	0.67	0.00	1.33	
	Response C	0.72	1.13	0.83	0.00	1.67	
	Response D	0.68	1.13	0.67	0.00	1.67	
	Response E	0.48	1.38	0.67	-0.67	1.67	

A: I participated in supervisions at the SCWEW, B: supervisions were carried out at my SCWEW, but I did not participate in them, C: supervisions were not carried out at my SCWEW, D: there was no SCWEW support in my facility and I have never participated in supervisions, E: there was no SCWEW support in my facility, but I participated in supervisions on another occasion. M – mean, SD – standard deviation, Me – median, Q1 – lower quartile, Q3 – upper quartile, H – Kruskal-Wallis test, p – p-value, * p < 0.050, ** p < 0.010, *** p < 0.001, ~ on the threshold of significance

It should be stated in terms of Factor I (Plot 21):

– The group 'I participated in supervisions at the SCWEW' was statistically significantly different from the group 'supervisions were carried out at my SCWEW, but I did not participate in them' (the significance of the difference between the two groups is p=0.001).

The results showed that the mean score of the group 'I participated in supervisions at the SCWEW' was significantly higher than the score of the group 'supervisions were carried out at my SCWEW, but I did not participate in them' on Factor I. The teachers who participated in supervisions at the SCWEW were
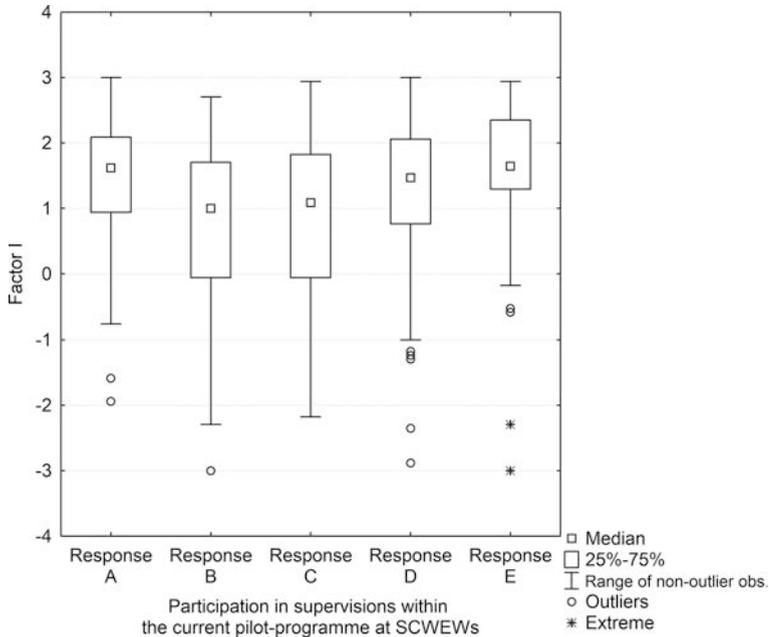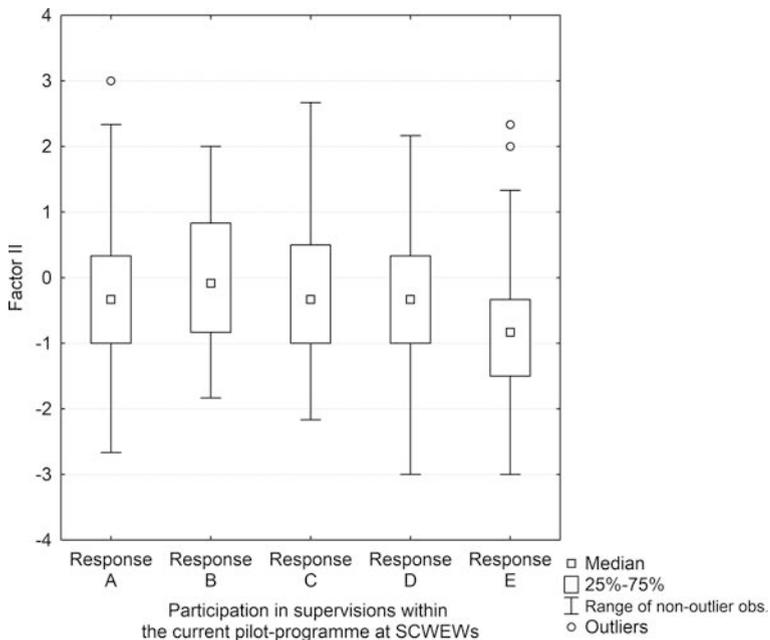
Plot 21. Factor I discrepancies as regards participation in supervisions

significantly more likely to find concord in their attitudes towards supervisions with Factor I than teachers who did not participate in them at the SCWEW – the Support Perspective on Supervision.

– The group 'supervisions were carried out at my SCWEW, but I did not participate in them' was statistically significantly different from the group 'there was no SCWEW support in my facility and I have never participated in supervisions' (significance of differences is p=0.003) and from the group 'there was no SCWEW support in my facility, but I participated in supervisions on another occasion' (significance of differences p=0.019).

The results demonstrate that the score of the group 'supervisions were carried out at my SCWEW, but I did not participate in them' was higher than the score of the group 'there was no SCWEW support in my facility and I have never participated in supervisions' on Factor I, and even higher in the group 'there was no SCWEW support in my facility, but I participated in supervisions on another occasion.' The teachers from facilities where there was the SCWEW, but they did not participate in supervisions, were significantly more likely to find concord in their attitudes towards supervisions with Factor I than teachers from facilities with no SCWEW – the Support Perspective on Supervision. The teachers surveyed who participated in supervisions on an occasion other than within the

SCWEW were significantly more likely to find concord in their attitudes towards supervisions with Factor I than teachers who participated in supervisions within the SCWEW – the Support Perspective on Supervision. The latter do so significantly more often than teachers who did not participate in supervisions and did not have SCWEW support.

Plot 22. Factor II discrepancies as regards participation in supervisions

In terms of Factor II (Plot 22) – the Critical Perspective on Supervision – we noticed statistically significant differences between the group 'there was no SCWEW support in my facility, but I participated in supervisions on another occasion' and the other four groups. This group was the least critical towards supervisions, followed successively by the group 'there was no SCWEW support in my facility and I have never participated in supervisions' (p=0.003), the group 'I participated in supervisions at the SCWEW' (p=0.006), the group 'supervisions were not carried out at my SCWEW' (p=0.002), and the group 'supervisions were carried out at my SCWEW, but I did not participate in them' (p=0.001). Teachers who could have participated in supervision but did not do so within the SCWEW were the most critical of supervision. The least critical were those who participated in supervision on an occasion other than within the SCWEW because there was not one in their facilities. Factors III and IV do not differentiate between the teachers surveyed due to their participation in supervisions.

Summary

The research results from the Scale – obtained with the principal component method with Varimax rotation – allowed for an identification of four key perspectives on supervision: Support, Critical, Autonomy and Intervention. The study, which included teachers who differed in age, work experience, teaching rank, work location and residence, marital status, number of children and economic status pointed out significant differences in teachers' identification with the diverse perspectives on supervision. Younger teachers preferred the Support and Intervention Perspectives, while more experienced ones bend towards the Critical and Autonomy Perspectives. The teaching rank also influenced the differentiation of approaches, although no clear differences were found in the context of the Autonomy and Intervention Perspectives.

Interestingly, teachers with longer work experience (over 25 years) were more likely to identify with the Autonomy Perspective, suggesting that work experience tends to show correlation with greater autonomy in supervision. At the same time, teachers working in urban areas were more likely to identify with the Support Perspective, which may reflect greater access to training and development resources in urban areas.

The analysis also highlighted that widows and widowers, compared to singles or people in a relationship, were significantly more likely to adopt an attitude consistent with the Critical Perspective, which may indicate specific expectations and life experiences influencing their approach to supervision.

Teachers satisfied with their economic status were more likely to emphasise the Support Perspective, while less satisfied teachers were more critical and less autonomous in their approach to supervision.

In summary, the results of the study show that diverse demographic and professional factors have a significant impact on teacher attitudes towards supervision. This highlights the need for a differentiated approach to the supervision process, tailored to individual teacher needs and expectations, approached in a wider context of professional and personal factors.

Chapter VI.
Discussion and conclusions

Discussion

The analysis of the results of the study conducted using the Scale of Attitudes Towards Educational Supervision reveals how different demographic and professional aspects of teachers influence their perceptions and attitudes towards supervision. The four main perspectives identified (Support, Critical, Autonomous, Intervention) reflect diverse teacher approaches towards supervision, which has important implications for the effectiveness of supervision and its perception by teachers.

Teachers' age and work experience clearly differentiate attitudes towards supervision. Younger teachers and those with shorter work experience were more likely to identify more with the Support and Intervention Perspectives. This may be due to their greater openness to new experiences and professional development needs. In contrast, older teachers and those with longer work experience were more likely to identify with the Critical and Autonomy Perspectives, which may reflect greater experience and autonomy in educational decision-making.

The openness to supervision of teachers with shorter work experience may be due to constrained general knowledge of external factors affecting education. Teachers with longer work experience describe their professional situation in terms of 'unstable working conditions for teachers'. This sense of instability may be caused by frequent changes at the ministerial office responsible for educational policy in Poland. In the time-span between 12 September 1989 until present, Poland has had 22 ministers of education, which gives an average length of ministerial turn of 18 months. This led to continual waves of unpredictable changes in the educational ecosystem, causing huge instability in terms of hiring conditions, promotion systems, learning objectives, student and parent expectations, curricula and school system arrangements (Madalińska-Michalak, 2024, p. 338). Consequently, the teachers with longer work experience distance themselves from subsequent waves of change.

These differences may also be linked to differences in perception of the supervisor role and expectations of the supervision process. Teachers with greater experience may expect a more individualised approach and the possibility of greater autonomy, while younger teachers may be more open to the development suggestions from supervisors.

The teaching rank also influences attitudes towards supervision, although not equally for all Factors. There are clear differences in the Support and Critical Perspectives, suggesting that the teaching rank may influence teacher expectations of support and evaluation of their work by supervisors. Teachers with higher ranks, such as certified teachers, were more likely to identify with the Support and Critical Perspectives.

Work location and residence (urban, rural) and marital status (widowed and singles) also influence discrepancies in attitudes towards supervision. This may be due to differences in access to resources and professional support as well as personal life experiences that shape expectations of professional relationships and support.

The economic status of the teachers has an impact on their attitudes towards supervision as well. Teachers satisfied with their economic status were more likely to emphasise the importance of professional development and emotional well-being but less likely to be critical of supervision. Participation in supervisions, especially those carried out as part of the SCWEW, has a significant effect on teacher attitudes. The teachers who participated in supervisions were less critical of the process compared to those who did not have this opportunity. The justification for this attitude may be human development itself. In the course of it, and therefore with age, the mutual relations between developmental needs change. Each of them successively becomes particularly important, dominant, 'leading'. However, it should be remembered that supporting development was not only about meeting needs or creating conditions for meeting them, but above all about modelling the ways in which they are met. The period of early and middle adulthood is characterised by the need for solidarity, establishing and maintaining relationships with people, and generativity, i. e. creating and caring. This translates into readiness to initiate new social contacts, activities aimed at social integration, and readiness to make creative changes in one's own life (Brzezińska, Jabłoński & Ziółkowska, 2014, pp. 42–43).

In summary, the research results show that different demographic and professional factors have a significant impact on teacher attitudes towards supervision. This highlights the need for a differentiated approach to the supervision process, tailored to individual teacher needs, expectations as well as professional and life contexts. In the face of changing legislation and increasing pressure to comply with new educational standards, supervisor support becomes a key element in ensuring the quality of education.

It is also worth noting that the first two Factors (I and II) reflect comprehensive attitudes, while the next two (III and IV) are incomprehensive. Factor III covers only the behavioural component, without knowledge or ideas about the nature of the attitude object, while Factor IV focuses on the cognitive component, without a specific behavioural pattern. In both cases, the respondents do not reveal emotions towards supervision, suggesting that with regard to the last two Factors, we are dealing more with opinions or mindsets than with comprehensive attitudes (Prokopiak, 2012).

Recommendations:

1. Conducting further research to gain a deeper understanding and identify missing aspects on Factors III and IV. It is worthwhile to continue analyses to determine why these Factors do not cover comprehensive attitudes, and to find ways to supplement them, which will lead to more comprehensive results.
2. Developing training opportunities and workshops for respondents to develop comprehensive attitudes towards supervision. Such educational initiatives can include theoretical sessions, practical exercises, and discussions that will help participants better understand the nature of supervision and to fully engage in the process, which in turn can lead to an improvement in the quality of their attitudes.
3. Regular monitoring and evaluation of attitudes towards supervision are key to identifying and addressing any gaps. This means systematically collecting data on attitudes, analysing them, and taking corrective action where necessary.
4. Providing emotional support for the respondents would aim to create an environment where they can openly express their emotions and opinions towards supervision. This could include access to counselling and support groups to allow participants to feel more comfortable and confident in expressing their feelings.

Cognitive implications and proposals for educational and therapeutic practice

Inclusive education and teacher professional development are key elements of the modern education system. In the light of changing legislation, growing societal expectations and the diverse needs of students, teachers face challenges that require ongoing support and adaptation. One tool that can play an important role in this process is supervision. Supervision, understood as methodological and emotional support for teachers, has the potential not only for professional development, but also for the promotion of inclusive education.

In relation to the research results presented, which analyse teacher attitudes towards supervision, it is reasonable to discuss the cognitive implications and proposals for educational and therapeutic practice. These findings point to the need for systematic implementation and supervision development in Polish schools, taking into account the specific needs and working conditions of teachers. This section discusses key findings and recommendations for strengthening the role of educational supervision, supporting inclusive education, teacher professional development as well as suggestions for education policy. The implications presented aim to facilitate the practical implementation of supervision and support teachers in their daily educational work.

1. Strengthening the role of educational supervision
   – increasing the availability of supervision;
     The research results show the benefits of teacher participation in supervision, including professional and emotional support. Therefore, there is a need to increase the availability of supervision for teachers at all stages of their careers, regardless of location or economic status.
   – personalisation of the supervision process;
     Supervision should be tailored to individual teacher needs, taking into account their work experience, workplace, and the specific challenges of working with students with diverse learning needs. Individualising the process can increase its effectiveness and acceptance among teachers. The results emphasise the need to adapt the supervision processes to individual teacher demographic and professional characteristics, such as age, work experience and teaching rank. An individualised approach can increase the supervision effectiveness and its perception as a tool to support professional development.
   – the supervisor role as a mentor;
     Supervisors should act as mentors, offering support but also inspiring reflection and self-development. It is essential that supervisors are competent, both theoretically and practically, in working with diverse groups of students and in inclusive education. The results point to the need for ongoing supervisor training so that they can effectively adapt their methods to the diverse teacher needs and expectations. This training should include both Support techniques and methods to develop teacher autonomy. In order to increase the supervision effectiveness, it is important to build positive, mutually trusting relationships between teachers and supervisors, which can contribute to better understanding and meeting the teacher needs at different stages of their careers.
2. Supporting inclusive education
   – integration of the principles of inclusive education;
     The principles of inclusive education need to be integrated more firmly into

pedagogical practice, which requires the continuous improvement of teacher competences in working with students with diverse needs. Support in the form of supervision can help teachers to adapt new teaching methods and strategies.
– cooperation with parents and the local community;
The introduction of inclusive education should be supported by working closely with parents and the local community. The supervision programmes can include sessions with parents to better understand and support students.
3. Professional and competence development
– cultivating a culture of lifelong learning;
It is necessary to promote a continuous learning culture and professional development among teachers. Supervision can be one of the tools that support this culture, enabling teachers to regularly reflect on their own practice and adapt to changing educational challenges.
– use of modern technology;
In the digital age, the use of modern technologies such as e-coaching or online platforms can facilitate access to supervision, especially in areas with limited educational resources. These technologies can also support remote forms of supervision and collaboration between teachers.
4. Suggestions for education policy
– establishing supervision standards;
There is a need to establish standards and guidelines for educational supervision that take into account the diversity of teacher and student needs. Education policy should promote supervision as an integral part of teacher professional development. Efforts should be made to raise awareness among teachers, especially those with shorter work experience, of the benefits of the various aspects of supervision, including critical and autonomous, so that they can realise the full potential of the process for their own professional development.
– strengthening the role of regional education authorities and local government units;
Regional education authorities and local government units should actively support the implementation of supervision in schools by offering the necessary resources and organisational support.
– monitoring and evaluation of supervision programmes;
Systematic monitoring and evaluation of supervision programmes are needed to ensure their effectiveness and relevance to educational needs.
– introducing a course in pedagogical studies that implements the model of supervision work;

The introduction of a course on the model of supervision work in peda-
gogical studies is not only justified, but also necessary for the compre-
hensive preparation of future educators. Such a course will enhance their
professional competence and reflective practice, provide emotional sup-
port, allow them to better understand the supervisor role as well as prepare
them for ethical and effective work in the profession.

With the rapidly changing challenges in the education system, supervision is
becoming a key tool to support teachers in their professional development and in
the implementation of inclusive education. Increasing the availability and per-
sonalisation of supervision, together with adequate preparation of supervisors,
can significantly contribute to improving the quality of teaching and better
adapting pedagogical practices to the diverse needs of students. The introduction
of appropriate standards and systematic monitoring of supervision programmes
are essential to maximise the benefits of the process while supporting the de-
velopment of teacher competence and creating favourable conditions for in-
clusive education.

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Legal acts

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Annex

Scale of attitudes towards educational supervision

Version 2023
Authors: Prokopiak Anna, Prysak Dorota, Zamkowska Anna

Read a number of statements regarding educational supervision. Some statements will be consistent with your beliefs, others you will find inconsistent. Whatever your answer is, it will be a good one if it is honest. Many people have similar beliefs to yours. Enter a number   +1, +2, +3 or -1, -2, -3   depending on your beliefs: **+3** strongly agree   -3 strongly disagree **+2** agree   -2 disagree **+1** rather agree   -1 rather disagree

1.	I am curious how supervision will be carried out in education
2.	Participation in supervision evokes positive emotions in me
3.	I am angry at another obligation to participate in supervision
4.	I do not like to talk about my difficulties at work
5.	I am impatient with supervision as another proposal to blame teachers for the difficulties in education
6.	Supervision is too unclear for me now, it is not clear whether it will be used in education
7.	Supervision is a source of stress and frustration for me
8.	I feel relieved at the thought of supervision and the possibility of using it to solve difficulties at work
9.	I would like to participate in supervision
10.	I am glad that supervision expands my knowledge and experience
11.	Supervision supports professional development
12.	Supervision is a mutual exchange of experience
13.	Supervision does not influence my personal decisions
14.	Due to supervision, I improve the quality of my work
15.	Supervision increases professional identification

	16.	The most important aspect of supervision is learning
	17.	Supervision focuses on competence gaps
	18.	Supervision can enhance teaching skills
	19.	Supervisors should point out what mistakes I make when working with my students
	20.	Supervisors should indicate a solution to a given difficulty discussed during the supervision
	21.	I would like to participate in supervision at least once a month
	22.	I would not like supervision to be mandatory
	23.	I would not like to participate in supervision outside my working hours
	24.	I would like to participate in group supervisions
	25.	Online supervision is not a good idea
	26.	I would participate in supervision conducted by supervisors from outside my facility
	27.	In my opinion, individual supervisions are a waste of time
	28.	I would attend supervision sessions with supervisors who know what the work in my school is like
	29.	If supervisors lack methodological competences, working with them is time wasted
	30.	I want to decide myself who will supervise my work

Key

Factor I	Support Perspective on Supervision	1, 2, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 14, 15, 16, 18, 21, 24, 26, 27, 28
Factor II	Critical Perspective on Supervision	3, 4, 5, 6, 13, 25
Factor III	Autonomy Perspective on Supervision	22, 23, 29, 30
Factor IV	Supervisor Intervention Perspective	17, 19, 20
Reverse statements		7, 27