

ABSTRACT

Kathleen Anne Proctor

Co-operative Teaching Practice Supervision: An analysis of how teachers, student teachers and supervising tutors may work together effectively.

The recommendations for good supervision practice outlined in the literature are not very often implemented successfully. The problems seem to lie in uncertainty about objectives, poor communication between schools and training institutions, disagreement about the allocation of roles and the apparent inability of supervisors to put their intentions into practice.

The intention in setting up the studies, was to examine the processes of communication and supervision as they were taking place and, in this way, identify the factors influencing the process. The analysis showed that supervising tutors were very responsive to the school contexts in which they were placed. Important features were the nature of the school situation and the characteristics of the teachers, student teachers and pupils. Drawing on past experience they analysed the new contexts and built up a complex and sophisticated picture of them. Their use of supervision strategies was related to their judgement of these contexts but their difficulties lay in the lack of time and opportunity which the teaching practice situation allowed for assessing the relevant features.

It became clear that the significant features of the context were summarised in the relationship which was being built up between the teacher and the student teacher and that the tutors' actions were in response to their perceptions of that relationship. If their perceptions were well informed, then they were in a better position to decide on a responsive strategy.

A typology of teacher/student teacher relationships was developed from the perceptions of the tutors and matched against the reports of teachers and student teachers. It was possible to compare the teacher/student teacher relationship with three descriptions: a teacher/pupil relationship; a collaborator relationship; a protagonist relationship, and to identify supervision strategies which would be appropriate for each of the relationships described. It was suggested that this information, drawn from the professional knowledge of experienced tutors could be used as a heuristic device to encourage effective supervision practice which would be responsive to the teacher/student teacher relationship.



CO-OPERATIVE TEACHING PRACTICE SUPERVISION:
AN ANALYSIS OF HOW TEACHERS, STUDENT TEACHERS
AND SUPERVISING TUTORS MAY WORK TOGETHER
EFFECTIVELY

VOLUME 1

Kathleen Anne Proctor

A thesis, in two volumes, submitted to the School
of Education at the University of Durham
for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

1991

The copyright of this thesis rests with the author.
No quotation from it should be published without
his prior written consent and information derived
from it should be acknowledged.



ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

It has taken a long time for this piece of work to be completed and my thanks go to a lot of people who have helped.

To:

Professor David McNamara, for his tolerance, patience and continued encouragement and help

The tutors, teachers and student teachers, who were willing to share their experiences with me, even when it took a long time

The Edgehill College authorities for financial and moral support

Colleagues at Edgehill College for believing that it would be finished

The library staff at Edgehill for help and advice

My husband for tremendous help in the presentation

Dr. Donald McIntyre for his helpful discussion and for the use of the term "efficacy".

Howard Sainsbury for undertaking the tedious task of proof-reading

Pat Clarke for her willing and swift help with photocopying

Dr. M. Byram for his contribution in the final stages

Table of Contents

VOLUME 1

ABSTRACT.....	1
TITLE PAGE.....	2
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	3
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	4
DECLARATION.....	15
STATEMENT OF COPYRIGHT.....	16
INTRODUCTION.....	17
CHAPTER 1: THE NATURE OF SUPERVISION.....	23
1.0 Introduction.....	25
1.1 Introducing terminology.....	26
Practice Teaching.....	26
Supervision.....	27
Role of the supervisor.....	27
The time spent on supervision.....	27
The nature of the supervision.....	28
1.2 Difficulties involved in reviewing supervision behaviour.....	28
Types of difficulty.....	29
The complexity of the enterprise.....	29
Interaction between the participants.....	29
Range of approaches and methods used in supervision.....	33
Conclusion to the section.....	34
1.3 What do supervisors do ?.....	34
Who supervisors are.....	34
Process studies of supervision.....	35
How supervision is effected.....	35
Roles and functions of supervisors.....	36
Supervisors' beliefs about teaching.....	38
Professional development of supervisors...	40
Developmental supervision.....	41
The products of supervision.....	43
Developing teaching skills.....	43
Establishing good relationships.....	45
Linking theory and practice.....	46

Changing the attitudes of student teachers	46
Assessment.....	46
Conclusions to this section.....	48
1.4 What is the nature of the social context within which supervisors work?.....	49
Operating in a triad.....	49
Some factors influencing the triadic situation.....	51
Relative influence of teacher and tutor supervisors.....	51
Difficulties for teachers.....	52
Difficulties for tutors.....	52
Difficulties for student teachers.....	52
Discussion about the context of supervision.	55
Conclusion to this section.....	58
1.5 What should supervisors do?.....	59
Factors which require attention in order to enhance supervision.....	60
Training for supervision.....	60
Diagnosis.....	60
Formative or summative assessment.....	61
Establishing and communicating expectations.....	62
Factors which may influence attempts to enhance supervision.....	64
The size of the teacher education programme.....	65
Individuality of the participants.....	65
Developmental aspects of supervision.....	66
1.6 Summary and implications for the research.....	67
Summary of research on supervision.....	67
Role of supervising tutor.....	67
Degree of competence of supervising tutors.....	68
Social context of the supervision.....	68
Making supervision more effective.....	68
Areas for further research.....	69
Taking into account personal views of supervisors.....	69
Adapting the actions of supervisors to the needs of student teachers.....	69
Developmental supervision.....	70
1.7 Leading into the next stage.....	70

CHAPTER 2: THE NATURE OF TEACHING AND RELATED STRATEGIES FOR SUPERVISION.....	72
2.0 Introduction.....	74
2.1 Levels of training.....	75
2.2 Thinking and research in teacher education....	76
The impact of the disciplines of education..	76
Applying research findings from the disciplines of education to teaching and learning in schools.....	76
The place of the disciplines of education in teacher education.....	78
The impact of classroom studies.....	80
Applying the findings from classroom studies to teaching and learning in schools	80
The place of classroom studies in teacher education.....	83
Professional knowledge.....	85
A response to criticisms of teacher education.....	85
Some examples of studies exploring teachers' professional knowledge.....	87
Applying this approach to teacher education.....	90
Reflective teaching.....	92
Refining professional knowledge.....	95
2.3 Achieving particular teaching outcomes through supervision.....	96
The implications of beliefs about teaching for supervision practice.....	96
Supervisors trying to promote the application of theory.....	97
Supervisors trying to teach skills.....	99
Supervisors helping student teachers to develop professional knowledge.....	101
2.4 Supervision in practice.....	106
Supervision as a professional skill.....	106
The developmental nature of supervision.....	106
Influencing professional skills.....	109
2.5 Developing a framework for the research.....	110
Principles to guide the research.....	110
Outlining the research.....	110

CHAPTER 3: THE CONDUCT OF THE RESEARCH.....	112
3.0 Introduction.....	113
3.1 The setting for the research.....	115
3.2 The first study.....	116
Setting up the study.....	116
Methodology.....	117
Results and implications.....	119
3.3 The second study.....	120
Setting up the study.....	120
Methodology.....	122
Evaluating the nature of the use of the guidance documents and hence the co-operation.....	122
Exploring professional skills.....	124
Results and implications.....	128
The nature of supervision behaviour.....	128
Discussing the nature and use of the emergent typology.....	132
Potential dangers in the use of such a typology.....	135
3.4 The third study.....	135
The aims of the study.....	135
Setting up the study.....	138
Methodology.....	142
3.5 Conclusions.....	146
CHAPTER 4: SUPERVISION IN PRACTICE.....	148
4.0 Introduction.....	150
4.1 Accessing tutors' professional knowledge about supervision.....	150
4.2 Tutors' procedures in the classroom.....	152
Observing the student teacher.....	152
The triad.....	154
4.3 Influences to which tutors respond in classrooms.....	156

Characteristics of student teachers.....	156
Competence.....	158
Personality.....	158
Lack of confidence.....	159
Ability and willingness to be forthcoming.....	160
Ability to be self-critical.....	160
Provoking negative responses.....	161
Beliefs.....	161
Judgements about schools and classrooms.....	162
Aspects of the class likely to have implications for student teachers.....	162
Impact of perceptions on tutors' behaviour.....	163
4.4 The component parts of a tutor's judgements about teaching as related to supervision behaviour.....	167
The component parts.....	168
Diagram to show the component parts of a tutor's judgements about teaching.....	168
What do tutors make judgements about?.....	168
Efficacy.....	168
Personal focus.....	170
How do tutors make judgements?.....	174
Range.....	174
Degree of analysis.....	177
Confidence.....	182
Speed.....	183
4.5 Discussion of the framework.....	185
The structure of supervising tutors' thinking.....	185
Management or control or efficacy.....	187
Context.....	188
Tutors setting limits.....	189
4.6 Implications.....	190
Explaining supervisors' behaviour.....	191
Explaining tutors' attitudes to theoretical approaches to supervision.....	192
Helping tutors to reflect on their own behaviour in classrooms.....	193
4.7 Summary and looking towards the next stage of the analysis.....	195

CHAPTER 5: CHARTING CO-OPERATION DURING THE WEEKS OF THE PRACTICE.....	197
5.0 Introduction.....	199
Relationship between co-operation and effective supervision.....	199
Outlining the chapter.....	200
5.1 Examining co-operation.....	201
Tutor input to student teachers.....	201
Teacher input to student teachers.....	202
The role of the student teacher in accepting or in initiating help.....	202
Relationships in the trio.....	203
Making use of the information.....	204
5.2 The first stage of the practice.....	205
The information from the first summary sheet.....	205
Discussion of the figures in the light of other evidence.....	206
Establishing relationships.....	206
Problems with establishing relationships..	209
Factors influencing the development of effective relationships during the first stage.....	211
The corresponding role of the tutor.....	212
5.3 The second stage of the practice.....	215
The second summary sheet.....	215
Reported decrease in professional dialogue..	216
Implicit understanding that the student is "coping".....	216
Teacher's perceptions of her/his role.....	218
Nothing to talk about.....	218
Maintaining or increasing professional dialogue.....	220
Adapting the instructional role.....	220
Changing from the instructional role.....	221
Developing friendships.....	223
Enhancing a previously low level of interaction.....	224

Role of the tutor.....	227
Where a student is "coping".....	227
Response to student difficulties.....	227
Tutors taking a pro-active role.....	230
5.4 The third stage of the practice.....	231
Tutors acting to maintain teacher/student teacher dialogue.....	232
Tutors developing responsive patterns of supervision.....	234
Helping student teachers with difficulties..	236
Summary.....	237
5.5 Discussion and implications.....	238
Assumptions about co-operation.....	238
Co-operation and diagnosis.....	240
Developmental aspects of teaching practice..	241
Tutor influence on teacher/student teacher relationships.....	242
5.6 Summary.....	243
CHAPTER 6: VALIDATING THE TYPOLOGY.....	244
6.0 Introduction.....	245
6.1 Teacher/pupil.....	246
Description.....	246
Some actual examples of teacher/pupil relationships.....	247
Potential teacher/pupil relationships.....	248
Teacher/pupil, an inappropriate relationship.....	250
Modifying the description of the teacher/ pupil relationship.....	250
6.2 Collaborators.....	251
Description.....	251
Some actual examples of collaborator relationships.....	252
Potential collaboration.....	255

Modifying the description of the collaborator relationship.....	256
6.3 Protagonists.....	258
Description.....	258
Actual examples of protagonist relationships.....	259
Potential protagonist relationships.....	260
6.4 Discussion.....	262
CHAPTER 7: USING THE TYPOLOGY TO ENHANCE PRACTICE.....	272
7.0 Introduction.....	274
Reviewing the argument.....	274
Outlining the chapter.....	277
7.1 Justifying the use of the typology.....	277
7.2 A consideration of how the typology might be used.....	278
Establishing co-operation.....	278
The early stages of the practice.....	278
Nature of the relationship between teacher and student teacher.....	278
Looking for efficacy.....	279
When a teacher/pupil situation is not appropriate.....	281
Summary.....	282
Strategies for development.....	283
Moving from an initial teacher/pupil relationship.....	284
Collaborators.....	285
Protagonists.....	288
Maintaining a teacher/pupil relationship..	291
Demands on tutors.....	291
7.3 The typology working in practice.....	292
Developing from a teacher/pupil situation...	292
Modifying a teacher/pupil approach.....	294
Development as a progression through three types.....	295
Enhancing a collaborative relationship.....	296

Sustaining a protagonist relationship.....	298
Diagnosis and development.....	299
7.4 Discussion.....	301
Summarising the chapter.....	301
Relationship between the recommendations and the case-study material.....	301
Relationship with other studies of supervision practice.....	302
The nature of supervisory style.....	302
Adapting the supervisory style.....	303
Aims of supervision.....	303
CHAPTER 8: CONCLUSIONS.....	306
8.0 Introduction.....	308
8.1 Supervision as a professional skill.....	310
An outline of the way in which tutors' professional skill is organised.....	313
8.2 Implications of these findings for a study of supervision.....	314
Describing supervision behaviour.....	314
Supervisory style.....	315
Allocation of roles in the supervision situation.....	316
Amiguities in reports of supervision intentions and behaviour.....	317
Prescribing supervision behaviour.....	318
Stones' psychopedagogical approach to teaching and learning.....	319
Clinical supervision.....	320
8.3 Implications for the development of effective supervision practice.....	322
Demands made of tutors in the practical situation.....	323
A summary of the potential of the typology to enhance supervision practice.....	324
Outlining the typology.....	324
The significance of the typology as a heuristic for enhancing supervision practice.....	326
8.4 Implementing such an approach in the practical situation.....	327

Organisation of teaching practice.....	328
Co-operation.....	328
Information.....	328
Allocation.....	328
Professional development of tutors.....	329
Using the framework.....	330
Using the typology.....	330
Training groups.....	331
8.5 Limitations of the study.....	331
The situation.....	332
The participants.....	333
Resources.....	334
Chosen focus.....	334
8.6 Extending the application of the research.....	335
8.7 Concluding comments.....	337
BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	339

VOLUME 2

TITLE PAGE.....	352
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	353
APPENDIX 1: A MORE DETAILED ACCOUNT OF THE RESULTS OF THE FIRST STUDY.....	354
APPENDIX 2: A SUMMARY OF GUIDELINES TO AID CO-OPERATION.....	357
APPENDIX 3: A SKILL LIST.....	360
APPENDIX 4: A MORE DETAILED ACCOUNT OF THE RESULTS OF THE SECOND STUDY.....	363
APPENDIX 5: THE EXPERIENCE OF THE PARTICIPATING TUTORS IN THE THIRD STUDY.....	378
APPENDIX 6: A COPY OF THE INFORMATION WHICH EACH PARTICIPATING TUTOR RECEIVED PRIOR TO THE TEACHING PRACTICE IN THE THIRD STUDY....	380
APPENDIX 7: QUESTIONS DIRECTING THE COLLECTION OF DATA IN THE THIRD STUDY.....	385
APPENDIX 8: PROGRAMME OF THE RESEARCH.....	392
APPENDIX 9: SHEETS USED TO ORGANISE THE DATA IN ORDER TO COMPARE THE PERCEPTIONS	

OF THE PARTICIPANTS.....	394
APPENDIX 10: SOME EXTRACTS FROM TUTORS' TEACHING PRACTICE NOTES WRITTEN FOR THE STUDENTS.....	396
APPENDIX 11: CASE-STUDIES.....	404

Declaration

None of the material used in this thesis has been previously presented to any Institution, for the award of a degree or other qualification.

Statement of Copyright

The copyright of this thesis rests with the author. No quotation from it should be published without her prior written consent and information derived from it should be acknowledged.

INTRODUCTION

Preamble

Within the United Kingdom, there are a number of ways of becoming a primary school teacher. One of the most common routes is via a 4 year Bachelor of Education degree. This course combines a number of strands. These are: study of a main subject which is part of the primary school curriculum, study of the theory and practice of teaching, study of and practice in delivering the core and foundation subjects of the National Curriculum. Whatever route a prospective teacher takes to become qualified s/he will need to cover all of these areas.

Of major importance in such courses are the periods of school based work which are mandatory. The Department of Education and Science (1989) has set certain criteria related to school experience which must be achieved if a course is to be approved (D.E.S.1989). These relate to minimum time spent on school based work, the need for sustained periods of time in school including, in the final year of the course, the need to link course input to school based work, the importance of defining the roles of all the participants and the necessity for students to reach a satisfactory standard of teaching before a degree may be awarded. A number of further recommendations are made to ensure that students' school experience is wide, effective and carefully supervised (D.E.S.1989). Such periods of school practice have certain functions. They provide an opportunity for students to observe good practice, to

relate theory and practice, to put their own teaching to the test and to reflect upon the effectiveness of their teaching and the related aspect of children's learning. (D.E.S. 1991).

Supervision of students by classroom teachers and tutors from the training institution is an important and almost universal feature of this school experience. According to Nettle (1988) "supervision in teacher education is really a method of helping student teachers to learn about teaching" (p. 125). At the same time the supervision of teaching practice provides the means for relating the course in the training institutions to the practice of teaching in schools. These functions must be among the most important ones in teacher training programmes. Unfortunately, it would seem that supervision is often considered to be inefficient and fraught with difficulties.

The charges of inefficiency arise first from those studies of supervision which suggest that supervising tutors have no effect on the professional development of students (Bowman, 1979; Morris, 1974; Yates, 1981) and secondly from those studies which suggest that tutors do not do what they say they do (Gitlin et al., 1985; Mansfield, 1986; Terrell et al., 1985).

Many of the difficulties faced in supervision are related to problems in and with relationships between the participants. In the teaching practice situation people from different institutions are required to work together

for short periods of time without the opportunity to get to know each other and negotiate their expectations of the situation. This is made worse by the fact that the expectations are not necessarily agreed in the institution and the tutors are likely to have received little or no training for the job which they are expected to carry out (Stones, 1984).

The expected outcomes are not the only problematic issues in teaching practice situations, there are also problems of responsibility and accountability. Tutors expect to exercise control of the experiences of the students but teachers and headteachers expect to exercise their authority in the school.

It was a firm commitment to the importance of the teaching practice, the equal importance of its being tied closely to the training institution courses, and the value of teachers and tutors working together for its effective implementation that was the motivation for setting up this series of studies. There were two main issues to be addressed. The first was how to establish a co-operative relationship between the participants, i.e. teacher, student teacher and supervising tutor. Working together involved not only having harmonious relationships but also developing some understanding of the role that each should play. The understanding of roles is also related to the second issue, that of making supervision as effective as possible in terms of the student's professional development.

Sergiovanni (1985) has suggested that the theoretical perspectives on supervision do not fit its actual practice.

With this in mind the studies were approached in an exploratory manner in the first instance to see to what extent theory related to the classroom situation. It was on the basis of the initial, exploratory approach that some recommendations were formulated and then validated further in the practical situation.

Outline of the research

Chapter 1 explores the research on supervision practice to look for any patterns which could guide the investigation. A number of difficulties in establishing relationships between the participants and in developing appropriate supervision strategies were highlighted. The expected outcomes of supervision were seen to be related to the views of the supervisors about the nature of teaching. These are considered in chapter 2 where supervision strategies are related to different views about the nature of teaching. A particularly important approach to the analysis of teaching is to understand it as being a professional skill which is developed in a practical situation. If this is the case, traditional views about the way people learn may have to be adapted for trainee teachers in order to take into account the special nature of the practical context of the classroom. The argument is put forward that supervision is also a professional skill developed in a practical context. This is important in the subsequent analysis.

Chapter 3 outlines the conduct of the research. Because of their pertinence to the final study some initial exploratory studies are outlined briefly but with further detail provided in the appendices. These initial studies were necessary to understand the ways in which a co-operative atmosphere could be established and then to explore how tutors themselves understood their activities. The information gleaned from these initial studies provided the basis for the third study on which the analysis is based. The way this was done is reported in chapter 3 which also includes an account of the developing methodology. An important aspect of the account is the way the methodology is adapted to meet the aims of the research at different stages.

The nature of the professional skill of supervision is returned to again in chapter 4. A detailed analysis of how tutors understand the teaching practice situation and the way they make decisions about their practice is given in that chapter. The argument is developed that any recommendations for supervision practice must be related to how tutors actually construe their own situation.

In chapter 5, the second issue of co-operation between the participants and the nature of their roles is addressed. The potential for co-operation is clearly established as well as the lack of it in some instances. The teacher/student relationship changes and develops over the

teaching practice. The tutor's role is seen to be importantly related to the nature of this teacher/student teacher relationship. At the same time it becomes clear that the tutors can behave pro-actively to influence the professional relationship.

Because of the importance of the teacher/student teacher relationship, this theme is continued in chapter 6 when teacher/student teacher relationships are described and classified into a simple typology based on the data.

Chapter 7 sees a return to the issue of effective supervision with a discussion of the ways in which the typology may be used as a means to co-ordinate the work of the teacher and tutor and at the same time match these efforts to the requirements of the student teacher.

In the final chapter the results of the study are discussed to show how their acceptance might explain results of other studies of supervision and also raise questions about the outcome of other work in this area. At the same time the implications of the results for supervision practice are outlined.

CHAPTER 1

THE NATURE OF SUPERVISION

1.0 Introduction

1.1 Introducing terminology

Practice teaching

Supervision

Role of the supervisor

The time spent on supervision

The nature of the supervision

1.2 Difficulties involved in reviewing supervision behaviour

Types of difficulty

The complexity of the enterprise

Interaction between the participants

Range of approaches and methods used in supervision

Conclusion to the section

1.3 What do supervisors do?

Who supervisors are

Process studies of supervision

How supervision is effected

Roles and functions of supervisors

Supervisors' beliefs about teaching

Professional development of supervisors

Developmental supervision

The products of supervision

Developing teaching skills

Establishing good relationships

Linking theory and practice

Changing the attitudes of student teachers

Assessment

Conclusions to this section

1.4 What is the nature of the social context within which supervisors work ?

Operating in a triad

- Some factors influencing the triadic situation
 - Relative influence of teacher and tutor supervisors
 - Difficulties for teachers
 - Difficulties for tutors
 - Difficulties for student teachers
- Discussion about the context of supervision
- Conclusion to this section

1.5 What should supervisors do ?

- Factors which require attention in order to enhance supervision
 - Training for supervision
 - Diagnosis
 - Formative or summative assessment
 - Establishing and communicating expectations
- Factors which may influence attempts to enhance supervision
 - The size of the teacher education programme
 - Individuality of the participants
 - Developmental aspects of supervision

1.6 Summary and implications for the research

- Summary of research on supervision
 - Role of supervising tutor
 - Degree of competence of co-operating teacher
 - Social context of the supervision
- Making supervision more effective
- Areas for further research
 - Taking into account personal views of supervisors
 - Adapting the actions of supervisors to the needs of student teachers
 - Developmental supervision

1.7 The next stage of the research

1.0 Introduction

The term teaching practice (or practicum or school based work) refers to periods of time during which trainee teachers are occupied in the practice of teaching in schools. Gibson (1977) refers to the "enormous importance which students attribute to the practices" (p.242) and this point receives support from many sources (e.g. Grimmett and Ratzloff, 1986; May and Zimpher, 1986; Richardson-Kohler, 1988; Turney, 1977). The universal acceptance of the importance of this experience in teacher training does not necessarily mean that it is successful in producing effective teachers, (Applegate and Lashley, 1982; Goodman, 1986; Seperson and Joyce, 1981; Zeichner, 1987; Zeichner and Tabachnick, 1982). Teaching practice is regarded as a vital component of teacher training courses and, certainly in England, "all institutions adopt a policy of providing supervision for student teachers (Yates 1981, p.45). However, there is confusion about the function of supervision. Perhaps the most significant difficulty is the conflict between the role of helping student teachers to learn about teaching and that of checking how well student teachers have learned about teaching (Nettle, 1988). In England this issue has been accentuated by the present emphasis on accountability in all areas of education and especially the requirements set out by the Secretary of State about minimum teaching competencies and the suggestion that many teachers in English schools do not have these competencies (D.E.S.,1988; D.E.S., 1989; D.E.S., 1991).

Not only is there uncertainty about what supervisors should do, there is also uncertainty about who should do it. There is evidence to suggest that the influences of the training institutions and those of the host schools may be at odds with one another. In England this is an issue receiving a great deal of attention at the present time with a strong lobby suggesting that the training of teachers should take place entirely in the schools (Lawlor, 1990; O'Hear, 1991).

The present chapter will review the literature on supervision by;

- introducing some terminology (1.1)
- exploring the difficulties of reviewing a wide and complex area (1.2)
- examining the literature to learn what supervisors do (1.3)
- examining the literature to learn about the social context within which supervisors work (1.4)
- considering the implications of the above for what supervisors should do (1.5)

1.1 Introducing Terminology

The literature on practice teaching and supervision of this is very extensive and draws on the experience of teachers and researchers in many countries. This means that the use of terminology is not necessarily consistent from one study to another.

Practice teaching

This is described in many ways, e.g. teaching practice, school experience, practicum. What is more important is that the words used may refer to many different types of experience. Some of these are outlined below:

- periods of weeks spent in the school working alongside an experienced teacher, taking different amounts of

- responsibility for the class
- weekly attachments to schools
- morning attachments to schools on a weekly basis
- practice teaching taking place in the training institution with school children or with colleagues
- micro-teaching in a laboratory situation

The focus in this piece of work is on block teaching practice, i.e. a period of 5-8 weeks spent in one school working alongside a class teacher but taking a considerable amount of responsibility for the class of children. In the literature review other types of practice teaching will be referred to.

Supervision

Since one important aim of this piece of work is to examine the nature of supervision, it is not useful or even possible to begin with a definition of supervision. However there must be enough understanding of some of the various situations in which the term may be used to make the subsequent discussion meaningful.

Role of the supervisor. The role of the supervisor may be taken by a number of different sorts of people: lecturers in training institutions; class teachers; specifically designated teachers; principals or headteachers of schools; people designated by an education authority; research students.

The time spent on supervision. The time spent on supervision may be very different and especially will be related to the nature of the practice teaching, e.g. visiting weekly/fortnightly/monthly on a block teaching

practice of 8 weeks or spending whole mornings in school with groups of students on serial practice.

The nature of the supervision. The nature of the supervision may vary according to the requirements of the situation and the parameters laid down by the host institution and the course requirements of the training institution, e.g. compare monitoring a micro-teaching course with the weekly visit to a student on a 6 week block teaching practice.

The situation within which the present study was conducted will be discussed in chapter 3.

1.2 Difficulties involved in reviewing supervision behaviour

As indicated in 1.1 above, teaching practice and its supervision cover a very wide range of activities and situations. This is just one of the difficulties which faces a reviewer. Sergiovanni (1985) in reviewing supervision behaviour suggests that "the patterns of practice are actually characterised by a great deal of uncertainty, instability, complexity and variety" (p.11) and Shon (1983) concludes that "although one may be comfortable in viewing supervision as a logical process of problem solving, a more accurate view may be as a process of managing messes" (p.14). This section will address some of the factors which make it difficult to draw general conclusions about supervision and the care which needs to be given if generalisations are to be attempted.

Types of difficulty

The complexity of the enterprise. The problems of examining supervision are related to the sheer complexity of the enterprise. Some clarity can be established by examining carefully the setting of the supervision. For example Yates (1981) in the study referred to above was discussing supervision of a large sample of pre-service student teachers in 3 and 4 year Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) degree courses in training institutions in England. However, Ashcroft and Griffiths (1989), in another study still in England was concerned with the supervision of a cohort of 4 year B.Ed. student teachers. Lashley and Applegate (1986) in America were concerned with students taking part in non mandatory pre-service field experience as opposed to the mandatory internship which Garman (1986), Zeichner and Tabachnick (1982) and Zeichner and Liston (1987) have written about. All of these, referred to above, were concerned with pre-service student teachers but the concern of Tracy and McNaughton (1986) was with trained class teachers being supervised by principals in order to maintain and improve standards of teaching in American schools. The practice teaching referred to above took place in classrooms but that described by Griffiths (1974) generally took place in micro-teaching laboratories. Teacher training takes place all over the world and whereas the studies so far referred to took place in the UK and USA the programmes described by Turney et al. (1982) took place in Australia and those described by Perlberg and

Theodor (1975) in Israel. In Ashcroft and Griffiths' (1989) study the supervisors were tutors who also taught the student teachers on college based courses but in other studies the supervisors were somewhat reluctant Masters degree students (Bowman, 1979).

In summary, any review of supervision must take into account:

- the participants: students of various types at various stages of their courses; supervisory class teachers, tutors, post graduate students
- the context: classrooms of various types; laboratories
- the training courses: of various types and durations

In making generalisations from the literature care must be taken to ensure that the generalisations are justified in being applied to different circumstances.

Interaction between the participants. Another aspect of this complexity is inherent in the interaction between the participants themselves. There are at least two people involved in the supervision process, supervisor and supervisee, and very often there are three, two supervisors and the supervisee. Not only does this mean that the interaction is complex but for the investigator there is the problem of "getting at the truth". A discrepancy in perceptions was apparent in a study carried out by Boothroyd (1979). Student teachers were given scores referring to ratings of their teaching performance during teaching practice. She reported that, on average, the tutors gave lower scores than the class teachers who gave lower scores than the students. Sometimes the differences

in scores were quite substantial, e.g. one student rated herself 73 points higher than the other members of the triad. Boothroyd (1979) also investigated the differing perceptions of the supervisor's behaviour by the supervisor and the student and found that "there was no case where a tutor and her/his students were in perfect agreement" (p. 247), and again some of the disagreements were quite substantial.

There is evidence that not only do the participants perceive differently what is going on, they also differ considerably in their judgements about what should be going on in a supervision situation and this will be discussed in some detail later. The problem for the investigator is that the opinions of all the participants need to be considered, compared and contrasted.

Perhaps it is not altogether surprising that different participants in an operation will view it differently, and investigators can take account of that. However, Winter (1980) has shown that individuals themselves can find ambiguities in the teaching practice situation (and hence the supervision situation) which are likely to make them give different answers to the same questions at different times. For example, teachers reported that students "bring a welcome if rather artificial novelty and stimulation to a class" but also "an unwelcome, temporary disruption to a class", and, whereas teachers "collaborate with supervisors in assessing and guiding students as novices", they "collaborate with students in managing the visits of

supervisors (i.e. supervising tutors)." An example of ambiguity for the tutor was that "on the one hand learning is seen to require student autonomy, and freedom to make (and hence learn from) mistakes (i.e. learning as exploration), on the other hand, learning is seen to require diagnosis of need and advice (i.e. learning as the receipt of guidance)". The students also felt themselves to be in ambiguous situations, i.e. that they had both "the needs and rights of learner, namely support, sympathy and careful guidance" and "the needs and rights of (more or less) professional practitioners, namely autonomy and respect." (p.3-14).

These kinds of ambiguities can give rise to answers and actions which may appear contradictory to investigators but this is a problem further exacerbated by participants who say one thing and do something different. Terrell et al. (1985) found that supervisors claimed that critical analysis of students' lesson plans was important but this rarely occurred in practice. The same supervisors recommended the value of individual and small group teaching but in practice gave much more attention to class teaching situations. Zeichner and Tabachnick (1982) found that tutors who believe that they are implementing a common supervisory approach (in this case clinical supervision) were, in fact, engaging in very different practice. Sergiovanni (1985), in attempting to explain the discrepant behaviour of supervisors, hypothesised the notion of mindscapes, i.e. "implicit mental frames through which

supervisory reality and our place in this reality are envisioned" (p.6). He suggested that "the crux of the problem is that dominant mindscapes for supervision do not reflect the reality of supervisory practice"(p 6).

Again these are factors which add to the difficulties of investigating supervisory behaviour and must influence any attempt to understand the process.

Range of approaches and methods used in supervision.

Finally, any review of work in the area of supervision must take into account the range of approaches and methods used in these investigations, which again will influence the results which have been reported. The approaches may be rather crudely divided into product, process and a combination of the two. The product studies consider supervision in terms of its outcomes, e.g. the qualities of the supervisee, the amount of communication between the participants, the degree of satisfaction expressed. The process studies focus on the way the supervision is conducted. This may be at various levels, e.g. the outward behaviour of the supervisor, the nature of the interaction between the participants, the relationship between the intentions and the behaviour of the supervisor, developmental aspects of supervision over a period of time. As with other social science investigations, a range of methods can be used for obtaining data, e.g. questionnaires, interviews, record of critical incidents, observation, participation. The methodological aspects will

be considered in a later section (chapter 3) but at this stage it is important to draw attention to the problems of interpreting data and drawing conclusions about the process and effects of supervision. Investigators can tend to be over-optimistic in drawing causal links between events and often a number of studies need to be considered to recognise the complexity of the process.

Conclusions to this section

In considering reports of supervision and in drawing conclusions about them, it is necessary to consider carefully the participants involved, the setting in which the supervision takes place, the methods used to investigate the supervision behaviour and the way in which accounts of the participants may be judged.

1.3 What do supervisors do ?

Who supervisors are

The previous section has highlighted the problems of terminology and suggested the need to define in the first instance who supervisors are. Much of the literature on supervision of trainee teachers designates the university or college tutor as the supervisor, although in America, where school staff development is concerned, supervisors are principals or official administrators. If the class teacher is designated the supervisor then the role of the university or college tutor is of recognisably secondary importance. This is the case in the University of Sydney programmes described by Turney et al. (1982). In the Oxford student-teacher intern programme the role of mentor in the

school is more typical of the tutor supervisor role and is held by a designated teacher within the school, who maintains links with the University (McIntyre, 1988).

The class teacher is usually designated as the "co-operating teacher" but this role while being seen as influential has not, until recently, received the attention which that of the university/college supervisor or tutor has been given (Applegate and Lashley, 1982). The Oxford scheme described above gives much more attention to the complementary roles of school and training institution and the work of Stones (1984) and Cameron-Jones (1982) has recognised and built upon the the importance of the triad discussions of teacher, student teacher and tutor and to the teachers' understanding of the approach being taken by the tutors.

In this piece of work the participants will be designated co-operating teacher, student teacher, and tutor. The term supervisor will refer to tutors unless otherwise stated.

Process studies of supervision

How supervision is effected. Process studies have the potential to give helpful information about how supervision is conducted. Investigators have used a wide variety of techniques in order to access information about the process of supervision. A range of instruments have been used to chart this process, including: questionnaires; journals; diaries; interviews; observation; systematic category systems. These have varied not only in the range

of instruments but also in the frequency and spread of information-gathering throughout the teaching practice and the range of people who are asked to report.

Roles and functions of supervisors. Process studies describe supervisors as undertaking a number of roles and functions. In a spirited defence of university supervisors, Zimpher et al. (1980) set out four roles which they saw supervisors fulfilling:

- defining and communicating the purposes and expectations to be fulfilled by the student teacher and the co-operating teacher,
- phasing the student teacher into the classroom's ongoing instructional activity,
- activity to do with evaluation and instructional activity,
- personal confidant to the co-operating teacher and the student-teacher.

They were convinced that these roles could only be carried out successfully by university personnel and that the "outsider" position of the supervisor made the intervention more effective.

Koehler's (1984) list is similar i.e.:

- supports the student teacher
- facilitates growth
- reduces conflict
- serves as liaison between school and university
- provides expectations
- gives clinical advice
- provides observation feedback
- orients student teacher to the school.

It is interesting to note that in both these reports supervisors were seen to take on liaison and facilitating roles which are not directly related to the development of teaching skills in the student teacher. In fact, Koehler

(1984) suggests that supervisors emphasise orientation of students to course expectations and stress details such as the importance of obeying school rules but leave the supervision which is associated with the development of teaching skills to the co-operating teacher. This approach may be short-sighted, since according to Zimpher et al. (1980), co-operating teachers are not likely to give feedback on the development of those teaching skills but are more likely to act as a "buffer" between the student teacher and the supervisor. This problem is not restricted to American supervisors. English supervisors also seem to have difficulty in giving student teachers critical feedback. Terrell et al. (1985), in a study using interview and observation, found that:

- supervisors claimed that they analysed critically student teachers' lessons but, in fact, this was rarely observed
- there were almost no demonstrations of good practice
- supervisors stressed the importance of individual and small group teaching but in practice gave most attention to class teaching situations.

Following on from this study Mansfield (1986) found that even when these issues were highlighted for tutors, they found some difficulty in implementing new approaches, especially critically analysing student teachers' lessons and offering effective advice. In both these studies the tutors like those investigated by Zimpher et al. (1980) and Koehler (1984) gave considerable emphasis to the maintenance of good relationships with student teachers and teachers and establishing a comfortable atmosphere.

Other investigators have had slightly different concerns,

e.g. Richardson-Koehler (1988) believed that teachers are concerned with practical teaching skills but not with the way these may be generalised to different classroom situations:

Because co-operating teachers are more oriented towards the practical and particular rather than towards theory and generalisations, student teachers may not learn the more general principles from their experience that would allow them to adjust to different classroom situation. (p.33)

This point of view is supported by the work of Doyle and Pender (1978), O'Neal (1983), Feimann-Nemser and Buchmann (1985). O'Neal (1983), however, suggests that when supervisors give feedback, it is very similar in its lack of generalisation to that given by co-operating teachers. If this is the case it would appear that supervisors are giving the same sort of particular feedback as the teacher but without her/his knowledge of the class.

There has been a suggestion that under certain circumstances both analytical discussion and the generalisation of theory can take place. Cohn (1988) describes what she calls "situational teaching" where aspects of the college course ran alongside the serial school experience and since the same training institution personnel were involved in both processes there was evidence of the linking of theory and practice for the students.

Supervisors beliefs about teaching. A cluster of studies have focused on the beliefs about teaching which underlie particular supervision practices. Zahorik (1988) describes

three approaches to supervision which he derived empirically from extensive recorded interview material:

- behaviour prescription, where supervisors told student teachers to use certain instructional and management acts and to avoid others ;
- idea interpretation, which consisted of presenting beliefs to the student teacher which the supervisor had about what classrooms and schools ought to be like;
- person support, which focused on facilitating student teacher decision making by creating a climate that permitted and encouraged student teachers to think for themselves.

Zahorik (1988) saw these as supervisory types which could describe an individual supervisor. He saw the first two as having an active style of presentation and the third as reactive. Each type was associated with certain behaviours, e.g. the behaviour-prescriptive supervisor would justify her/his prescription by recourse to research evidence, the idea-interpreters avoided research evidence and the person-support supervisors used it very sparingly. He points to the different experience which a student teacher might receive as a result of supervision by different types of supervisor. He, himself, recognised the similarities between his own types of supervision and those described by Zeichner and Tabachnick (1982), i.e.

- technical/instrumental, with a focus on teaching techniques
- personal growth, with a focus on the development of student goals
- critical, with a focus on classroom and school change.

These may in turn be compared with both Garman's (1986) notions of "delivery of services" and "empowerment" as well as the types of supervision proposed by Zimpher and Howey (1987) based on teacher competence in the areas of : technical, personal and critical.

The significance of these studies lies not only in the similarity of the outcomes but in the view that supervisors show factors in their behaviour which are characteristic of themselves. Zeichner and Tabachnick (1982) go even further in suggesting that these facets of personal belief will be apparent even when a supervising tutor believes that s/he is following specific supervisory approach.

Professional development of supervisors. Supervisors like teachers and students are individuals and have approaches to supervision which seem to be characteristic of specific individuals. At the same time they develop as they become more experienced. A study by Rust (1988) deserves attention, because it looks at the professional development of supervisors and compares the supervisory behaviour of new and experienced tutors. According to Rust (1988), new supervisors "were concerned about the way their student teachers perceived them" and "they wanted to be seen as helpful in the way that co-operating or helping teachers had been to them" and "they were uncomfortable with what they perceived to be the inactivity of supervision" (p.58). However, experienced supervisors "drew for guidance, not only on their memories of mentors but also on their supervisory training and their own prior supervisory work" (p.58). Other differences were noted i.e. that new supervisors could be intimidated by co-operating teachers and that they did not make full use of the range of supervisory strategies (reinforcing; guiding; probing/clarifying ; responding).

Rust (1988) further reinforces the idea of tutor individuality by describing supervisors as working from "images of a good teacher". These may be as "manager", "facilitator", "reflective practitioner" or "scholar". All the supervisors looked for students to be good managers but the other images were idiosyncratic to individual supervisors. When the experienced tutors were satisfied with the student as an effective manager they were able to move on to an alternative "good teacher image" and, using the strategies referred to above, work towards developing the student's skills further. The new supervisors used a very narrow range of strategies and never developed from the management aspect.

Developmental supervision. A number of different approaches to supervision have been noted above but Zahorik (1988), having described the characteristics of three supervisory styles (i.e. behaviour prescription, idea interpretation, person support), makes an interesting suggestion :

what is needed is a program that recognises and builds on the reality that supervisory style and student teaching goals are bound together and result in supervision types that probably persist Such a program could be created if one accepts a developmental conception of learning how to teach and if one recognises that student teachers pass through different stages at different rates." (p. 14)

Zahorik (1988) is linking supervisory style directly to the desired learning outcomes of the student teacher. He then goes on to suggest that supervision strategies should be responsive to the needs of a student teacher at any one time and that these needs will be different for different

students and change for any one student over time.

Kagan and Albertson (1987) recognised the changing supervision strategies in supervising tutors. They approached the analysis of supervision behaviour by analysing what went on in supervision conferences, and in so doing he identified five basic themes :

- what students do right
- what students do wrong
- expression of confidence in the student teacher
- scheduling meetings
- dealing with conflicts with the class teacher.

What is interesting in this context because of its relationship to the suggestion of Zahorik (1988) is that Kagan and Albertson (1987) were able to chart a change in emphasis over the course of a teaching practice. Particularly, it was noted that whereas the emphasis in the early stages was on what the students did wrong, as time went on the emphasis began to be on what a student was doing right.

This raises a number of questions about whether supervisors can and should adapt these styles to the goals they have for student teachers or student teachers have for themselves. Kagan and Albertson's (1987) work indicates that the pattern of supervisory style does change over the period of a teaching practice, in this case moving from an emphasis on negative factors to an emphasis on positive factors. The possible implications of this for more effective supervisory practice will be considered at a later stage.

The products of supervision

The studies outlined above have, in various ways, described the behaviour of supervising tutors. Another approach has been to consider supervision behaviour by evaluating its outcomes.

Developing teaching skills. The use of carefully prepared mini-courses to help teachers develop specific teaching skills was an important aspect of the teaching competency movement in USA in the 1960s, and some success was reported here (Rosenthine and Furst, 1973). To some extent this sort of approach was intended to give teachers autonomy to extend their own teaching skills without the need for supervision. However, other studies have suggested that when teachers confront their own teaching on a video-tape recording, the outcome in terms of evaluating their own practice is likely to be more effective if supported by supervisory help (Fuller and Manning, 1973; Peck and Tucker, 1973; Griffiths, 1975).

Attempts have also been made to use feedback in the classroom to influence the teaching behaviour of student teachers (Rosenthine and Furst, 1973). Some success was achieved by giving students immediate feedback by means of cards giving information about performance, held up for the student teachers to see while they were teaching. More traditional ways of supervision have attempted to achieve the same results by focusing on specific skills at any one time e.g. improvement of instruction, enhancement of

student teacher effect (Mosher and Purpel, 1972). The results of studies in this area are inconclusive. Stapleton (1965) found that intensive supervision by staff from the training institution did result in better performance by student teachers in the classroom whereas Morris (1974) found no difference in teaching performance between students supervised by personnel from the training institution and those who were not. These studies create more questions than they answer since the discrepancies could be explained in terms of the way the studies were set up. At the same time there is little information about the nature of the supervision carried out by the teachers in order to assess their input as distinct from that of tutors.

Wragg (1982) has argued that the impact of careful supervision on the development of specific teaching skills is restricted to the time when the supervising tutor is actually there and so is very temporary. Stones (1984) has argued that the development of specific teaching skills is counter productive because of the global nature of teaching and that supervision strategies must address this by the encouragement of a unitary approach which links teaching strategies with the specific planning at a particular time.

The programme developed by Joyce et al. (1981) recognised the effect of the co-operating teacher in diluting the effect of training programmes and attempted to address this issue. They found that if the teaching skills were taught

as part of a total model of teaching and if that approach could be contrasted with that of the class teacher there was some evidence that the skills associated with that model would be practised in the classroom. Referring to the findings of Wragg (1978), the permanency of that effect may be in doubt.

Establishing good relationships. Another aim of supervision which was given prominence by tutors was the establishment of good relationships within the teacher, student, tutor triad and within the school. It is difficult to evaluate the nature of relationships so that this area has not received a lot of attention. The study by Morris (1974) referred to above did not find significant differences in teaching performance between students supervised by training institution personnel and those not, but the former reported better relationships with the co-operating teacher which may possibly, but not necessarily, be related to the presence of the supervising tutor.

Considering in more general terms the nature of relationships, it is not difficult to locate evidence of the lack of information between schools and training institutions (Cope, 1971; McCulloch, 1979; Turney, 1977). Evidence of good and not so good relationships between school and training institutions is apparent in official reports as well as in informal institutional reports. This aspect will be considered in more detail in the next section.

Linking theory and practice. In the previous section the establishment of a relationship between theory and practice was seen to be an important aspect of the supervising tutors' role. The evidence suggested that if that relationship was to be achieved, it needed to be a quite specific part of the supervision procedure with definite strategies for its implementation. This is supported by the experience of IT INSET (Initial training / In-service education and training) in England (see Ashton et al. 1983) where the theory/practice link is one of the most important aspects of the programme but very difficult to achieve. Boydell (1986) has pointed out the difficulties for a supervising tutor in achieving this and suggested that it might be more effective for student teachers if the tutor worked with the teachers to discuss and apply aspects of theory/practice links in an in-service situation and then the teacher worked with the students to achieve that end.

Changing the attitudes of student teachers. In trying to evaluate the effectiveness or otherwise of the teacher training process, investigators have looked for evidence of changes in attitudes or perspectives of student teachers. In reviewing the literature, Tabachnick and Zeichner (1984) provide some evidence that the impact of college based preparation is "washed out" in a process which begins with student teaching and continues on into later teaching experience. The implication is that supervisors are ineffective in countering either the influence of student socialisation, the impact of the co-operating teacher (Yee,

1968), the ecological characteristics of classrooms, or the bureaucratic characteristics of schools (Rees, 1977; Tabachnick and Zeichner, 1984). Alternatively, it may be the actions of the supervisors themselves which produce these results, i.e. by reinforcing the influences of the school (Tabachnick and Zeichner, 1984). It is not easy in these studies, however, to separate the actions of a supervising tutor from the general training process.

Assessment. It has already been pointed out that assessment is seen to be an important function of the role of supervising tutors however much individuals may reject that role. The evidence referred to above suggests that tutors accept the formative role of assessment (Zimpher et al., 1980; Kagan and Albertson, 1987) and accept but fail at the diagnostic role (Terrell et al., 1985). However, summative assessment is an important aspect of teaching practice since student teachers are deemed to pass or fail. In fact Stones and Webster (1983) have suggested that this is not really an important issue for supervisors since 99% of student teachers pass their final teaching practice so that all the attention of supervising tutors should be given to formative and most importantly to diagnostic assessment.

The question of assessment (formative or summative) is associated with the unresolved question of what counts as effective teaching. This issue will be left for later discussion but in England, reports by H.M.I. would suggest that either the training or the assessment of student teachers leaves a lot to be desired (D.E.S 1988).

Conclusions to this section

The important functions of supervision are seen to be: supporting the student teacher; making links between the schools and the training institutions by clarifying the expectations of each; enhancing the students' teaching; enhancing the theory/practice relationship; contributing to good social relationships within the school.

If the effectiveness of supervision is judged according to how far these expectations are realised then the picture is not re-assuring. However, the product approach needs to be considered very carefully. Teaching is a complex process and specific outcomes measured in a narrow and inflexible way may give little indication about teaching behaviour in general terms.

However, outcomes of teaching practice are important and the process of supervision deserves to be examined in more detail in order to understand the constraints under which tutors work and the reasons for the ways in which they choose to act. It is important to understand the underlying principles which influence tutors behaviour (Zeichner and Tabachnick, 1982).

It is also apparent that supervisors, like any other teachers, are able to benefit from experience and not only does the behaviour of supervisors develop, it also changes over the process of a teaching practice, presumably in response to the changing needs of the student teacher.

These are areas which need further investigation.

Teacher appraisal is an important area for supervising tutors and is very much in evidence in education at the present time. An extensive review of the literature in this area is neither possible nor appropriate within the confines of this study but the important aspects of formative and diagnostic assessment will be considered later.

1.4 What is the nature of the social context within which supervisors work?

In reviewing the supervision behaviour of tutors in the previous section it became clear that it was not possible to talk about tutor behaviour without some reference to the corresponding behaviour of teachers and students. It is evident that teaching practice and its supervision takes place in the social context of the classroom and the school, so that due consideration should be given to the factors involved when interaction takes place in a social setting.

Operating in a triad

A typical teaching practice situation involves a student teacher, a co-operating teacher and a supervising tutor. Research has focused on the difficulties inherent in the triad situation. Boydell (1986) has drawn attention to the suggestion that both adults and children tend to "prefer the psychological intimacy of pairs" (p.116) rather than trios. In the case of teaching practice supervision this may be exacerbated by the triad members being "virtual

strangers who differ in background, perspectives and expectations" (Boydell 1986, p.116). This offers a possible explanation to the observation already made that supervisors give emphasis to social rather than professional interaction in the classrooms. Griffin (1983) has suggested that the emphasis which the participants give to expressing personal regard for one another may have the function of disguising a lack of certainty about expectations.

If all the participants have expectations about what should or should not take place on teaching practice, considerable time and trust is needed to reconcile these expectations. It is apparent that time is what supervisors are very short of, both to observe students (Zimpher et al., 1980; Yates, 1981) and to establish good relationships in the school (Cope, 1971; Richardson-Koehler, 1988; Turney, 1977). It may be that the lack of time is not the only obstacle to clarifying expectations but rather that these are vague and uncertain in the minds of supervisors themselves (Cope, 1971; Stones, 1984). Certainly supervisors do not always act according to their stated beliefs (Zeichner and Tabachnick, 1982). Grimmett and Ratzlaff (1986) refer to the "confusion and conflict" and suggest that "clear and differentiated supervision roles are conspicuously absent, leading in some cases to duplication of function, in others to omission" (p.42). They were able to find some consensus within triads about the roles of the co-operating teacher which were classified under (i) orientation of the student

into the school) (ii) planning/instruction (iii) evaluation. However, this information came in response to a data sheet and questionnaire which less than half of the proposed sample of teachers and student teachers completed. Other studies have reported conflicting values between students, class teachers and supervising tutors (Stones et al., 1972) as well as considerable difference in perceptions between the triad members (Boothroyd, 1979; Cope, 1971; Kagan and Albertson, 1987).

Hoover et al. (1988) have noted that "the literature of teacher education is replete with descriptions of problems relating to role expectations and supervisory style" (p.22), while Griffin et al. (1983) report that the university and school supervisors they studied rarely agreed upon policies and practices or even discussed them. Hoover et al. (1988) see that the value of teaching practice is undermined by this omission.

Some factors influencing the triadic situation

Relative influence of teacher and tutor supervisors.

Perhaps the first significant factor affecting the supervision situation is that it takes place on school territory and any criticism of the routines and practices of the student teacher can be construed as criticism of the teacher and the school, and as such likely to damage relationships further.

It may be because of the delicacy of these relationships that investigators have been interested in the relative

influence of the teacher and the tutor on the student. Griffin et al. (1983) reviewing the literature, found that supervision was dominated by the co-operating teachers who appeared to influence students' attitudes (Dutton, 1982; Wilbur and Gooding, 1977) as well as their classroom actions (Mahlis, 1982; Seperson and Joyce, 1981). Yates (1981), surveying a sample of 500 student teachers, 100 co-operating teachers and 100 supervisors reported that "the contribution of school based personnel in the supervision process is of greater value than that of college based personnel" (p.45). Emans (1983) described the co-operating teachers' effect as "powerful, even to the extent of negating what the students have learned from their college courses when it runs contrary to the judgements of co-operating teachers" (p.42). Zimpher et al. (1980) reported that "student teachers almost exclusively modelled the teaching of the co-operating teacher" (p.14).

Difficulties for teachers. In this apparently competitive situation teachers have a number of anxieties. Applegate and Lashley (1982), using a questionnaire approach, attempted to identify some of the expectations and resulting anxieties of teachers. It seems that the teachers they studied became anxious if students were ill-prepared, showed lack of enthusiasm and inappropriate attitudes or had problems with planning and organisation. They also worried if supervisors were not responsive enough and showed a lack of interest in the norms of the school. All these anxieties suggested worries over the lack of control

which teachers have of the teaching practice despite its being conducted in the school, and despite the predominance of their influence as outlined above.

Richardson-Koehler (1988) found that class teachers feel uncomfortable about being observed. The co-operating teachers in her sample were unhappy about the evaluative function of teaching practice, feeling that teaching was a skill which each person learned for her/himself by trying out what worked best for each individual. If this is the case, an observer who is evaluating performance is superfluous, and instead supervisors should be making helpful suggestions or joining in to help. There is some evidence from the work of Rust (1988) that new supervisors who had very recently been teaching felt the same degree of discomfort in their role as evaluative by-stander.

Difficulties for tutors. Tutors also have difficulties within the teaching practice situation. Their problems as outlined by Lashley et al. (1986) were associated with their own responsibilities. They worried about changes in co-operating teachers because of the problems and time involved in getting to know new people. They found difficulties for themselves in co-ordinating their university responsibilities and their school ones. They worried about the competence of the co-operating teachers and whether they would guide the students appropriately and also whether the necessary administration had been carried out effectively.

Within the constraints of the teaching practice situation with its conflicting expectations and potentially difficult interactions it is perhaps not surprising that tutors give a lot of attention to trying to maintain social relationships. Terrell et al. (1985) have reported supervisors' successes in supporting students and maintaining good personal relationships whereas their discussion of pedagogy was usually superficial and often did not go beyond giving "tips for teachers." This lack of a theoretical or pedagogical input has also been emphasised by Stones (1984) and Blumberg (1976).

Difficulties for student teachers. The relationships in the classroom must be a significant issue for student teachers. It is not really surprising that they model their work on the co-operating teacher since those are the methods which are likely to work with the class (Copeland, 1978; Doyle and Pender, 1976; Barrow, 1979). At the same time they recognise the requirements of the supervising tutor but according to some studies (Cope, 1971; Derrick, 1978) suspect that the teacher will reject the requirements of the training institution. This puts them in the unenviable position of trying to satisfy two possibly opposing parties (Gibson, 1977; Hooper and Johnston, 1973). The anxiety is likely to be most sharp when the issue of assessment is apparent.

Until quite recently there has been general agreement that assessment is part of the role of the tutor. This is a

function that can further hinder effective supervision and damage relationships within the triad. Davidman (1985) has pointed out that the supervisory programme is imposed on the student and that the "improvement" function of supervision is put at risk by the evaluative function. Warger et al. (1984) have indicated the difficulties of the pass/fail rating and Stones (1984) has advocated that supervision should not be concerned with passing and failing. Certainly, the assessment function causes anxiety for students which in turn will influence the student/supervisor relationship. It is also quite possible that it may adversely affect the co-operating teacher/supervisor relationships since there is not necessarily agreement between the two in evaluating student performance (Boothroyd, 1979), and the co-operating teacher may act as a buffer between tutor and student teacher (Richardson-Koehler, 1988).

According to Smith and Alvermann (1985) student teachers appreciate the efforts of supervisors to be warm, supportive and readily available. They also like them to give reinforcement with some criticism but not to interfere with the teaching. Mansfield (1986), however, in a study designed to encourage supervisors to act as models to student teachers, found that most students in his sample appreciated supervisors joining in the teaching.

Discussion about the context of supervision

Any review of the literature describing the contexts and expectations of supervision shows clearly the difficulty of

drawing general conclusions. There are a number of ways of explaining this difficulty. There is the obvious problem already discussed that studies are not homogeneous, they are conducted under differing circumstances. However, there are two further matters which require consideration. First any discussion of the social context cannot ignore the fact that people are different. It is very likely that whereas some students like tutors to be critical, others prefer to be re-assured, or that whereas some teachers will feel threatened by the presence of students and tutors, others will take their presence as an exciting challenge. Attempts have been made to look at the impact of individual differences on the way participants conduct themselves. Some examples are the work of Goodman (1986) (students' "degree of curiosity"), Brown (1981) (students' "conceptual levels"), Glickman and Gordon (1987) (students' "levels of abstraction") and Zeichner and Liston (1987) (students' "conceptual levels"). It is the influence of these personal characteristics on the interaction between the participants which is most interesting. Zeichner et al. (1987) found that in the supervision conferences the students with higher conceptual level were instrumental in eliciting from the supervisor a greater level of reflective dialogue. Glickman and Gordon (1987) argued that the effectiveness of a particular supervisory style was related to the degree of the student's "level of abstraction".

It seems not only to be personal characteristics which influence interaction but also the professional development

of students. Kagan and Albertson (1987) tried to show the processes in action. For example, a student who showed mastery of lesson content encouraged the confidence of the classteacher which in turn led to the classteacher giving the student more independence to plan and implement. The ability of student teachers to influence their own destiny should not be underestimated.

The second factor which might explain the differences in the behaviour and expectations of the participants is that of time. The differences in the behaviour of more and less experienced supervising tutors has already been discussed but the change in perceptions, expectations and behaviour of the participants during the several weeks of the teaching practice is also likely to be influential in the development of the interaction. Kagan and Albertson (1987) have made the general point that investigators are "ignoring the element of time", the possibility that the kinds of problems that were perceived might have changed as the semester progressed" (p.50). Richardson-Koehler (1988) in a developmental study was able to show changes in student behaviour. Within a fortnight of starting teaching practice students had discounted any previous influence. This led to their reporting that nearly 80% of their ideas came from the class teacher. However, their later reports indicated that most of their ideas were their own. If investigators were examining the views of these student teachers at different times they would receive what would appear to be conflicting view points. If they only sampled

views at one point in the practice the results would be inaccurate. Gibson (1977), looking at students' developing perspectives on school practice over four years, suggested three stages:

- the service perspective, characterised by idealism and an attempt to put this idealism into practice
- the safety and survival perspective i.e. getting through teaching practice to the satisfaction of teachers and tutors, with the minimum of emotional upset, or "learning the rules of the game"
- the independent perspective, described by Gibson (1987) as "a more realistic re-definition of the earlier service perspective". (p.243)

With "increasing confidence arising from greater knowledge of children and a growing repertoire of teaching techniques" (p.246) students showed greater autonomy in choosing what they felt to be right as well as effective. Perhaps it is significant that this stage was apparent in only a number of students in their final teaching practice and not in a majority.

Conclusions to this section

It would appear that the context in which teaching practice and supervision take place is complex and confusing. Triad relationships are not easy to manage especially when the participants are not well known to each other. There is uncertainty about roles and expectations and there are anxieties about assessment as well as the general uncertainty of the situation. In providing guidelines for action it is necessary to take into consideration the individual differences of the participants as well as the changing nature of the teaching practice over a period of time. Attention should also be focused not only on a lot of

other individuals in the school but also on the nature of institutions and the pressures which these impose on participants (Boydell 1986). These may take the form of directives from Government, Education authorities, Unions or from public opinion expressed through the media.

1.5 What should supervisors do ?

Alphonso et al. (1985) suggest that:

...supervisors of instruction are asked to perform enormously difficult tasks without the benefit of a sufficient amount of time or the repertoire of skills that are needed to be effective. (p.1)

Certainly a review of the literature would support this statement. It seems that supervisors should: set goals and expectations; phase the student teacher into the classroom; liaise with the teacher and the school; deal with conflict; enhance confidence, as well as working to improve the teaching performance of the student.

Sensitivity to other people seems to play an important part in the process. This will include a recognition of the power relationships, the school/societal pressures, as well as the individual differences of the participants. This involves not only skills of perception but skills of interaction. Sometimes supervisors are successful at this but sometimes not. When they are successful in social interaction it may be at the expense of success as instructional supervisors contributing more directly to the learning of the student teachers (Terrell et al., 1985).

Factors which require attention in order to enhance supervision

Training for supervision. The triad situation which is characteristic of teaching practice is a fragile, interpersonal situation which requires considerable sensitivity. It is surprising, therefore, that more attention has not been given to selection and training of the persons involved. Stones (1984) among others has pointed out that supervising tutors are not selected because of particular characteristics and neither are they trained to deal with the situations they face. Bolam (1980) has recognised this as a problem in dealing with teachers in their probationary year and recommended training in the development of counselling skills. Stones (1984) suggests the value of the clinical approach to supervision with its emphasis on listening although his concern is for the tutor to become better able to listen to the student teacher rather than the co-operating teacher.

There has also been a recognition that time to get to know one another is an important aspect of good social relationships. A more permanent relationship between specific tutors and schools as well as procedures for consultation could enhance this and have been built into training institution programmes (e.g. Oxford University, see McIntyre, 1988)

Diagnosis. The need for diagnostic supervision has been pointed out by Stones (1984) with its emphasis on close

observation and analysis. Bolam (1980) has suggested that mentors should receive a training in interaction analysis to help their observation and provide evidence for discussion with the trainee. Again the lack of training for supervisors is surprising since observation and analysis appears to be something which supervisors find difficult. It is interesting to note that training programmes have tended to be developed for teacher supervisors rather than tutors although that described by Yates (1981) was intended to be shared by teachers and tutors.

Formative or summative assessment? With the present emphasis on teacher competencies and appraisal it is hard to imagine that the use of assessment with its accompanying anxiety generation can be dispensed with, in order to create a easier climate in the classroom. However, the suggestion by Stones (1984) that assessment in supervision should be seen as formative and diagnostic rather than summative may alleviate this problem. The process is already being made easier in England by the recommendation that prospective trainee teachers should have school experience before commencing their courses, that school experience should figure very early in courses and that flexibility in transfer to alternative non-professional courses should be easily available. All of these steps will make it more likely that trainee teachers will either have had an early opportunity to judge their suitability or be able to change courses as appropriate. At the same time the expectations of trainee teachers are being made more

specific and detailed (D.E.S., 1989, 1991). A combination of a motivated group of trainees and fairly detailed statements of competencies may make formative assessment more effective and summative assessment less daunting.

Establishing and communicating expectations. Apart from the problems of social relationships between participants in teaching practice there appear to be quite serious communication problems. It seems that supervisors are not good at setting goals or at least communicating goals and expectations. In fact the problem seems to be twofold, i.e. being sure about their own goals and then being able to communicate these to teachers and students in a clear and acceptable way. However, more recently this problem has been re-defined since there is now strong pressure to include schools and teachers in setting the goals and expectations (D.E.S., 1989) so adding a further dimension to the task of the supervisor. Whether this will make communication easier or more difficult remains to be seen.

The opportunity for the joint clarification of goals and expectations, as well as establishing social relationships, is limited. Supervisors have university and college commitments and the time allocated to supervision is quite small and unlikely to be extended. One possibility is that all supervision is delegated to the class teachers. Some people would not see this as an acceptable solution because of the contribution to teaching practice which a supervisor should be able to make (e.g. Zimpher et al., 1980). The proposal would still require co-operation,

however, in that school based work would need to link with the institutional programme.

The difficulties of lack of familiarity with the schools can be made easier when institutions have partnerships with particular schools with a clear and recognised commitment to professional links. One example of such an approach is offered by the London Institute (Graves, 1990). Another example of enhanced partnership is the Oxford internship scheme already referred to (McIntyre, 1988). Here, not only are the schools particularly chosen but roles are carefully allocated with teacher tutors taking major responsibilities for the school based work. The whole is carefully co-ordinated with the University also having its defined role in devising the programme in consultation with teachers and in complementing the school based work with an issues-based programme to extend students' understanding and reflection. The tutors act in liaison with the schools with which they are familiar.

Where that sort of co-operation is not possible it is even more important that the time available is used more efficiently and effectively. Ways may be explored of taking short cuts by using procedures which are less time consuming, and which prepare the way for participants and so make the initial exploratory discussions more effective.

Related to this could be a more effective designation of roles. This would be welcome, but although a number of studies have looked at ways in which students, teachers and

tutors can work together more co-operatively (e.g. Stones, 1984; Cameron-Jones, 1982), they have not really addressed themselves to the possibility of assigning roles so that there is the minimum of overlap in function. The Exeter teacher education programme attempts to minimise overlap and achieve continuity by working from a common profiling system which takes the students through a range of levels of teaching activity in specified areas. Such a programme requires very careful action to ensure common understanding between the participants. There is some provision in this programme for differentiated functions of teachers and tutors in that teachers and students work together on a particular teaching skill and the tutor reviews the reports (Exeter University).

Boydell (1986) makes a suggestion that might overcome some of the problems of overlap in supervision when she proposes the possibility of tutors working with class teachers to enhance their practice so that they in turn will enhance the practice of students in their classes. There are difficulties here since the qualities of the participants are unpredictable. Ashcroft and Griffiths (1989) have pointed out that first class teachers are not necessarily good at communicating their skills.

Factors which may influence attempts to enhance supervision. The implementation of the suggestions outlined above may be influenced by some of the factors referred to earlier and it is important to consider these.

The size of teacher education programmes. The size of a teacher education programme, in terms of the number of students involved, is likely to be of major importance. Communication becomes more difficult when a large range of schools, students, teachers and tutors are concerned. Supervision is a very personal activity and its success depends heavily on the individuals involved.

Individuality of the participants. The nature of individuality cannot be ignored. In the previous section reference was made to the ways in which the individual differences of student teachers ensured that they received a different form of supervision from the tutor and co-operating teacher. In the school situation there are a number of participants with personal characteristics who can influence what happens; teachers, students, tutors, headteachers, other professional colleagues in the school.

A particular aspect of individuality which was considered above is highlighted in the work of Zeichner and Tabachnick (1982). This study showed how beliefs about teaching influenced tutors to the extent to which they supervised in a particular way, believing that they were implementing the institutional programme of clinical supervision. However, their actions were not always compatible with that philosophy.

An interesting question is whether tutors, student teachers and teachers can adapt their behaviour to accommodate to each others individual differences, and whether

participants recognising their own ideologies can compensate for these or use them to best advantage.

Developmental aspects of supervision. The developmental aspect of school experience was seen to be important in the discussion above. Programmes have given attention to this aspect, e.g. the Exeter programme offers levels of teaching performance to guide student teacher development; the Oxford programme suggests a first stage of developing "efficacy" before moving onto further stages which will require a more reflective approach (McIntyre, 1991). These recommendations do not, however, make particular recommendations about supervision strategies at different stages of development.

However, in America, both Cohn and Gellman (1988) and Hoover et al. (1988) have described programmes of supervision which are responsive to students' concerns and interests and professional development. Cohn and Gellman (1988) suggest a move from (i) ego counselling with its emphasis on helping students cope with anxieties associated with school practice to (ii) situational teaching, with an emphasis on developing skills and attending to the theory-practice focus to (iii) clinical supervision with an emphasis on reflective thinking. Hoover et al. (1988), trying to balance a direct with an indirect supervision, show a similar attempt to respond to students' increasing skill and need to develop autonomy.

King (1985) reports an interesting if rather prescriptive

approach to staff development with teachers (as opposed to student teachers). He relates four types of supervision (i) clinical supervision; (ii) co-operative professional development; (iii) self directed development; (iv) administrative monitoring , to four teacher types, i.e. (i) the unfocused worker; (ii) "those teachers who are highly motivated to teach but who lack the expertise in teaching that usually comes with experience"; (iii) the "faded" teacher; (iv) the competent teacher (p.7-8). The idea that teachers may be classified in quite this way is questionable but the idea that teachers have individual differences which will make them respond differently to supervision practices is an important one. Approaches of this type would make heavy demands on the observation and interpretational skills of tutors and it would be most important to remember that the development of the practice depends on the interaction of the participants as well as on their individual differences.

1.6 Summary and implications for research

Summary of research on supervision

Role of supervising tutor. The role of supervising tutors is widely defined. Their activities are not restricted directly to developing particular teaching skills in student teachers, they also support the student, make relationships (social and professional) in the school, link the college courses with the school situation. Supervision is also carried out with a wide range of people and in different situations so that making generalisations from

one study to another has to be carried out with care.

Degree of competence of supervising tutors. The evidence from the research suggests that supervising tutors are not very good at their work. They neglect the development of teaching skills in their students in order to give attention to achieving good relationships. However, there is not a lot of evidence to suggest that they are successful in achieving those good relationships, except under particular circumstances.

Social context of supervision. This lack of success may be related to the rather difficult social circumstances in which supervising tutors find themselves. The supervising situation directly involves a triad of people who usually do not know one another very well and who feel anxieties and conflicting expectations about the situation in which they are placed. This is likely to become more difficult with the need, in the present climate, for the role of the school to become more substantial, and student teachers to achieve high standards of competence under very public scrutiny.

Making supervision more effective

A number of initiatives have been set up to alleviate some of the problems outlined above. The important component is the provision of a framework within which the participants can work and which will give coherence to their activities. The framework usually contains sets of guidelines for activities to be undertaken at any one time. Sometimes this

also includes some definition of the roles to be undertaken by the different participants. Alternatively the framework itself is considered to ensure that all will be working to the same end. The applicability of these schemes is related to the circumstances in which they are undertaken.

Areas for further research

Taking into account the personal views of supervisors.

According to the research, tutors seem to be very inept. They say they are intending certain outcomes but do something quite different. What seems to be lacking is work which looks in detail at how tutors view their work. It is quite possible that the apparent discrepancies in their behaviour make sense to them in the situation in which they are placed, and are responsive to that situation. If that is the case their behaviour is unlikely to be influenced by exhortations to do something different if that action seems inappropriate to them.

Adapting the actions of supervisors to the needs of students. The development of a common framework to co-ordinate the activities of participants in supervision has been assumed to be a way forward in overcoming some of the problems of expectations and definition of roles. It is important to understand how the participants make use of these frameworks, whether in fact they are being used in the ways in which it is intended and with the results that are intended.

Some of the studies reviewed above have indicated that

individuals make very different use of what is available and indeed can influence what is available. Having a common framework does not necessarily ensure a common experience for the participants. Further work to clarify how participants implement schemes will give a clearer picture and the possibility of more effective practice.

Developmental supervision. Participants may also adapt a programme to meet the developmental needs of the students involved. Frameworks or programmes can offer a developmental pattern of achievements but do not give guidelines about appropriate supervision at a particular stage or offer help in deciding what to do about students who have difficulty with a particular aspect of teaching. This is related to Stones' (1984) emphasis on diagnostic supervision, the use of observation and analysis to pick out problems and guidance on how to act when a diagnosis has been made.

1.7 Leading into the next stage

Effective supervision strategies must be based on student need which needs to be diagnosed and will need to take into account the professional development of student teachers. All of this will be difficult to implement if co-operative social relationships and good communication between the participants are not in place. However, equally important is the suggestion that the beliefs of supervisors are an important element influencing their actions. Before going on to empirical investigation it is important to explore attitudes to teaching which might have influenced the views

of supervising tutors. The next chapter will consider some of the ways in which teaching has been conceptualised and investigated and the effects which a particular conceptualisation might have upon supervision behaviour.

CHAPTER 2

THE NATURE OF TEACHING AND RELATED STRATEGIES FOR SUPERVISION

2.0 Introduction

2.1 Levels of training

2.2 Thinking and research in teacher education

- The impact of the disciplines of education
 - Applying research findings from the disciplines of education to teaching and learning in schools
 - The place of the disciplines of education in teacher education

- The impact of classroom studies
 - Applying the findings from classroom studies to teaching and learning in schools
 - The place of classroom studies in teacher education

- Professional knowledge
 - A response to criticisms of teacher education
 - Some examples of studies exploring teachers' professional knowledge
 - Applying this approach to teacher education

- Reflective teaching
 - Refining professional knowledge

2.3 Achieving particular teaching outcomes through supervision

- The implications of beliefs about teaching for supervision practice
 - Supervisors trying to promote the application of theory
 - Supervisors trying to teach skills
 - Supervisors trying to help student teachers to develop professional knowledge

2.4 Supervision in practice

- Supervision as a professional skill

- The developmental nature of supervision

- Influencing professional skills

2.5 Developing a framework for the research

Principles to guide the research

Outlining the research

2.0 Introduction

In chapter 1 it was suggested that supervision practice is significantly influenced by what the individual supervisor believes is effective teaching and how good practice should be shared with trainees.

Thinking and research in teacher education will influence and be influenced by practitioners in the training institutions. A review of such thinking and research in teacher education will indicate the nature of some of those influences.

In this chapter research studies which have influenced views of effective teaching have been classified under 4 general headings and each of these areas will be examined in section 2.2:

- the impact of the disciplines of education
- the impact of classroom studies
- teaching as professional knowledge
- reflective teaching

The purpose of this review is to identify the particular influences of each approach on teacher training. In order to make these specific comparisons the analytical framework developed by Furlong et al.(1988) has been used. This analysis was developed in order to make pertinent comparisons between some particular, innovative teacher training courses, but here it is being used in a more general way to make comparisons between training courses based on particular views about the nature of effective teaching. The framework is outlined in section 2.1.

The ways in which supervision practice may be influenced by views of teaching are discussed in section 2.3.

In section 2.4 there is a return to a discussion of teaching as a professional skill. Since supervision is also a form of teaching it may be analysed in a similar way. It is suggested that, in fact, supervisors might not plan their supervision practice in response to particular views of effective teaching but rather that, like teachers in classrooms, they may respond to the practical situation in which they are placed. To put this another way, the influence of theoretical views may only be influential indirectly and therefore such a possibility should be taken into account in setting up a study of supervision.

2.1 Levels of training

According to Furlong et al. (1988) professional expertise can be developed at a variety of different levels from the most concrete and practical to the most fundamental and theoretical. Each level can be a focus for specific forms of training. They suggest four different levels which may provide a focus for training. (p.129-132)

Level (a) Direct practice

This level involves the development of understanding and skills through direct practical experience in the classroom.

Level (b) Indirect practice

This refers to training which may be of a practical nature and concerned with the development of skills but takes place "second-hand" in the training institution. It may

involve workshops or micro-teaching situations.

Level (c) Practical principles

This level is concerned with "the principles behind different professional practices (encountered at levels a and b and reflection on their use and justification"

Level (d) Disciplinary theory

It is considered that the professional knowledge associated with a, b, and c is based on implicit value judgements and theoretical assumptions. The study of fundamental theory and research at level d is intended to give a critical perspective on those judgements and assumptions.

Furlong et al. (1988) argue that courses of teacher education have attempted to cover these aspects of professional expertise but that at different times different levels have been given a different emphasis and, more importantly, the order of presentation to student teachers has been altered. In the next section four approaches to theory and research about teaching will be outlined and then compared against the levels of training described above. The intention is to make explicit the important differences between the approaches.

2.2 Thinking and research in teacher education

The impact of the disciplines of education

Applying research findings from the disciplines of education to teaching and learning in schools. With the professionalisation of teaching came increasingly serious attempts, both to apply concepts from the social sciences to teaching and to undertake research into teaching from the perspective of disciplines of education, i.e. history, philosophy, psychology and sociology.

Many of the traditional areas of psychology seemed to have a relevance to the teaching/learning situation. A study of child development has always been given a very important role in the preparation of teachers. Physical, social, emotional, cognitive and language development have seemed to be especially pertinent to the behaviour of young children in any situation and particularly in school. Indeed, whole systems of education have been based on the patterns of development of young children (e.g. Froebel, 1887; Montessori, 1912). The work of Piaget has been particularly influential in this area (e.g. Beard, 1969; Inhelder and Piaget, 1958).

Another important focus has been the study of how people learn and the related areas of motivation and thinking. Stones (1984) refers to the "fairly substantial body of knowledge about human learning" (p. 52) which has potential relevance for teachers. He identifies particularly skill learning, concept learning, problem solving and motivation.

The sociology of education offers work in areas such as the relationship between social class (or more generally culture) and educational achievement, as well as work on behaviour in organisations and the political nature of knowledge.

The area of philosophy of education is concerned with values, rights and duties as they relate to education. At the same time it introduces students to aspects of rational planning.

Finally, Wragg (1974) has traced the implicit acceptance that student teachers should understand the nature of the development of the education system from the deliberations of a "Committee of Seventeen" of the National Education Association in the USA in 1907 which suggests that prospective teachers should know how the education system had changed over time.

The areas of study considered above clearly relate to Furlong et al.'s (1988) fourth level of disciplinary theory. However, they also have potential relevance to some or all of the other three.

The place of the disciplines of education in teacher education. According to Furlong et al. the content of the disciplines of education cannot be considered separately from the way they are taught. This refers both to their position in the course in relationship to school-based work as well as the teaching methods used.

Traditionally, the disciplines of education along with certain methods courses were the introductory part of a teacher training programme. This was followed by a block of time in school when the learning of the previous term could be put into practice. The way in which the theory was put into practice was largely the responsibility of individual students. After the block teaching practice there would be further opportunity to develop aspects of theory in the final term. If, however, the theoretical aspects are more closely integrated with the school-based work, then there

is greater opportunity for level d to be associated with the other levels.

The same principle also applies to how student teachers are taught in the training institutions. It was typical for a transmission mode of instruction to be used to introduce the disciplines on the grounds that it was knowledge which students needed to have as quickly as possible so that they could begin to apply it. However, according to Furlong et al. (1988) this again is likely to make the relationship between level d and the other levels very remote.

They advocate an active learning approach to the disciplines of education which will also include an element of critical analysis in order to enhance the relationship, and this will be considered in more detail at a later stage. Two other approaches may act as illustrations of ways in which links may be made.

Stones (1984) believes that conventionally student teachers have been introduced to various schools of theorists by transmission methods and often invited to come to their own conclusions about the truth and usefulness of the theories. He goes on to say:

What I am suggesting is an attempt to identify those aspects of learning psychology, of whatever persuasion, that offer promise of guidance towards intervening in the process to enhance problem solving (p.41).

These principles have been developed into a psychopedagogical model to which student teachers are

introduced in the early stages of their training programme. These are the principles which are used to guide their planning and teaching in school. In other words a step from level d to level c is made for them in the first instance. At this stage student teachers are being "given" the appropriate theory by their mentors. At later stages in the course they will evaluate aspects of theory for themselves on the basis of the model outlined (Stones 1984).

Joyce et al. (1981) in an attempt to give student teachers choice and flexibility in their teaching also make steps from level d to level c for their students. In fact they go further and spell out the implications for implementation at levels b. Using educational theory they outline particular models of teaching and the principles which underlie them (e.g. concept attainment, synectics, group investigation). The next stage is to delineate the precise steps for implementation and then teach these to students along with their justification, in the training institution. The expectation is that student teachers will be in a position to implement these approaches as appropriate in school. In this case student teachers are applying "received" theory under instruction from their mentors.

The impact of classroom studies

Applying the findings of classroom studies to teaching and learning. It was not until the 1960s, that educational researchers began to develop an interest in what actually went on in classrooms. Research workers with quite

different specific interests (e.g. assessing teacher effectiveness, devising curriculum packages, examining the ineffectiveness of teacher training) appeared to realise that close observation and recording of classroom events could be a source of information and a guide to action. In the USA, classroom observation was extensively funded and the studies which were promoted tended to be those which were associated with the behavioural assumptions of American psychology and characterised by the development of procedures for describing teaching in a quantitative way (Rosenthine and Furst, 1973). Typically the approach involved the use of an observation schedule in which classroom behaviours were broken down into small manageable units which could be tabulated. The schedule could use general categories or a checklist of specific behaviours. By tabulating and computing the results, patterns of classroom interaction could be charted. In the anthology "Mirrors of Behaviour" (Simon and Boyer, 1970), 97 observational systems were included.

These schedules represented a way, if somewhat limited, of describing what went on in classrooms. However, within the behaviourist paradigm an important aspect of the work was what Rosenthine and Furst (1973) describe as the descriptive - correlational - experimental loop. This may be illustrated by the work of Nutthall et al. (1965, 1968) in the Canterbury Research Project. In the first stage the concern was with developing ways to categorise classroom interaction. Then correlational studies were conducted to

find out which kinds of behaviour they considered it to be worthwhile pursuing and which appeared to be irrelevant to student growth. Thirdly, the correlational results were tested in experimental studies. Finally it was expected that explanatory theory, accounting for the relationship between interaction and pupil achievement, could be derived from the results of the studies.

Gage (1977) describes the experimental work conducted by the Program of Teaching Effectiveness at Stanford University with 33 third grade classes.

...the aim of the experiment was to determine whether teachers instructed to behave in certain ways produce pupils with higher levels of achievement and more desirable attitudes than do teachers who have not received such instruction. (p.60)

The behaviours which were taught to the teachers and whose effectiveness was being tested were derived from previous correlational studies in the way described above. As a result of those procedures a number of inferences about effective teaching had been made. Three illustrative examples are given below:

- teachers should have systems of rules that allow pupils to attend to their personal and procedural needs without having to check the teacher
- teachers should move around the room a lot, monitoring pupils' seatwork and communicating to pupils an awareness of their behaviour, while also attending to their academic needs
- when pupils work independently, teachers should ensure that the assignments are interesting and worthwhile yet still easy enough to be completed by each third-grader working without teacher direction. (p. 39)

It was characteristic of this approach that objectives were stated in terms of concrete observable and trainable

teacher behaviours, with systematic ways of feeding back to teachers the nature of their performance. The natural progression from this work was the development of training packages and mini-courses which made use of micro-teaching to train teachers and students in what were considered to be more effective ways of working.

Laboratory micro-teaching was developed in the early 1960s by Allen et al. (1967) at Stanford University. There and at the Far West Regional Laboratory micro-teaching was utilised to produce mini-courses (Borg, Kelly et al., 1970). For example mini-course 1 dealt with teacher skills in conducting class discussion, re-direction, prompting, clarification, less repetition of one's own answers, whereas mini course 3 dealt with effective questioning in classroom discussion. A related area was the development of competency appraisal guides and the notion of teaching as a set of specifiable skills which can be classified and taught to trainees who will then become competent in a directly assessable way.

The place of classroom studies in teacher education. Using the Furlong framework the approach described above seems to belong to level b with the use of micro teaching and mini-courses and level a with practice with feedback taking place in the classroom. Referring to level c and d there is a reversal from the situation in the first section where principles were considered to underlie practice and to justify it. In this tradition the principles were derived

from the practice so that, for example, the inferences drawn from Gage's (1977) study were the principles which would inform the behaviours specified in the training programmes. According to Peck and Tucker (1973) the intention was that explanatory theory accounting for the relationships between interaction and pupil achievement would be derived from the studies.

Wragg (1974, reported in Graves 1990) in England was critical of the theoretical approach to teacher training outlined above and argued that it was equivalent to giving,

...trainee surgeons a course of lectures on the history, philosophy and mechanics of surgery, and then turning them loose in the operating theatre, each twirling a scalpel, hoping the lectures would inform their incisions. (p. 59)

In The Teacher Education Project (1976-81) he and colleagues set out to devise teaching materials which would give emphasis to the development of professional skills. They observed over 1000 lessons given by student teachers and teachers and drew information from these and other sources about the development of professional skills in the areas of class management, mixed ability teaching, and questioning/explaining. Basically they were trying to find out about the problems which students faced in these areas and how competent teachers tried to deal with them.

This approach has much in common with the inductive approach described above with experience preceding theorising. It does not, however, fit well with the behaviourist paradigm which characterises the previous

studies and it does not advocate training in tightly defined skills. In this sense it has much more in common with the next approach to be considered which is concerned with the professional knowledge of teachers.

Professional Knowledge

A response to criticisms of teacher education. At the heart of Wragg's work described above is the notion that ideas about good practice should come directly from the accounts and actions of good practitioners. This is also at the heart of the approach to teaching which examines professional knowledge (although some people would not like the emphasis to be placed on competent or effective practitioners, rather, more generally, on professional practice). Desforges and Mcnamara (1978) draw attention to the nature of "the classroom world in which students will ultimately operate" and discuss the implications:

It is a world in which they will be under serious constraints of the kind faced by their own mentors. They will have a large number of pupils, a diversity of often conflicting demands and pressures, and a shortage of freedom of choice of objectives, content, content, processes and time. Colleges must make a dynamic contribution to the student acclimatization to classrooms rather than delaying it. This entails developing an understanding of contemporary pedagogic pedagogic problem-solving under the constraints of busy classroom life. (pp. 20/21)

The emphasis in studies in this area is on how teachers themselves think about and make decisions about their actions in the classroom. In setting out the purposes of the approach, Halkes and Olsen (1984) write:

Looking from a teacher thinking perspective at teaching and learning one is not so much striving for the disclosure of "the" effective teacher, but for the explanation and understanding of teaching processes as

they are. After all, it's the teacher's subjective school related knowledge which determines for the most part what happens in the classroom; whether the teacher can articulate his/her knowledge or not. Instead of reducing the complexities of the teaching/learning situations into a few manageable research variables, one tries to find out how teachers cope with these complexities. (p. 1)

A good example of just such an attempt to model these complexities can be seen in the work of Brown et al. (1988) who, working from extensive teacher reports outlined the way teachers evaluate the situation in the classroom and then use their efforts to achieve what Brown et al (1988) call "normal desirable states" (p.5).

They argue that "that part of teachers' professional knowledge which is acquired principally through practical experience, is brought to bear spontaneously and routinely on their teaching and so guides the day to day actions in the classroom" (Brown et al. 1988, p.1). The requirement is that the practitioner's craft knowledge needs to be made articulate and communicated to students teachers (Soloman, 1987) and this is the task that workers in this area have set themselves.

In order to do this it has been necessary to find ways of getting teachers to describe what they are doing and thinking. This is not easy since much of their behaviour has become routine and taken for granted. Researchers have used different ways to access this information e.g.

- working closely with one teacher over a period of time (e.g. Elbaz, 1983; Clark and Elmore, 1981; Gudmundsdottir, 1990)
- stimulated recall (e.g. Calderhead, 1981)
- questioning which runs alongside teaching and planning (e.g. Lowyck, 1986)

- use of simulated teaching tasks (e.g. Berliner, 1987)
- asking teachers to think aloud (Calderhead and Miller, 1986)
- journal keeping (e.g. Rust, 1988; Neimayer and Moon, 1987)

Some examples of studies exploring teachers' professional knowledge.

Some examples will illustrate the attempts which have been made to work within this paradigm.

Teachers' planning has been an important focus for work in this area. Clark and Yinger (1987) argue that the linear model of (1) specifying objectives (2) selecting learning activities (3) organising learning activities (4) specifying evaluation procedures, is not apparent when the actions of experienced teachers are considered. They support this argument by drawing on their own work and that of others. Planning had very different functions at different times so that in the early stages of a new term the concern would be with setting up the physical environment, assessing the children's abilities and establishing the social system. In listing the relative importance of different sorts of planning for teachers, lesson planning was comparatively unimportant and was preceded by weekly, daily, unit and long range planning (Clark and Yinger 1987). Studying the planning of one teacher over 5 months Yinger (1977) found that "the activity" was the basic unit and the teacher drew heavily on established routines (Clark and Elmore, 1987). Published curriculum material was an important influence on teacher planning but it was modified considerably to meet the routines and requirements of the classroom context (Clark

and Elmore, 1981; Smith and Sendelbach, 1979).

Work by Bromme (1989) has illustrated how teachers' strategies to deal with actual classroom events may seem not to concur with theoretical exhortations. In order to teach successfully teachers must pay attention to the problems and mistakes of pupils. However, it seems that, instead of trying to encompass in any one lesson the individual needs of all pupils, the teacher uses the notion of a "collective pupil" to steer her/him through the teaching session. Because pupils contribute differentially to the teaching session and because there are spatial zones for teacher activity, Bromme (1989) points out that not all pupils are equally important for the forming of the teacher's image of "collective student". The question which this raises is whether the teacher's strategy is an ill thought out technique which should be abandoned or a well formulated strategy for dealing with a complex classroom situation, which could be modified in some way.

The studies referred to above are examples of ones which are concerned with the processes of teacher thinking. Other work has focused on the structure of teachers' knowledge (e.g. Elbaz, 1983; Calderhead, 1988; Berliner, 1987).

Calderhead (1988) suggests that:

The nature of teachers' practical knowledge - the knowledge that is directly related to action - is qualitatively different from academic subject matter or formal theoretical knowledge. (p.54)

The former has been described in terms of concepts such as images, scripts and routines or rules of practice. It is

knowledge "that is readily accessible and applicable to coping with real life situations and is largely derived from teachers' own classroom experience" (p.54). This knowledge itself, according to Calderhead (1988) can be at different level of abstraction but its relationship with other knowledge which the (student) teacher might have (e.g. subject knowledge) is much more problematic. Teachers can only make the more formal knowledge available to inform the practical situation by the use of meta-cognitive strategies. A better understanding of how these strategies work could enhance both pre-service and in-service teacher education and training.

One way of doing this may be to compare and contrast novice and experienced teachers. A step in this direction has been taken by Berliner (1987) in a study which compares the strategies which novice and experienced teachers use although it does not address itself to teachers' meta-cognitive thinking strategies. The study is rich in information and discussion about the teachers involved which it is not appropriate to discuss in detail here. In summary:

The more experienced teachers, in contrast with less experienced teachers, appear to use their rich schemas about students, their large store of episodic knowledge, and their unique memory to analyse student work....These same cognitive processes are also used to develop plans for instruction that are different. In short, our specially selected experienced teachers often acted like the experts we thought they were. (p.76)

Research into teachers' thinking offers a contrasting approach to the other two approaches outlined above.

According to Clark and Yinger (1987), researchers on teacher thinking set out to:

- describe fully the mental lives of teachers
- understand and explain how and why the behaviourally observable activities of teachers' professional lives take on the forms and functions they do" (p.84).

Researchers in this field do not make very ambitious claims for their work. Oberg (1989) states that :

The concern is not to influence practice to bring it closer to a pre-defined outcome, but rather to empower practitioners themselves to become better educators. (p.145)

This view is similar to that of Clark (1989) who saw researchers in this area having the potential to act as consultants contributing important pieces to clients' own solutions.

Applying this approach to teacher education. If the teacher thinking approach is matched against the Furlong framework, it seems that it is directly related to level a, since professional knowledge is inextricably related to practice in classrooms. The implication is that student teachers can only develop professional knowledge in the act of teaching. Perhaps it is possible to consider how level b may be of relevance since there teachers can learn from other teachers even when they are not in their classrooms, e.g. when they are answering questions about their practice in the training institution. Work outside the classroom has potential relevance if it is closely related to previous classroom practice. Desforages and McNamara (1979) have suggested the usefulness of examining published schemes of

work as an exercise in the training institution and the work of Smith and Sendelbach (1979) would support the value of this. MacNamara (1976, 1982) has drawn attention to the nature of the discourse which can go on with an experienced teacher, and the nature of the knowledge which will transpire.

The way teacher thinking relates to levels c and d is very interesting. Apparently teachers are building up their own theories of teaching and learning for themselves, in a way which is discussed in detail by Schon (1983). According to Schon (1983, 1987) the traditional view of the relationship between professional knowledge and action is less than adequate because it does not reflect how professionals actually work. They do not apply their specialised knowledge in a rule governed way. Embedded in the practice of a competent professional is what Schon (1987) calls a "core of artistry". He describes this artistry as:

an exercise in intelligence, a kind of knowing, though different in crucial aspects from our standard model of professional knowledge. It is not inherently mysterious; it is rigorous in its own terms and we can learn a great deal about it - within what limits we should treat as an open question - by carefully studying the performance of unusually competent performers. (p.13)

It is characteristic of competent performers that they can deal with professional problems immediately, almost without thinking and certainly without applying a logical problem solving approach. When faced with a new situation practitioners make sense of it by bringing to bear on it a stock of previous experiences which are different but

comparable. This leads to action, the results of which in turn are incorporated into the professional knowledge. Schon (1983) explains this:

When a practitioner makes sense of a situation he perceives to be unique he sees it as something actually present in his repertoire. To see this site as that one is not to subsume the first under a familiar category or rule. It is rather to see the unfamiliar, unique situations both similar to and different from the familiar one, without at first being able to say similar or different with respect to what. The familiar situation functions as a precedent, or a metaphor or...an exemplar for the unfamiliar one. (p. 138)

In undertaking action in response to a situation the practitioner is imposing a meaning on that situation, i.e. making an interpretation which will in turn have consequences. Schon (1983) expresses this by writing:

...the unique and uncertain situation comes to be understood through the attempt to change it and is changed through the attempt to understand it. (p. 132)

In this way using and developing professional knowledge is inevitably a reflective process and not a rule-governed one. The idea that teacher thinking is almost by definition reflective leads into the discussion of the next section.

Reflective Teaching

Despite Schon's (1983, 1987) assertions about the reflective nature of professional knowledge, the teacher thinking approach as described above is sometimes seen as a re-emergence of the apprenticeship model of teaching. According to this view a student teacher learns by contact with an experienced teacher using a mixture of observation, imitation and a large element of trial and error. A master/apprenticeship relationship is seen as the proper vehicle for transmitting the cultural knowledge possessed

by good teachers to the novice. In accessing teachers' professional knowledge, researchers will be making the implicit theories explicit.

Rowell and Dawson (1981) find this very worrying. Answering their own question, "what then is likely to result from making the implicit theories of teachers explicit?" they say:

Almost certainly what will emerge, and in a normative sense certainly what will emerge, will be common-sense understanding, that is understanding in terms of psychologically flavoured generalities which have become absorbed into the natural habits of thoughts. (p.320)

The argument then is that psychological theory will find its way into teachers' thinking but without the objective thinking attitude required for valid application. A second and related criticism is that this will produce a view of teaching which is traditional and conservative and not amenable to reflection and change.

This seems rather a negative view of professional knowledge which can be discounted if reflection is part of the process of developing professional knowledge and expertise. The notion of the teacher as a reflective practitioner is very influential at the present time but the definition of reflection is not unproblematic (Hayon 1990).

Hayon (1990), in reviewing ideas about reflection draws on the views of a number of people :

- a category of interactive thought (McKay and Marland, 1978)
- a process of teachers' thoughts on past occurrences in the classroom (McKay and Marland, 1978)

- a phase of teaching whereby teachers assess their plans and accomplishments and so revise them for the future (Shavelson and Stern, 1981)
- post active thoughts (Clark and Peterson, 1986)
- the information-processing activities after a lesson or broader unit of time (Lowyck, 1986)
- reflective teaching occurs when you question and clarify why you have chosen your lesson materials, procedures and content (Grant and Zeichner, 1984)

Schon (1983) refers to reflection-in-action. Graves (1990) would certainly like to include reflection-after-action as an important element including reference to the findings of applied educational research since, "more repeated practice without some external input may not lead to improvement." (p.73)

Many of these views are encapsulated in Hayon's (1990) summary of Soloman's (1987) views from "New Thoughts on Teacher Education":

1".....reflection mediates between past experiences, actions, personal theorising and understanding of received theories. It is a re-exploration of past experiences. Its value lies in ...the slow construction of personal knowledge and meanings." (p.60)

Zeichner and Liston (1987) add another dimension to reflection when they describe types of teachers i.e. (1) those concerned with technical rationality, (2) those concerned with practical action, (3) those concerned with critical reflection. These three areas identify a focus for reflection so that the first will be concerned with evaluating effectiveness in technical terms, the second with explicating and clarifying principles underlying practice, and the third concerned with moral and ethical reflections.

One further, final dimension is apparent in the work of Korthagen (1988). In a teacher education programme designed to develop reflective teachers by requiring an open-ended and problem solving approach, he found that some students were not able to cope with the approach and he hypothesised about levels of reflection which it might be possible to achieve with different individuals. This is an interesting idea but he gives little help in defining levels.

Refining professional knowledge. In many ways the approach referred to as reflective teaching can be seen as a refinement of the teacher-thinking approach described above. It is, however, much easier to see aspects of training for reflective teaching in all the levels of the Furlong framework. Reflective professional knowledge will be built up on the basis of classroom teaching at level a but work at levels b, c and d have the possibility to enhance the reflective process. Principles of teaching which grow out of professional practice will need to be articulated in order to be available for reflection and this is a process which could be enhanced by activities at level b. For example, discussion of micro-teaching incidents or examples of children's work can be a means of objectifying professional knowledge and making it available for analysis. One very well used means of making teachers thinking available has been the use of journals or personal story writing to bring to the conscious those matters which are often intuitive and well hidden. These would be tasks

recognisable as level b activities and be data for a consideration of principles, of the type suggested by Zeichner and Liston (1987) under their category of "practical action". Their category of "critical action" would benefit from a consideration of received theory in all the disciplines of education. The way in which school based work is integrated with work based in the institution will be a crucial factor here and one to which Furlong et al. (1988) address themselves.

Two further modifying factors need to be introduced at this stage. The first is that the way (student) teachers make use of activities at levels b, c and d is complex and not well understood. Secondly, the extent to which all these aspects of teacher education can be part of a pre-service course is also questionable (McIntyre, 1991) and what can reasonably be covered at that stage of training and what must wait for later stages is a problem which needs to be addressed.

2.3 Achieving particular teaching outcomes through supervision

The implications of beliefs about teaching for supervision practice

If, for the moment, it is considered that the approaches to teaching outlined above are discrete, it is possible to consider how a supervising tutor who believed strongly in the efficacy of a particular approach would act. Each approach with its related supervision strategy will be considered below. However in many student teaching

situations two supervisors are involved, a teacher and a tutor, and some of the difficulties of communication and implementation within triads were reviewed in the previous chapter. Some of the potential problems of working in a triad which could be associated with a particular approach will also be considered.

Supervisors trying to promote the application of theory. If a supervising tutor is trying to promote, during school experience, the use of theory which has previously been introduced in college courses then s/he may be engaged in two activities:

- trying to teach theoretical ideas in the practical situation (e.g. recognising aspects/stages of child development; recognising "set" in the structure of a lesson)
- encouraging a student teacher to apply theories which the tutor will assume have already been understood (e.g. to plan a lesson about a specific concept which illustrates how theory about the development of concepts is being put into practice)

At different stages of a student's course a supervising tutor will be asking the student teacher to recognise aspects of theory and then to apply those in planning and teaching. The review of literature in the previous chapter suggests that although this may be a stated aim of supervision it is not easily achieved.

The question which is relevant to the discussion of co-operative supervision (ie. supervision shared by the tutor and the co-operating teacher) is :

- to what extent will the teacher be sympathetic to this point of view, and be prepared and able to contribute?

The answer indicated by research studies suggests that

teachers are not impressed by the relevance of theory to classroom teaching (Applegate and Lashley, 1982; Cope, 1971; Turney, 1977), that tutors do not value their contribution (Lashley et al. 1986) and that teachers and student teachers may work together to minimise the efforts of tutors who do attempt to apply theory (Cope, 1971; Winter, 1980). It is significant that one reason which tutors give for not wanting to be theoretical in their input is that they want to see themselves as teachers, and to be valued as part of the practical classroom situation (Rust, 1988), so that tutors are ambivalent about that approach themselves.

However, there do seem to be specific circumstances under which some success can be achieved. The study by Zimpher et al. (1980) described in chapter 1 is one example where a college course was closely allied to school-based work with the college and school work alternating within each week and the same personnel involved in both. This is the same pattern which is now characteristic of a number of teacher training courses in England, particularly during serial practice.

In the traditional block practice of several weeks where other institution personnel are likely to be involved and the relationship between tutor and student is more tenuous, it is likely that the process would be less effective. Perhaps the assumption is that at a certain stage of training the student will be able to continue without tutor support, but there is little evidence to support that

supposition.

One model of supervision has attempted to address this problem. Stones' (1984) system of supervision involved a set procedure for which co-operating teachers were specifically trained during Masters degree courses, by the same personnel who would later share supervision of student teachers with them. The student teachers were introduced to the same psychopedagogy in the very early stages of their course and the subsequent school experience was planned to support the approach. Under these circumstances all the participants would plan and work together according to specific guidelines. The requirements for the implementation of the approach are a common understanding of the appropriate theory and close collaboration between members of the triad in the classroom. Stones (1984), in fact, sees it as one of the responsibilities of the supervising tutor to pick out those aspects of the theory which are "relevant". There is no detailed account of the implementation of the approach which gives information about the shared understanding of the theoretical aspects involved but the application of theoretical ideas in the classroom situation is an important element of the scheme.

Supervisors trying to teach skills. Another approach referred to previously developed out of those classroom studies from which particular teaching skills were derived and defined in behavioural terms. Those studies suggested that specific teaching skills could be taught successfully

to students teachers if they were clearly specified. The developing use of skills depends on help in shaping the skills, help in deciding upon the most appropriate time to use them and upon regular feedback. The success of the project would depend upon a clear understanding of the skills which were being developed, a strategy for teaching the skills and the regular and willing support of the co-operating class teacher in supporting and sustaining the strategy.

The studies which have adopted this approach have been associated with the work on micro-teaching and mini-courses, where the training has taken place in the institution with the necessary shaping of the skills by the use of feedback. It has been the responsibility of the student teacher to implement these skills in the classroom. Such evidence as there is about the successful implementation of the approach is confusing. It is agreed that skills can be taught successfully and there is some evidence that teachers are able to implement their new skills in the classroom. However, the general evidence of the effect of the co-operating teacher (Brown, 1981; Seperson and Joyce, 1981) or the general effect of the school situation (Mahlios, 1982; Wragg, 1982) would suggest that without the continued support of the class teacher (in the case of student teachers) the skills will not necessarily continue to be implemented.

A further problem is that it is not always clear whether the skills which are being taught are, in fact, new to the teachers. Joyce et al. (1981) found a control group of student teachers who had not received special training implementing the same teaching skills as a group which had received special training. They found that the greatest success was achieved when skills were related specifically to a particular model of teaching intended to be applied to attain particular pupil outcomes (e.g. concept teaching). It seemed that under these circumstances the student teachers were able to identify the situation where the approach was appropriate and to implement such an approach. There is no mention of special supervision to continue the feedback to the students in the classroom apart from the knowledge that they were expected to be able to implement the skills and that researchers would be coming into the classrooms to see them teach.

Supervisors helping student teachers to develop professional knowledge. If knowledge about teaching is personal, self-constructed knowledge rather than theoretical, received knowledge, then trainee teachers have to develop it in a personal way. If this is the case the most likely source of useful information will be the co-operating teacher who is, presumably, using knowledge of an appropriate type. Trainee teachers working alongside experienced teachers may be able to access this knowledge in an apprenticeship mode. The information which comes from the teachers will be very specific (see McNamara, 1976).



A difficulty here is that teachers do not find it easy to share their professional knowledge even when they are trying to co-operate in the process of teacher education (see McAlpine et al., 1988; McNamara, 1979). There are two likely problems here, first, that professional knowledge is of an intuitive nature and not easily available, and, secondly, that teachers believe that professional knowledge is of such a personal nature that what is right for one individual is not necessarily right for another so that their contribution to training will not be helpful.

An interesting finding from the McAlpine et al. (1988) study referred to above was that teachers who co-operated in the scheme became better at sharing their practice and at the same time the act of sharing their practice made them more reflective about what they were doing. The notion of Schon (1983) that the development of professional knowledge is a reflective process anyway is pertinent here, with the supposition that the development of professional knowledge cannot be considered separately from the development of reflective thinking. This supposition does not necessarily discount different levels of reflection being possible (Korthagen, 1988).

A number of techniques and approaches to the development of reflective thinking are available in the literature (Ashcroft and Griffiths, 1989; IT INSET, see Ashton et al. 1983; clinical supervision, see Cogan, 1973 and Goldhammer, 1968; use of journals, see Neimayer and Moon, 1987 and

Rust, 1988; course development, see Korthagen, 1988). A characteristic of approaches to developing reflection is the emphasis on the autonomy of the trainee and the importance of the trainee's developing perception about what is happening in the classroom and her/his personal development.

Clinical supervision is one way which, it has been suggested, can enhance this. Clinical supervision is not a unitary process since different forms of it have been advanced by a number of different people (e.g. Sergiovanni, 1985). The common theme is that the student teacher maintains autonomy and responsibility for the conduct of the supervision process. The typical pattern is that tutor and student teacher have a pre-teaching conference when the student explains the objectives of the teaching session, how it is to be conducted and what is the particular aspect of the teaching which the student wants to emphasise. This leads onto discussion about how and what the tutor will observe. During this discussion it is quite permissible for the tutor to offer an opinion about the lesson and the observation but the student teacher has the final word and the tutor trained in clinical supervision approaches the discussion with sensitivity in order not to undermine the confidence and autonomy of the student teacher. During the teaching the tutor carries out the agreed observation and may well notice other aspects of the teaching which s/he believes to be important. After the teaching there is another discussion which is conducted with the same degree

of sensitivity to the student as the first.

The significant characteristic of this approach is that the student teacher may articulate what s/he is trying to achieve and ask the tutor to look for specific sorts of evidence. When the tutor has done this s/he can present the data to the student teacher for consideration but the judgement of whether the objectives have been attained is the student's. The function of the tutor is only to present another point of view which the student teacher may have access to.

Handal and Lauvas (1987) have recommended certain reflective supervision techniques which are intended to enhance supervision in trainees. They suggest that student teachers should be asked to: reflect on what they have done in classrooms; examine the assumptions they have made about pupils and knowledge; examine the criteria they have for learning success and whether these criteria are justified.

It is interesting to consider at this point the nature of co-operation between teacher and tutor in implementing such an approach. If there are different levels of reflection then it is likely that some teachers having developed professional skills and knowledge will see that knowledge as unproblematic and therefore be unwilling or unready to participate in the process of analysis. At the same time the review in chapter 2 suggests that teachers may feel that they are being criticised by outsiders if practice in the classroom is seen as problematic.

One way of approaching this potentially difficult situation is by the use of the strategy used in IT INSET (Ashton et al., 1983), where teachers, student teachers and tutors plan, implement and evaluate together their work in the classroom. This is a technique used in serial practice but it could have relevance for block practice either by adapting the approach or by using it to develop a positive attitude to reflection in a teacher who may later share the supervision of a student teacher on block practice. This is also an aspect of the suggestion put forward by Boydell (1986) which is that tutors should work co-operatively with class teachers in an in-service capacity in order to enhance reflection and analysis so that the same teacher may use with student teachers on block teaching practice techniques of analysis and reflection which have been generated. This approach has some characteristics in common with the approach advocated by Stones (1984) and discussed above.

In the same way that theory is fed into student teachers' courses at the early stages in order to enhance the learning and application of theory, so the reflective approach, it has been suggested, requires that student teachers should have some training in analysis and the development of a questioning attitude to their work. Furlong et al. (1988) have suggested that this may be achieved by the use of enquiry methods in work in the institution in order to lay a foundation of critical

analysis. The difference between this and the teaching of "relevant" theory discussed above is that in the former the emphasis is given to the process of theorising rather than the content of educational theory.

One final requirement for developing reflective thinking in students and teachers is, according to Graves (1990), to have supervisory people who are in touch with the fields of practice and of theory:

However, though those concerned with "reflective practicum" will develop an ethos and terminology of their own, they need to keep in touch with both the world of practice (the schools) and the world of science and scholarship, so that reflective practice is informed from these two sources."

(p.63-64)

Kompf and Dworet (1990) have introduced the notion of "expert volunteers", i.e. people with expertise but also with teaching credibility, who work alongside of teachers in the classroom to develop aspects of classroom practice.

Supervision in practice

Supervision as a professional skill

The discussion above assumes that specific supervision practices are, for the tutors concerned, related to particular beliefs about teaching which are in turn related to association with a particular paradigm explicating the nature of teaching.

There is an implication that tutors recognise different styles of supervision and choose which ones to use in a quite conscious rule-determined manner. However, supervision of student teachers is teaching and as such is

a professional skill based on professional knowledge. It seems very likely that supervisory skill is built up in the same way that teaching skill is built up i.e. by a process of interpretation, action, reflection and adjustment. The action of any one tutor is quite likely to reflect aspects of all the behaviour described above or none of them or some of them. The circumstances under which any particular action is taken may be subject to interpretation by the supervising tutor of the situation at any one time. A research study into supervision while bearing in mind the approaches to teaching which may guide tutors as well as the difficulties in co-operation between the participants, needs also to investigate the way supervisors make decisions and the circumstances within which the decisions are made.

This is not necessarily the case. Tutors do, according to Zeichner and Tabachnick (1982), have beliefs about teaching which influence their practice but the relationship with a particular paradigm has not been established. In fact, the evidence is easier to understand if this is not the case. In the study referred to above tutors were supposed to be supervising according to criteria associated with clinical supervision and the tutors believed that that is what they were doing. In fact, the practice which should have been very similar between tutors was not.

The same integrating of approaches in practice can be seen in other circumstances. For example, the Stones (1984)

approach to supervision practice requires a reflective and evaluative commitment from all the participants and he suggests that he would be sympathetic to the Schon (1983) description of a professional practitioner, as long as the professional skill was based on psychological principles, which are mediated by the supervising tutor.

Similarly, according to the teacher thinking paradigm, each individual teacher has to develop her/his own professional practice but this does not seem to be incompatible with a class teacher passing on to a student certain skills or "tips" which have been seen to be useful. In fact, the development of teaching skills which has been based on correlational studies indicating effectiveness are very likely those skills which have arisen out of the professional knowledge of effective teachers. This would appear to have been the case with the work of Wragg (1984).

The developmental nature of supervision.

In chapter 2 the developmental nature of supervision was discussed i.e. that different supervision strategies may be appropriate at different times. This could be related to the example given above such that in the early stages of teaching a classteacher may help a novice by teaching a skill which has been used effectively with a particular class. This instruction will be on the understanding that the training teacher will at a later stage make decisions about whether to continue to use that particular strategy. This would fit in with the programme suggested by Cohn and Gellman (1988) whose second supervision technique was

"situational teaching" when skills may be taught and aspects of theory introduced. The third stage was clinical supervision when the training teacher was given autonomy to direct the supervision on her/his own terms.

Influencing professional skills.

The discussion above introduces the idea that supervision like teaching is a professional skill showing the same personal construction of theory which seems to be characteristic of the development of teaching skills. If this is the case it would be likely that supervisors are making their own professional decisions based on previous experience in a practical situation, and it is not surprising that their behaviour would seem to be irrational in the sense that it is not unproblematically allied to a particular theoretical approach. However, if supervisors are to be reflective about their practice they will want to examine that practice in the light of theoretical approaches, making personal decisions about the appropriateness of that theory.

An important area for research is a much closer consideration of the professional knowledge of supervisors so that there can be a clearer understanding of how they make decisions about their practice. If supervision practice is to change for the better a related issue must be a consideration of the circumstances under which tutors change their practice.

2.5 Developing a framework for the research

Principles to guide the research.

A number of principles relating to the practice of supervision have been identified, these are summarised below:

1. Supervision is a professional skill which is developed in an idiosyncratic way
2. It will be influenced by the particular nature of the circumstances under which it is practised, i.e. little time, little contact with the situation, relationships within a triad
3. It will also be influenced by theoretical approaches but not in a rule following way.
4. It is important to develop reflection in supervision as in teaching and theory may have an important role here
5. An important aspect is development over the practice and the students course.

Outlining the research

The principles outlined above make certain necessary requirements for the setting up of a study to investigate supervision conducted jointly between teachers and tutors.

First, there is the requirement for a mutually supportive environment in which the participants can understand the nature of the situation and their part in it. This may include considering administrative arrangements and patterns of communication which will make this co-operation possible as well as understanding those factors which may interrupt good relationships. This stage will be a necessary initial one before the next stages can be investigated.

Secondly, the professional nature of supervision will need to be explored from the point of view of the participants. This will mean that as the supervision is taking place there will need to be the opportunity to examine the professional practice with reference to decision making, procedures, strategies, response to changing circumstances, response to individual differences of the participants, adaptation to circumstances, use of theory.

Thirdly, on the basis of the information gathered from stage 2 there will be a need to investigate ways of enhancing supervision which are consistent with the professional behaviour of the participants. In this investigation there will be reference to: reflection; adapting style to meet the needs of the situation; making the best use of time by establishing procedures; finding ways of getting the maximum amount of information to identify the needs of the student teacher in that situation; considering the developmental needs of the student teacher over the practice.

CHAPTER 3

THE CONDUCT OF THE RESEARCH

3.0 Introduction

3.1 The setting for the research

3.2 The first study

Setting up the study

Methodology

Results and implications

3.3 The second study

Setting up the study

Methodology

Evaluating the nature of the use of the guidance documents and hence the co-operation

Exploring professional skills

Results and implications

The nature of supervision behaviour

Discussing the nature and use of the emergent typology

Potential dangers in the use of such a typology

3.4 The third study

The aims of the study

Setting up the study

Methodology

3.5 Conclusions

3.0 Introduction

The discussion at the end of the last chapter identified three aspects of the proposed research:

- to set up a framework within which teachers, students and tutors could work co-operatively
- to investigate supervision processes in the practical classroom situation
- to build on the analysis in order to develop ways of helping tutors to enhance supervision practice by reflecting upon their practice, which may include drawing on theoretical insights.

The main aim of the research was encapsulated in the third one of these with the other two being the necessary forerunners. The evidence from the research suggests that effective supervision strategies will include careful diagnosis of student teacher need and equally careful attention to the change in supervision as the student teacher develops professionally. As well as this it is expected that supervision strategies will benefit from reflection and theoretical insights.

The complexity of the aims implied the need for a sequence of studies. In this way the first stage could give emphasis to developing strategies for co-operation among the participants so that at the second stage there could be a concentration on understanding the nature of supervision in a co-operative situation. With this understanding it would be possible to consider a third stage with the aim of developing reflective practice in supervision.

Although this was the intention, still it was recognised that the inter-relationship between the various threads running through the field work would make it difficult as

well as undesirable to treat them as discrete.

This chapter begins with some details of the institution in which the series of studies were carried out as well as about the personnel involved. This is followed by an outline of the setting up of the two preparatory studies, their methodology and those results which were pertinent to the setting up of the third and final study. The data from this final study forms the basis for the analysis which is reported in the rest of this work. However, because of the important influence which the preparatory work had on the format of the final study it was seen to be necessary to report on it briefly.

Because the aims for each study were different so the methodology was necessarily adapted in order to achieve the aims. As each study is described the appropriate methodology is outlined and justified. For the first two studies the account is set out under the following headings:

- Setting up the study
- Methodology
- Results and implications.

Because the results of the final study are discussed in detail in the subsequent chapters the information about its setting up is organised differently, i.e.

- The aims of the study
- Setting up the study
- Methodology.

3.1 The setting for the research

All the field-work was based in a College of Higher Education in the North of England and in its associated schools. Within the college approximately half the students were training to be teachers and half associated with other degree programmes. The college offered training via the four year Bachelor of Education degree (B.Ed.) route for students training to teach in primary schools and via the one year Post Graduate Certificate in Education (P.G.C.E.) route for students training to teach in primary and secondary schools. All the students involved in the research were from the B.Ed. programme preparing to teach in primary schools.

The B.Ed. was a 4 year course which had serial or block practice in each year of the course. In the degree course at that time there were only two main block teaching practices, one of 6 weeks in the second year and one of 8 weeks in the third year. The first study was conducted with second year student teachers and the second two with third year student teachers.

The college had access to schools in very different environments, including what may be described as inner city schools, suburban schools, small country schools. The schools involved in these studies reflected that spread and all had been used by the college for block teaching practices over a number of years. The schools used by the college showed a range of different types of organisation and ethos.

Male and female student teachers made up the BEd student population with a majority of students being female. At that time the majority of the students were in the 19-24 age range with a small number of mature entrants. The majority of the student body lived within a 50 mile radius of the college but many other areas of the country were represented in the student body. All these characteristics were reflected in the samples of student teachers.

At that time the tutors teaching on the professional parts of the degree course were designated as:

- professional studies tutors teaching on professional/educational studies and involved in school based work (as well as teaching practice supervision)
- curriculum studies tutors teaching on curriculum studies courses and not usually involved in school based work apart from teaching practice supervision.

A fairly small number of tutors did both of these.

There was a further category of tutors who could be described as educational studies tutors who taught on education courses but were not involved in school based work apart from teaching practice supervision.

Tutors from all these categories were involved in different stages of the work and the details will be given as appropriate as will details of how the participants came to be involved at different stages of the research.

3.2 The first study

Setting up the study.

The difficulties of trying to develop a co-operative

situation among the participants in supervision were outlined in chapter 1. The initial task was to set up a situation where these difficulties could be overcome at least to some extent.

A small exploratory study was set up to highlight the reasons for lack of contact, communication and co-operation between participants in the supervision triad i.e. teachers, student teachers and tutors, and at the same time to create a situation in which these participants could work together to their mutual benefit in the supervision process.

The study involved one tutor, the four student teachers allocated to her for teaching practice and the four co-operating teachers. There were two students and two teachers in two schools, and in each school a junior class and an infant class. The participants were those students and teachers who were allocated to that tutor in the normal college administrative processes and the students were in the second year of their course, doing their first major block teaching practice. It was made clear to the participants that there was no pressure on them to be part of the project if they did not wish to be.

Methodology

It was considered that the most effective way of exploring the situation and at the same time acting to remediate difficulties would be by using an action research methodology. This is characterised in the work of Elliott

(1982) where classroom teachers by action and analysis in their own classrooms were able to monitor and evaluate their own practice and in the process develop that practice. It is typical of the approach that certain strategies are implemented and their potential for improving practice evaluated, leading to the development of adapted strategies.

In the formative stages of the research this seemed an appropriate way for the investigator, who was also the supervising tutor, to work closely with co-operating student teachers and teachers and to explore together the nature of co-operation and supervision. The study could be considered as action research since it included the bringing about of improvement in professional practice. The discussion and comparison of points of view, as outlined in the Ford Teaching Project (Elliott and Adelman), was an important element of this research.

Because of the small number of participants it was comparatively easy to share experiences and negotiate new understandings. The process began with detailed discussion between the tutor and pairs of teachers, and between the tutor and the group of four student teachers. These were not tape recorded but an account was written up very soon after each discussion. The tutor spoke to all the participants, either individually or in pairs, at least once a week during the practice as well as observing the students teaching. In response to the situation in the early stages of the practice the teachers began to keep

diaries which outlined the content of their discussion with the student teachers between tutor visits. At the end of the practice the group of teachers and the group of student teachers met for a semi-structured discussion, which was recorded.

Results and Implications

The detail of the results of this study are presented in Appendix 1 but two important lessons were learned. The first concerned the nature of co-operation. Co-operation may be enhanced by sensible documentation from institutions and by goodwill but it is a face to face activity which may easily be damaged by very simple obstacles and expectations on the part of the participants. An agreement has to be negotiated, with determination and persistence, for each teaching practice.

The second lesson was that although a group of teachers within a school may be able to discuss their practice, it is very difficult for a group of comparative strangers to enter into a dialogue about teaching without some "tools" to assist them.

In response to these two lessons, two documents were drawn up:

A summary of guidelines to aid co-operation and a skill list.

(1) A summary of guidelines to aid co-operation. This was intended to form a meeting point for discussion between teacher, student teacher and tutor, and to minimise the

inherent difficulties of triadic interaction,

(2) A skill list. This was developed from the diaries which the teachers had kept. The similarity between these diaries was very marked and it was possible to organise the comments of the teachers under four headings:

- preparation
- teaching
- management/ relationships
- personal characteristics.

The final version of this skills list was given back to the teachers and student teachers for their comments and they agreed it as a valid account of their diaries. It was then given to a team of tutors who, having added further items, agreed its validity as a framework for discussing teaching practice. At this stage there was little indication of how the skills list could be used in a co-operative way by teachers and tutors. It is important to differentiate between this document and teaching skills as defined by the skill-based teaching approach discussed in chapter 2. This list was an expression of the understandings of the participants in this study.

These documents are available in Appendix 2 and Appendix 3 respectively.

3.2 The second study

Setting up the study

As a result of the insights gained during the first study, it was possible to formulate plans for a second study which although still exploratory could begin to have a more

precise focus. It was directed by two main aims.

1. The first was to evaluate the ideas embodied in the two documents developed during the first study, i.e. the guidelines to aid co-operation and the skill list. As Brown et al. (1988) have pointed out:

...if information from research is to be communicated and ultimately used in other contexts then it must be potentially generalisable across teachers. (p.4)

It was not enough that the strategies would work with one set of people, there was a need to apply the strategies in other situations and consider their efficacy. This would include defining the ways in which they might be implemented in different circumstances.

2. If an atmosphere of trust and co-operation could be developed between students, teachers and tutors by acting on insights gained from the first study, then the next aim was to re-address the issue of how supervision is actually carried out and the related aim of its effectiveness.

Both of these aims required that a larger sample should be used and the second study involved 6 tutors, 14 teachers and 14 student teachers, as follows.

Tutor	1	School	1	3 students/teachers	2 junior	1 infant
Tutor	2	School	3	3 students/teachers	2 junior	1 infant
Tutor	3	School	4	3 students/teachers	2 junior	1 infant
Tutor	4	School	5	1 student/teacher		infant
		School	6	1 student/teacher		infant
Tutor	5	School	7	1 student/teacher	junior	
Tutor	6	School	7	1 student/teacher		infant

The sample of tutors was chosen first, in that they were invited to join the project in the first instance. All agreed, despite the need for them to make a heavy

commitment of time and energy. The teachers and student teachers were those people allocated to the chosen tutors in the normal course of college teaching practice arrangements. It was made quite clear to all of them that there was no requirement for them to participate. This was seen to be especially important for the student teachers who could feel themselves in a vulnerable situation. In fact all did participate. Initially, the nature of the project was explained to all the participants: to the tutors and student teachers in separate groups and to the teachers individually or in school groups. The students involved in this study were all B.Ed. students in their third year starting their second major teaching practice.

Methodology

In order to achieve the two different aims of this stage of the work it was necessary to adopt two different methodologies and each will be considered separately

Evaluating the nature of the use of the documents and hence the co-operative process. Evaluating the nature of the use of the documents and hence the co-operative process required an appropriate methodology and the procedures of "illuminative evaluation" were adopted. The model which was used was that of Partlett and Hamilton (1977), i.e. "evaluation as illumination". They draw an analogy with the theatre:

...to know whether one's play works one has to look not only at the manuscript but also at the performance, i.e. at the interpretation of the play by the directors and the actors. (p. 21)

The interest was in looking at how the teachers, students and tutors translated and enacted the strategies which had been developed. According to Partlett and Hamilton (1977), "illuminative evaluation is not a standard methodological package, but a general research strategy", aimed at being "both adaptable and eclectic" (p.13). Research tactics are related to the requirements of the situation and, most importantly, they should complement one another in order to give as full a picture as possible. Certain initial questions guided the data collection.

1. About the guidelines

- Do the teachers and students discuss teaching?
- Do they deal sensitively with the observation process?
- Do the trio members interact with one another?
- Do the participants feel satisfied with the interaction?
- How do the participants interact?
- Is the interaction useful?
- How do you know it's useful?
- What difficulties raised themselves?
- How were the difficulties influenced by the guidelines?

2. About the skill list

- Was it used?
- Did it create discussion?
- Did the issues on the skill list arise spontaneously?
- How was it used?

These questions were part of the regular discussions with the tutors, teachers and to a lesser extent with the student teachers and this made it possible to follow the development of the use of the strategies during the course of the practice. It was important to match comments on the documents against evidence of their actual use and the ways in which they were used.

Exploring professional skills. The second aspect of this stage of the research was the exploration of supervision practice in a co-operative situation. This aim required a process approach in order to identify exactly what was going on in the supervision situation. There was a need to access the professional knowledge of the participants to understand how they perceived and responded to their professional situation. At the same time there needed to be a responsive approach so that the course of the research could be adapted to the developing situation.

A number of strategies have been developed as appropriate for accessing the understanding and decision-making processes of teachers, some of which were referred to in chapter 2. These include:

- think aloud protocols, where the professionals reports on their thinking as it is carried out
- stimulated recall procedures, where thinking about professional activity is stimulated by the use of short accounts, video/audio recordings
- different sorts of interviewing procedures
- accounts by participants
- story telling.

Inherent in these techniques is the assumption that teachers can recall the thinking which accompanies or precedes their classroom activities (Calderhead 1985) and in this instance that supervisors can do likewise. The accounts of teachers will include information which the teachers normally say to themselves as well as that which has not previously been verbalised (Ericsson and Simon, 1980). They will include information about personal presentation as well as that of professional decision

making (Harre et al., 1972). The circumstances under which the reports are made and the extent of the opportunities for checking and re-checking accounts will influence the quality of the data.

A further aspect which has been pointed out by Ericsson and Simon (1980) is the influence of the report making on the thinking of the participants. Again this is an inevitable part of qualitative research and would need to influence the circumstances of the data collection.

In developing this exploratory approach a decision was made to focus on the perspective of the tutors, while still taking into account the points of view of the other participants. There were two main reasons for this decision. The first originated from the experience of the first study. Although the teachers were very willing to co-operate with the tutor, they saw their first responsibility to the children they taught, whereas they accepted that the first responsibility of the tutor was and should be to the student being trained. The second reason was a pragmatic one but related to the first. It was much easier to access the time and commitment of the tutors in the way described below. The account below should, however, indicate how the views of the teachers and student teachers were taken into consideration.

The tutors met for one hour every week of the teaching practice and their discussion was tape recorded. The purpose of the discussion was to exchange, check, compare

and negotiate ideas and perceptions, so that it was essential for the agenda to be negotiable. The strategies for accessing the understanding and decision-making processes of teachers outlined above were apparent in these sessions. The tutors were giving accounts, telling stories, reflecting on their actions and being stimulated by the opportunity to discuss their practice.

The tutors were also invited to keep diaries of their supervision of each student teacher; some did and some did not. The student teachers and teachers were visited at least once a fortnight and most of them weekly. Sometimes they were interviewed together and sometimes separately. There were four taped discussion groups at the end of the practice, two of teachers and two of student teachers. This gave an opportunity, particularly for the teachers, to exchange ideas amongst themselves. Again, with some guidelines, the agenda was negotiable. The teachers were invited to keep diaries, as had been initiated in the first study. Again some did but others did not.

Because the data came from numerous different sources it was possible to check one account against another and to compare the perceptions of different people. This process of comparison particularly between the accounts of different members of a trio had to be dealt with very sensitively indeed with great respect for the assurances which had been given and the trust developed. Most care had to be exercised in the tutor discussion group where the

regular nature of the event encouraged a free exchange of ideas. There were, however, no problems for the tutors in comparing their own perceptions with each other and this was a very productive exercise. As well as reflecting upon their own practice tutors were invited to consider and appraise some of the models of supervision outlined in the theory (e.g. skill teaching, clinical supervision) The regular nature of the tutor meetings running alongside their actual practice, as well as the familiarity of the investigator with all the schools, achieved through the regular visits, generated a lively and rich discussion. Because the participants had control over the agenda the concerns of Ericsson and Simon (1980) that important factors would not be allowed to arise was not applicable. At the same time the extended time for discussion and the potential for returning to important issues at different times gave the maximum opportunity for participants to develop confidence and to re-address issues which may have been problematic or only vaguely articulated in the early stages.

The model of analysis used was that described by Glaser (1967) as comparative analysis and, in fact, the first three of the four stages he outlines were in evidence in the conduct of the second study:

- comparing incident with incident
- comparing incident with category
- delimiting theory by integration and reduction
- writing theory and conveying its credibility.

This part of the second study, like the first study had a strong element of action research, with a group of tutors

working to inform and improve their own practice.

Results and implications

The second study was concerned with setting up a co-operative supervision environment by the use of certain strategies developed during the first study and with examining the nature of supervision practice.

The strategies were instrumental in initiating and sustaining a co-operative environment which made it possible to explore supervision. For the sake of clarity and continuity the detail of the evaluation of the strategies and of the co-operation has been made available in Appendix 4. Only that part of the analysis which was directly related to the setting up of the third study is discussed in this chapter.

The nature of supervision behaviour. The behaviour of the tutors was importantly influenced by the situation within a particular school: e.g. school organisation; the nature of the children; space in the classroom; organisation of the class; organisation of work; curriculum; requirements and availability of the teachers; personality of both teachers and student teachers.

The most significant aspect of the supervision was the way in which it was adapted to meet the needs or the constraints of the school/class situation. However, tutors were often unsure about their judgements during the course of the teaching practice. It was quite common for a tutor

to say "If only I had realised this was happening I would have acted differently". They were frustrated by the lack of time overall and by the comparative infrequency of their visits. It was as if each teaching practice represented an unknown territory and each time a tutor faced a supervision situation the process of interpreting that situation had to begin again.

With time the tutors began to be more confident about the judgements which they were making about the classroom situations and consequently about their supervision role. As they gave accounts of these actions, and justifications for them, many of the accounts referred directly or indirectly to the relationship between the teacher and the student teacher. In those co-operative situations the teacher/student teacher relationship was significant in the perceptions of the tutors. This judgement was supported by the views of the teachers and student teachers.

As this was pursued in the discussion, incidents in the individual tutor's accounts were compared with those in the accounts of other tutors and again with reports from the teachers and student teachers. Categories emerged from these accounts against which further accounts were matched. As a result certain types of teacher/student teacher interaction were hypothesised. To put this another way, the characteristics of the classroom context were summarised in the relationship which was developed between the student teachers and their co-operating teachers. Three types were

identified against which less distinctive or less typical teacher/student teacher relationships could be compared.

Teacher/pupil. In this case the student teacher, for a variety of reasons, was ill prepared, insecure or uncertain about how to proceed. S/he was often lacking in self confidence; without the necessary previous experience; faced with a complex classroom structure. Whatever the case, the student teacher did not feel competent to deal with the class routine as it was or to have a specific viable alternative of her/his own. Under these circumstances a successful outcome was likely to be effected by the teacher devising a programme whereby the student teacher might be successfully initiated step by step. The teacher was likely, either to set aims for the student or to help her/him to do it for her/himself. The teacher was also likely to play a dominant role in lesson planning, and to use strategies, initially, to make matters easier for the student (e.g. helping to prepare the material, taking out a group of children).

Collaborators. In this example the pair were likely to get on very well indeed and to be like one another in a number of ways, especially in attitude and beliefs and often in age. There was a notably strong sense of teacher commitment to the student teacher as well as to the class. The student teacher took over many of the aims and much of the organisation of the teacher, apparently because s/he believed them to be appropriate. Within this framework the student teacher was likely to have lively, inventive ideas

of her/his own. There was regular discussion and especially evaluation of the results of each session and of the children's progress. There were very likely to be lively discussions of alternative approaches probably leading to the conclusion that their way (i.e. the one of the teacher and student teacher) was best. There was likely to be a lot of team teaching involving a perfectly natural, friction-free change of roles between the teacher and the student. The way in which the teaching sessions of the teacher and the student merged into each other was noticeable.

Protagonists. In this instance, for a variety of reasons, the student teacher chose not to take over the teacher's classroom routine. This might have been that s/he did not know how to (which could have produced a teacher/pupil situation) or that s/he saw it as too complex or that s/he was aware that it was an inappropriate style for her/him. Here co-operation was effected with the realisation on the part of the teacher, that her/his aims could be achieved in different ways. Perhaps this type of situation more than the others required great tolerance and support on the part of the teacher who might under these circumstances be required to give the student considerable latitude to make mistakes as well as offering last-minute and on-the-spot support. Team teaching might take place but often as a support to make the situation an easier one in which the student teacher could innovate. Discussion was often about strengths and weaknesses of different approaches and could reflect real differences of opinion. It was possible for

this to be highly productive in terms of helping the teacher to re-think ideas.

Discussing the nature and use of the emergent typology. The description of the emergent types above give an order to the situation which was not apparent in the course of the tutor discussion. They represent the perceptions which the tutors were building up, during the practice, about the individual student teachers, the teacher/student teacher pairs, and the classrooms in which they worked. It is these perceptions which guided the actions of the tutors in their supervision behaviour.

In supervision, as in any other form of teaching, it would appear that tutors draw on a personal set of rules and procedures which have worked in other situations to help make sense of this situation and direct their action. Continually during this study they justified their actions by describing specific situations in context.

The typology itself developed out of the tutor discussion groups, supported by comments from teachers and student teachers. It was intended to be a summary description of the commonsense judgements that tutors make of the teaching practice situation in a particular class. In the way described above it referred to the significant elements (e.g. classroom organisation etc.) but included a consideration of their interaction with one another and their comparative importance in any one situation. It is important to note that the three types described were not

claimed to be the true and only types of classroom situations but rather perceptions which made sense to supervising tutors as they exchanged views about the classroom situations they were facing. What were being referred to were the repetitive ways in which tutors organised their knowledge of teacher/student relationships. The idea of types appears to have aspects in common with the "collective student" which (Bromme 1989) teachers built up in order to decide how and when they should act in the course of a lesson. The idea also reflects the "patterns" outlined by Neimayer and Moon (1987) in another recent study of supervision practice.

This being the case, the question which must be asked in any consideration of validation is whether the typology is one which tutors actually use. The typology could be described as a second order construct based on the first order constructs of the participating individuals (Schutz, 1971). The typology was developed in an attempt to summarise and make sense of the accounts of the participants. The developing ideas were regularly fed back to the participants for their comment and dis/agreement. In this way it could be claimed that the participants themselves negotiated the second order constructs.

If the understanding of the teacher/student teacher relationship within a particular context was what guided the action of the tutor, and if the typology represented types of teacher/student relationships against which tutors

could match the ones with which they were dealing, then the typology could be instrumental in making supervision more effective. The potential contribution of the typology is set out more precisely below.

1. It could offer a guide to tutors looking for information about student teachers and classrooms in order to make more effective decisions. The type would offer to the tutor a hypothetical teacher/student teacher relationship against which the actual relationship could be matched and in this way offer some cues to influence observation. If the analysis above is valid, this relationship would be characteristic of the competence of the student and would illustrate the situation in which the student was placed.

2. By recognising these aspects of the situation the tutor would have information upon which to make decisions about practice. This is not to imply that the tutor would have a set of rules to follow but rather a blueprint which could be filled out as more information became available. According to Schon (1983), professional behaviour is built on action. It is action which is difficult for the tutor to make because of the paucity of information gleaned from infrequent visits. A blueprint would be the start of the information-gathering process, and so help the tutor define a role for her/himself in the new situation.

3. The typology offers the tutor the opportunity to hypothesise about the relevance of certain aspects of

supervision theory and so may encourage a reflective attitude on the part of the tutors involved.

Potential dangers in the use of such a typology.

There are a number of dangers inherent in an approach of this kind. The argument being presented, in an extreme form, is that without the typology, tutors would continue to "re-invent the wheel" each time they begin to supervise a student. The suggestion being put forward is that the typology could help them to stop wasting this valuable time and hence become more efficient and effective tutors. However, it could be claimed that a typology would artificially impose on a situation in a non-helpful way. It could be that the tutors' process of "groping in the dark" is really a constructive phase of producing individually tailored supervisory approaches.

If the typology were to be used, it would be necessary to be sure of two things,

- that the typology is characteristic of the way in which tutors actually work and does reflect their judgements of the teaching practice i.e. that it represents a true example of the repetitive ways in which tutors organise their knowledge about students on teaching practice
- that the use of the typology would guide supervisory behaviour in a way which would enhance teacher/tutor co-operation and contribute towards the professional development of the student.

3.3 The third study

The aims of the study

The first aim of the research i.e. to develop a co-operative framework within which teachers, student teachers

and tutors could work co-operatively was explored in the first study and evaluated in the second study. Co-operation was enhanced by the ethos generated in the two studies. Two guides to enhance the co-operation were evaluated and although the qualitative nature of the evaluation could not establish causal links, there was enough evidence to conclude that under those circumstances the guides could contribute to a co-operative atmosphere.

The second aim of the research i.e. to investigate the processes of supervision, was explored in the second study. The outcomes of that study discussed above indicated that tutors drew on professional knowledge in making judgements about student teachers in school. The nature of the situation was an extremely important aspect of that knowledge along with the personal qualities of the student teacher and teacher. In the co-operative atmosphere developed in that study the nature of the situation was summarised in the nature of the relationship between the teacher and the student teacher. Three types emerged against which other teacher/student teacher relationships could be judged.

The third stated aim was to build on the information about supervision practice in a co-operative situation to develop ways of helping tutors to enhance their supervision practice by reflection and the application of theory if and when appropriate.

It has been suggested above that, with the constraints of time under which tutors work, the typology may offer a framework to encourage close observation, decision making about practice and reflection on that practice.

It was this possibility which formed the basis of the third study. If the typology was to be used in the way suggested its use would need to be validated. In order to do this the following issues needed to be addressed:

- That the structure and processes of the professional knowledge of tutors was consistent with the typology
- Since relationships are not static, that the typology reflected the development of the student/teacher relationship over the teaching practice period
- That the typology would show potential for aiding diagnosis of student need, indicating possible supervision strategies and encouraging reflection.

The conclusions which were drawn from the second study needed further verification if they were to be generalisable in the way described by Brown et al. (1988) when they write:

This implies a search for generalisations about the nature of teachers' professional craft knowledge and how they make use of it. (p.4)

The likelihood that tutors' professional knowledge has characteristics in common with that of other teachers has already been discussed in chapter 2, and the same techniques to ensure the generalisability of the data were necessary:

Commonalties among the data from different cases were sought to create a theoretical framework" (p.4)

In order to achieve this and then to apply the findings to

the enhancement of supervision practice, the third study was set up with the the following aims:

- (1) To analyse and describe some of the component parts of the professional knowledge of tutors about supervision in the light of the information gained from the second study
- (2) To chart the development of teacher/student relationships during the course of the teaching practice
- (3) To examine the generalisability of the typology and so justify its adoption as a heuristic device to aid supervision practice
- (4) To explore the potential of the typology as a means to enhance reflective practice.

Setting up the study

In order to achieve a greater degree of generalisability it was necessary to involve a greater number of tutors, especially ones who had not previously participated, and their corresponding teachers and student teachers. The tutor sample size was increased to 14 and the tutors were chosen carefully to represent a range of experience and expertise in different curriculum areas.

The experience of the tutors is set out in a table in Appendix 5.

The curriculum/education differentiation was quite an important one at that time. The organisation of the college was such that Curriculum tutors other than Language tutors were associated with that curriculum area, whereas Language/Education tutors were either professional tutors or involved in theoretical education courses. Some of the tutors were involved with student teachers on serial practice as well as block teaching practice. The significance of the differentiation was important in that

the professional studies tutors were used to working as a team and so might be expected to share certain points of view. It was important to include tutors from the other curriculum areas who might be expected to approach supervision differently.

All the tutors who were invited to take part did so despite warnings about the level of commitment of time which would be expected. The teachers and student teachers were those who had been allocated to the sample of tutors according to normal college procedures, which gave a sample of 29 students with their 29 co-operating teachers in 22 schools. The sample of student teachers, teachers and schools reflected the typical range within the college.

The student teachers were introduced to the project as a group and invited to participate. It was made quite clear to them that there was no expectation that they would necessarily agree to participate. Subsequently, four of the student teachers came individually to discuss the project with the investigator before they agreed to participate.

In the term prior to the project starting, all the headteachers were approached and nearly all the classteachers were visited. A very small number of visits took place in the teaching practice term itself prior to the start of the practice. All the schools approached agreed to participate. The nature of the project was explained to the teachers, especially the importance of the teacher/student teacher/tutor co-operation.

Copies of the guidelines and the skill sheet were given to all the participants with the request that they should be read and then used as individuals felt their use to be appropriate. They were invited to discuss them with the investigator at any time, if they wished.

As in the second study, it was planned that the tutors would meet for group discussion on a regular basis. In order to enhance the interaction by limiting the group numbers, the tutors split themselves into two groups according to their most convenient meeting time. The importance of committing themselves to regular meetings and always with the same group, was made clear. It was seen to be important that the groups developed a sense of identity and mutual trust, in order that the subsequent discussion would be full and frank. Each group was introduced to the skill sheet and guidelines. They were also told briefly about the typology and given a printed sheet setting out the characteristics. It was explained that these would be used if their use seemed to be appropriate. All the tutors were asked to make their supervision notes available and they were also asked to fill in sheets outlining aspects of their school visits. (Details of the sheets outlining aspects of the typology are available in Appendix 6 and questions which directed the tutor discussion groups are available in Appendix 7a).

Because of the increase in numbers of participants and schools it was not possible to visit each school every

week. Instead, the schools were visited on a fortnightly basis throughout the practice. This meant that each school was visited three times and in effect this divided the practice into three sections. A timetable for each section of the practice was sent to the schools in advance so that the teachers and student teachers could have the greatest chance of making themselves available for consultation. The visits were arranged, as far as possible, to meet the requirements of the school timetable. As often as possible the investigator met student teachers and teachers (and headteachers, if required) on each visit, sometimes together and sometimes separately. It was decided not to record these discussions because it was judged that the use of recording equipment would interfere with the flow of the discussion. However, extensive notes were made immediately after each visit. Questions were prepared for each school visit on the basis of information from the previous visit and from the tutor discussion groups. Information about the questions prepared for the school visits is available in Appendix 7b.

Towards the end of the practice, four teacher discussion groups were held at different locations. This was organised in such a way as to accommodate travelling arrangements of individual teachers and to form groups which were small enough to encourage productive discussion for all the participants. These discussions were structured by a series of questions (see appendix 7c) but free exchange of opinions was permitted and encouraged. The teachers

certainly took advantage of this opportunity to express themselves in a way which they reported to be very satisfying.

Four similar groups were held with the student teachers at the end of the teaching practice. (see Appendix 7d). All the eight discussions were recorded with the permission of the participants.

For a programme of the research see Appendix 8.

Methodology

As in the second study the intention was to gain detailed information about the professional practice of the tutors from their own accounts supported by information from the teachers and students. In the recorded tutor discussion groups tutors gave accounts of their practice by describing their actions, justifying their actions and sharing their accounts with each other. Because the discussion groups ran alongside the practice they were talking about recent and forthcoming actions. The groups were small and permanent so that a degree of trust was generated which made the discussion easy and rich in content. At the same time the information was forthcoming from the student teachers and teachers via the investigator and from their teaching notes and diaries. It was possible to introduce this further data into the discussion in a sensitive way with proper regard to aspects of confidentiality. As well as the notes which the tutors left with the student teachers, some of them

filled in the outline sheets giving further details of their school visits (see Appendix 7a). All of this contributed further to the discussion in the groups and provided a record for analysis and checking. All of this information provided the stories and accounts which stimulated the recall of the tutors and enabled them to re-think about their strategies and to reflect upon them. Details of the questions which guided the discussion groups and the interviews is available in Appendix 7a.

Despite the similarities there were some notable differences between this study and the second. These went beyond the difference in the size of the sample. The study was intended to build on the work of the previous study so that the information gained during that study formed the basis for the data collection this time.

The study was quite naturally divided into 3 stages by the nature of the investigator's visits to the schools. This was intended to offer the opportunity to chart progression through the practice. At each "stage" the information was summarised and compared and contrasted against that of the previous stage. At the same time the discussion and the interviewing reflected the issues which had been raised by the results from the second study.

It was important in doing this that the perceptions of the participants should not be directly influenced by the views of the investigator derived from that study so that there was no pressure on the participants to define their

experience in a particular way. Rather there was a process of comparing and contrasting interpretations. To put this into practical terms, the investigator would come to meetings with a list of prospective questions but the interpretation of these and the way they developed were agreed by the participants who jointly had control of the agenda.

At each of the three stages of the practice a summary sheet was prepared and completed (see Appendix 7e). This took a different form at each stage as appropriate. Sometimes when the information was factual it was dealt with explicitly in the meetings. At other times it was implicit in the discussion and filled in by the investigator on the basis of the transcripts and other information.

Very serious attempts were made to check data from the different sources and in order to do this questions were prepared for the schools, in the light of the tutor discussion before the visits were made. In the same way information from the schools was checked in the tutor groups. A record was kept of all the data either on tape or in a written form. Transcripts were prepared of all the tape recorded discussion. It was considered to be important to obtain data from a variety of sources in order that the accounts could be checked against each other. With this in mind information was gathered from the tutors in a number of ways. There were the transcripts from the discussion but the tutors also made available their notes for the students and filled in forms related specifically to the information

about practice which was being sought.

All tutors had received copies of the information about the typology but there was no pressure on the tutors to use it, although it sometimes formed part of the group discussion. All the participants received copies of the guidelines and the skill sheet and again there was no pressure to use them but sometimes comment on them was specifically invited by the investigator. The skill sheet was used to promote discussion between teacher and investigator in nearly all of the classrooms.

At the end of the project all the data was analysed and collated according to the categories which were under consideration i.e. professional knowledge about supervision; change over the practice; aspects of co-operation between participants; use of the typology. When any information was identified which appeared to inform these areas then that information was highlighted. The next step was to prepare the material to write up into case-studies of each trio. This was achieved by organising all the information from different sources about any one trio onto one single very large sheet of paper. For the purposes of comparability the case-studies were prepared to a set plan which addressed the issues under consideration (see Appendix 9).

In preparing the analysis, assumptions were made only if there was evidence from a range of sources. For example, if information from one of the discussion groups was supported

by information from one of the summary sheets, the tutor information sheets as well as from the reports of the teacher, then it was likely that it would be taken seriously. It is most important to remember here that many of the issues had already been clarified in the tutor discussion groups so that the number of times a particular point was made was not necessarily considered to be a useful guide. In the following chapters which explicate the analysis it was considered to be in the interests of the reader not to refer to every piece of information which supports a particular point of view. However, the reader may refer to the case-studies which outline the data in more detail.

Significantly this part of the research involved Glaser et al.'s (1967) fourth stage of analysis, i.e. writing theory and conveying its credibility. The credibility of the analysis generated during the second study was being put to the test to validate it and extend its applicability.

3.4 Conclusions

The analysis in the following chapters deal in turn with the different aims of the third study:

- Chapter 5 outlines a framework setting the organisation of tutors' professional knowledge of supervision
- Chapter 6 considers the developing patterns of co-operation over the period of the teaching practice
- Chapter 7 describes and classifies the teacher/student teacher relationships
- Chapter 8 considers how the typology may be used to aid supervision.

In the final chapter some more general conclusions are drawn about the outcomes of the research.

In the discussion of the data, in these chapters, the anonymity of the participants is protected by using a code. This is explained at the introduction to the case-studies in appendix 11.

CHAPTER 4

SUPERVISION IN PRACTICE

4.0 Introduction

4.1 Accessing tutors' professional knowledge about supervision

4.2 Tutors' procedures in the classroom

Observing the student teacher

The triad

4.3 Influences to which tutors respond in classrooms

Characteristics of student teachers

Competence

Personality

Lack of confidence

Ability and willingness to be forthcoming

Ability to be self-critical

Provoking negative responses

Beliefs

Judgements about schools and classrooms

Aspects of the class likely to have implications
for student teachers

Impact of perceptions on tutors' behaviour

4.4 The component parts of a tutor's judgements about teaching as related to supervision behaviour

The component parts

Diagram to show the component parts of a tutor's
judgements about teaching

What judgements do tutors make ?

Efficacy

Personal focus

How do tutors make judgements ?

Range

Degree of analysis

Confidence

Speed

4.5 Discussion of the framework

The structure of supervising tutors' thinking

Management or control or efficacy

Context

Tutors setting limits

4.6 Implications

Explaining the behaviour of supervising tutors

Explaining tutors attitudes to theoretical
approaches to supervision

Helping tutors to reflect on their own
behaviour in classrooms

4.7 Summary and looking towards the next stage of the analysis

4.0 Introduction

The notion that supervision is as much a professional skill as is classroom teaching was reinforced by the behaviour of the tutors during the second study and for this reason a much closer investigation of the nature of that professional skill was an important element of the third study. This chapter gives an account of the findings of that investigation.

The first section deals with the difficulties of accessing tutors' professional knowledge.

The second section examines tutors' procedures in the classroom.

The third section looks at the influences to which tutors respond in classrooms.

The fourth section outlines the component parts of tutors' judgements about teaching related to supervision.

The fifth section relates these findings to other research on supervision and teaching.

The sixth section considers the implications of this discussion for the study as a whole.

4.1 Accessing tutors' professional knowledge about supervision

In an attempt to access this knowledge tutors were asked to discuss four types of question:

- In general terms, what are you looking for when you supervise student teachers on teaching practice ?
- What are you looking for when you go into school to

see a particular student teacher in a particular classroom ?

- What supervision procedures do you normally adopt in classrooms ?
- What actually happened when you went into a particular classroom on a particular occasion?

The first two questions asked for general beliefs and feelings about supervision and the second two quite specific thoughts about tutors' actions. It was apparent that tutors found the second two much easier to deal with than the first two. The intensity of the discussion suggested that this was not because they did not have general beliefs about supervision but that they found it difficult to express them out of context - a problem that is apparent in other studies of supervision (e.g. Neimayer and Moon, 1987).

In attempting to answer the questions, they talked about such matters as a good degree of communication, a concentration on the level of the children's work in the classroom, a degree of reflectivity in the student teachers' attitudes to teaching. All of these aspects of teaching will be familiar to anyone who has been associated with supervision.

Two further outcomes to this discussion were quite significant. The first was the nature of the exploration process which tutors needed to go through in order to decide how they should behave and the second was the apparent image of an effective teacher from which they appeared to be working in order to make their judgements

about student teachers (see also Rust, 1988). In trying to explicate their ideas about good teaching tutors made many assumptions, ones which they often assumed other tutors also took for granted. The discussion in this chapter draws primarily on the answers to the second two questions and some generalisations made from these.

4.2 Tutors' procedures in the classroom

Observing the student

There was a degree of consensus among tutors about some aspects of their behaviour in the classrooms. Most of them referred to reading the file, watching and weighing things up. This was often associated with attempts to be inconspicuous and not interfere. The following extracts give a flavour of this.

Tutor 12 "I usually go to the children first, partly because I think the children find it less intimidating because you can gauge the extent to which they have understood what the student has been talking about."

Tutor 10 "Normally I ask for the file first and sit back and pretend I am reading that."

Tutor 9 "I, like tutor 10, use subterfuge, hiding in the file to make myself less conspicuous I suppose. I try to get in a corner somewhere."

Tutor 7 "So, basically, its been a question of merging in with the class and seeing what's going on."

However, tutors did not spend all their time sitting watching (e.g. see tutor 12 above), they moved around the classroom talking to the children and even at times contributing to the teaching. This had to be done sensitively and according to what was happening in the classroom at any one time.

Tutor 3 "It depends on the situation. Sometimes like the school I was in this morning I read the file very closely and it gave me a lot and the student came to talk and she didn't have to explain things....sometimes I don't use the file at all because the classroom is so busy,so many things to see and be involved in, so I'm not consistent."

Tutor 8 "Yes I think if you happen to go in on a discussion or at story time you are likely to put yourself in a corner and not interrupt but if you go in at a time when the children are all working you are more inclined to walk around and comment."

Tutor 14 "Yes I agree with that. I walk in and if the children are working I go round and talk to the children but at the same time taking some measure of what is going on around me. I don't go directly to the student usually apart from saying hello, how are you."

Tutor 9 "This was the sort of situation where I felt so welcome I was able to join in as well."

but: "I don't think it's the sort of situation where a lot of adults can sort of chip in their oar."

and: "I was actually trying to help the student organise a very disorganised session and had actually chipped in and was directing children which, of course, I am tempted to do."

The interesting point at this stage was to review the student teacher and teacher perspectives on the tutor behaviour. Almost without exception those teachers and student teachers who commented on tutor behaviour approved of tutors who joined in. e.g.

LT " I've found the tutor very good...and has worked with the children in class, she's not just sat and watched...she's tried to be involved."

IT (responding to above)

"That's important I think with the children"

At the same time they saw the tutors' behaviour as product

of their own choice (i.e. the choice of the tutors themselves) whereas the tutors saw themselves as confined by what was going on in the classroom. e.g.

SC1(in answer to what makes an approachable tutor)

"....and the fact that they can go into a classroom and be able to muck in with the lesson instead of just sit there and watch. Like the one I had this time just sat and watched and completely put me off."

This was an account of the classroom about which that same tutor had said she was always "trapped at the back of the classroom", when she preferred to join in and usually did.

The triad

The second main category of tutor behaviour was concerned with the relationships within the triad (i.e. teacher, student and tutor), and the first step was making contact with the teacher. Tutor 13 took for granted the need to consult the teacher.

Tutor 13 "Very similar really, I do my best to get there and have a chat (i.e. with the student) before they start, about how they are going on and then I ask if I can take the file and go and sit at the back because normally they are speaking to the whole class to start off with and I just read one or two of their evaluations and I think... comment on the evaluations...When S took a group and the rest were carrying on working I wandered round and chatted to the others to try and get the feel of whether they did understand and get the feel of what it was all about and if I feel I can't learn anything from that wandering about, I pop out and go and have a chat with the teacher or headteacher."

Tutor 2 expressed a similar attitude in a less formal situation.

Tutor 2 "I tend to sit with the children and the file. I feel safer that way. I sit with the children and really try and weigh it up and chat with the children or the student or the teacher whichever is appropriate. This is easier because all the staff are in the room (i.e. in the

nursery).

Tutors were different in the extent to which they sought out the teacher. Most of them tried to make some contact but teachers expressed disappointment on a number of occasions when they had not had an opportunity to speak to the tutor (especially school 1). For some tutors who had not been in the habit of seeking out the teachers the nature of the project had an influence.

Tutor 7 "Well, I have never had a class teacher who has spoken to me so much in all the practices I have been out to. I thought probably this was the effect of your system on class teachers."

Tutors were also different in the type of interaction which they had with student teachers and teachers. Tutor 5 saw his role as informing student and teacher.

Tutor 5 "I took her on one side after the lesson and explained how important it was to give some sort of introduction....so then I explained to ET what I had seen and what I thought ought to be done with the girl."

Other tutors placed importance on good social relationships.

Tutor 13 "I get onto something more specific like "how are you doing?" "had a good weekend?".....you have to get right with them socially in a way."

Other tutors showed their awareness of the sensitivity of triad relationships and tried hard to sustain an interactional approach which included all the participants together. Some examples illustrate this:

Tutor 4 "Oh we talk, the three of us. I tend to see JT in JS's view and I don't like to be so obviously talking to JT in JS's presence because I think it must be a horrible thing to think "I wonder what they are saying.""

Tutor 12 "Its a bit of a drawback sometimes because the student's teaching and the classteacher is hovering in the background and you're hovering round as well - the tendency is for the two (i.e. teacher and tutor) to get together."

Tutor 11 "In a more traditional type of classroom you often tend to get into one-to-one situations, whereas in an open plan area it is far easier to drift into three."

In fact, most of the tutors recognised the difficulty of triad relationships but showed a different attitudes towards these difficulties. On the one hand tutors saw the difficulties as a challenge to their professional skill and worked hard to develop good relationships, on the other hand tutors saw teachers as a rather annoying encumbrance who were likely to make their task more difficult.

4.3 Influences to which tutors respond in classrooms

Tutors' understanding of classrooms was very situation specific and it became clear that the only way to access their understanding was by examining their descriptions of what happened on particular occasions. What became apparent from the transcripts were the qualifications which the tutors applied before they were prepared to make judgements. What they actually noticed in the classrooms, what they saw to be significant and what they chose to talk about depended upon what they had come to think about that particular student teacher and the classroom in which that student teacher was placed.

Characteristics of student teachers

Tutor 14 summarised, in a typically forthright way, the

argument that supervision must be responsive, when she said:

Tutor 14: "You couldn't be anything other than be different with different students or the whole thing would be ridiculous, wouldn't it?"

Before beginning an analysis of tutors perceptions of students teachers it is essential to make one point very clear. For a majority of the tutors involved it would be wrong to think that they were applying labels to student teachers.

Like Hargreaves' (1975) teachers developing perceptions about their pupils, the pictures that most tutors built up about supervisees was very complex despite the limited amount of time which they were able to spend with them. They used their past experience of these students if they already knew them and of other students if they did not. They struggled to find the right words to express what they were trying to say and often their judgements were couched in terms which indicated the process of making a hypothesis which could be proved totally wrong. If tutors were supervising more than one student they often introduced their initial judgements by describing one student against another.

Tutor 1 "I think AS1 is assertive in a way that AS2 isn't"

and "So AS1 who is very assertive, knows what she is doing, has developed a clear-cut philosophy across the curriculum of how she wants to teach, which is nice to see and she's doing her utmost to put that into practice. AS2 is totally different- totally- AS2 basically requires propping up at every moment and she wants me to

provide the survival kit."

Tutor 14 "...what I think I am looking at now with XS2 which is different from WS is his ability to cope with the situation he is confronted with rather than specifically how well he is teaching this child, this child or this child...."

This description-by-comparison is an important aspect of the way tutors build up a picture of the student teachers they are supervising.

Competence. Perhaps one of the most important perceptions for both tutors and students was the tutor's perception of the competence of the student. However carefully the tutors expressed themselves, this judgement of competence or likely competence was being formed quite early on. It was often expressed simply by reference being made to a "strong" student (e.g. WS, US1) or a "weak" student (e.g. AS2) or a "very weak" student (e.g. KS). Sometimes these judgements were made before the practice started (AS2, LS) but if the tutors had few pre-conceptions about the student teacher still they began to formulate an approximate judgement of competence in that situation quite early on. This often expressed itself in the form of "there are no worries" or "everything is all right" (Tutor 10 about MS and PS, tutor 6 about FS and OS).

Personality. Tutors also described and responded to students in what may be loosely termed as personality factors, e.g.

Tutor 12 "....the student S2 is quite a strong minded student....the second student is more of a viable character, more gentle, less inventive, less strong personality."

and "S is a bit too maternal....too set in her waysshe would make a greater impression if she was a little more charismatic with the children....she needs a little more buzz, fizz - that's what's lacking."

and a tutor referring to teacher and student teacher to show an important aspect of personality said:

Tutor 10 "They seem two very different sorts of personality, S is quiet and methodical and gets on with the job and T is vivacious."

Lack of confidence. A very important aspect of student teacher personality for tutors was lack of confidence and it had implications for the tutor's behaviour. If the student was construed as lacking in confidence it nearly always produced an attitude of confidence generation on the part of the tutor.

Tutor 7 "I see her greatest problem is that she is totally lacking in confidence....so whatever else is going on I've got to approach it from that every time I see her."

Tutor 2 "I am still keen to try and build S's confidence up because she isn't a confident girl at all....and still try to speak very positively to her."

Tutor 14 "What I feel I look for in S's case is her confidenceI mean although she is aware that she is doing well her confidence is still not 100% I would say, in that situation."

Tutor 13 "I had a chat with T and she said he is down, he is low (after a disruptive session)....I spent a lot of time trying to boost his confidence."

It should be noted that whereas the first two quotations ascribe lack of confidence to personality the last two appear to ascribe it to the situation in which the student teachers are placed.

Ability and willingness to be forthcoming. Another personality characteristic of student teachers which was seen to be significant by tutors was the degree to which they were forthcoming and would talk to the tutor, e.g. Tutor 6 (when asked about how issues for discussion arose between tutors and students)

"I think it depends on the student. I think some of the students will naturally bring up a lotI have one who is very good and will keep me for ages."

Tutor 7 "Yes I would agree with that. I think that S is always bringing points up from things I've never seen....now the other girl never sort of brings things up. She's very worried if somethings gone wrong and she certainly wouldn't tell you."

and again about the "other girl"

"She's frightened. Well she was certainly frightened of me and she was probably frightened of the children as well."

Tutor 10 (about MS)

"When things have not worked like the science he wouldn't have raised it with me. He wouldn't have said to me - that's going wrong or it's not working."

Ability to be self-critical. A further student teacher characteristic discussed in some detail by the tutors was the ability to be self-critical. Some allowed that this skill may be taught but a number talked as if it was a quality of a student teacher's personality. These differences were hard to distinguish because tutors often changed their statements when questioned but the importance of the quality was not disputed, only the way it exhibited itself.

Tutor 9 "....but somebody who is self critical and sensible about what they do will go on, hopefully, trying things as long as they go on teaching."

Tutor 4 "That's the point that (tutor 11) and I are making that those people will go on "doing" but the others won't."

Provoking negative responses. Finally, tutors sometimes recognised personality and behavioural characteristics of their students which produced in them a negative reaction.

Tutor 9 "Its interesting, you feel a trigger, what did you say? exasperated. I've got to be very careful because it arouses some vindictive reactions in me - I want to prod the student to see if anything happens....It doesn't seem to matter what I say to the student, she doesn't react - she simply accepts whatever I say to her and I think if I was extremely rude and hurtful she would sit and accept it. I forbear and its hard work."

Beliefs. Different from student teacher characteristics were student teacher beliefs but a tutor's perceptions of a student's beliefs may have a similarly important impact on what the tutor expects of the student and hence requires of her/him. e.g.

Tutor 11 "What I am really saying is that I think in the case of QS1 if I leaned (and I would have to do it subtly) I think there might be some practice of group work - but what I was really saying there, is that I feel that basically S is not a student who is inclined to believe in the value of groups and I can't honestly see S, if given a free hand by a headteacher two years from now would respond - but if she worked for a headteacher who said we operate in this way she would toe the line."

This attitude was argued long and hard by that group of tutors. Their argument was important for the indication it

gave of the way the supervision behaviour of some tutors may be constrained by their expectations about what could be achieved.

A small minority of tutors were prepared to stereotype student teachers and assign all their successes and failures to one personality characteristic (e.g. tutor 5) but usually tutors tried to build up an elaborate picture of a student teacher's characteristics and motivations and showed a distinct unwillingness to assign students to a category. e.g.

Tutor 14 "I must admit I find that classification "middle-of-the-road" awfully difficult actually because it tends to suggest to me that you look in terms of a student's performance really- um- you know I would say in some ways XS2 has done some things which were equally as good as WS but won't show in the classroom for a variety of reasons."

Judgements about schools and classes

Aspects of the class likely to have implications for students. From the earliest weeks of the practice there was evidence from the transcripts of a search process as tutors began to gather information about the classes in which the student teachers were placed. They picked up aspects of the class which were likely to have implications for the student e.g. lack of discipline:

Tutor 5 (week 1)

"I don't think the class has been properly disciplined in the past. I don't think it has been subjected to systematic routines and therefore I think it is quite a big job for GS to do although I am sure he can do it."

or pressure for outcomes:

Tutor 11 (week 1)

"....a lot of these schools who have should

we say, 99% middle class intake often, I think put a lot of pressure on the students by saying that the students have to stretch these kids whether or not the kids were being stretched before hand. As it was a language lesson I had a damn good look at what had gone on beforehand and I didn't see that much evidence of that! I couldn't say that S was stretching them at all but I certainly couldn't say that anything that preceded S's lesson gave evidence of that."

or pleasant and supportive atmosphere:

Tutor 9 (week 1)

"Anyway as soon as I got in I was enveloped in this lovely warm friendly atmosphere. They were super with me and its quite evident that the class teacher and S had an extremely good relationship. The class teacher is I think, very sensible about S's shortcomings - very, very supportive."

or potentially difficult relationships:

Tutor 9 (week 2)

"But I also picked up very slightly last time a very veiled, I still think it was there, um criticism of the class teacher's way of working from the head teacher and I just wonder whether ...I, I have a horrid feeling that its in several people's interests that the student doesn't do particularly well."

Impact of perceptions on tutor behaviour. The importance of the judgements which were made at that time are illustrated in the words of tutor 9 when she was judging whether she would encourage a student teacher to be innovative:

Tutor 9 "...and really the decision is made at that point, for me, on whether I think the school will take offence, and if I have the least thought that they will I wouldn't encourage the student to be very adventurous."

As the practice developed tutors became more explicit about the situation in the school or in the class and at the same time they became more explicit about the implications for a particular student teacher. There were both positive and negative examples for the students. Some examples on the

negative side are outlined below.

In a well organised class it was not easy for student teachers to have an input which was personal to them:

Tutor 12 (week 3) referring to a specific student

"I think some of the problems for some students is when you've got a competent, highly organised teacher, that it's difficult for them to have an input that's personal, which you could link with the actual student."

If a teacher was outgoing and authoritative and a student teacher was reserved and diffident.

Tutor 2 (week 2)

"She's very authoritative with a very outgoing personality, the teacher of the class, and the student is very lacking in confidence and so she has already discussed that with her last week - she felt she wasn't being assertive enough but in a sense it is very difficult for her to be assertive in that situation when the teacher herself is very dominant and has remained so. I think she stays with her in the classroom most of the time."

At the same time a student teacher may have serious difficulties with certain classes, usually because of the behaviour of the children or the potential behaviour of the children with a different teacher. e.g.

Tutor 10 (week 4)

"I mean if US2 had been with a different class things could have turned out totally differently."

Tutor 13 (week 6) about the same student teacher:

"I mean they've been sharpening their wits against T for the year. The head teacher said she had problems when she went in with the class. T said they were better than last year's class. I wouldn't like to have seen last year's class."

Tutor 14 "I don't know whether it just came about because of S or what - because of the situation he found himself in in that classroom....the

things he possibly could...or wanted to put into practice he couldn't because of the peculiar system."

The same thing is illustrated in more general terms by the comments below:

Tutor 12 "But much depends on the situation at the school, I'm quite sure about that. I mean, don't you get the feeling that some students if they were in one situation they would do very well but would be all at sea in another.

Tutor 10 (responding):

"There is the sort of thing where sometimes in some schools you get the student whose organisational skills aren't very strong but it doesn't matter because the children are so kind to them and so organised in the first place. In a different sort of set-up their own organisation will be shown to be chaotic."

The impact of difficult school situations are shown in case-studies 3 and 29. Case-studies 1 and 2 illustrate the difficulties of conflict within the school and between tutor and school.

Tutors also referred to the positive effects of the school situation, usually this was the case when the school offered a well organised, supportive environment. Even here there could be a quite delicate balance because sometimes the organisation could be a threat by making too many requirements of the student teacher:

Tutor 4 "I had to spend the first two or three weeks saying you'll need to do this, and you must do that and then you must do that and I'll look for this next time. Consequently I think she felt she had had her individuality taken away from her. "

or when, in the eyes of a tutor, the school situation is a block to further student teacher development.

Tutor 3 (week 5)

"I think its a case of the constraints placed

on the student by the school. They have to use a particular language scheme which the teacher says has to be used. I think a lot of the skills and processes contained in the scheme can be done more adequately, much better, through the remainder of the curriculum CS1 is coping with."

Tutors used this information in different ways. At times it was in order to decide about strategies to adopt but at other times it was an excuse for certain things not being able to take place. The illustration below shows both the supportive atmosphere of the school which helped the student teacher very greatly and what the tutor saw to be a "ceiling" on that development.

Tutor 11 (week 3)

"QS1 has won QT's respect because S's own self confidence has grown enormously and she is actually doing some good work and some marvellous display, which has moved her up after a fairly tentative start to the level IN THAT SCHOOL of being a relatively high achiever....but at a deeper level, will not - just like T in the (school)tradition is geared in the basics; is a damn good teacher at that level - will not take on board what they consider to be frills."

This section has outlined some of the influences of the classroom situation felt by the tutors in making decisions about their own behaviour. In deciding on appropriate action they were influenced by the relationship between what the student was like and the classroom situation in which the student teacher was placed. This was characteristic of the tutors' behaviour in the second study but this time more detail was recorded to illustrate the process.

4.4 The component parts of a tutor's judgements about teaching as related to supervision behaviour

The component parts

The account described above shows how tutors reacted to the student teachers they were supervising and the situations in which they were placed. However, it was clear from the tutor discussions that this was not only a reactive process. As suggested at the beginning tutors drew on some ideas of their own about the nature of effective teaching and this conception interacted with their judgements of specific situations. For example, when they found the lack of confidence to be notable, this was because lack of confidence was seen to be a quality which would not contribute to effective teaching. Many of these perceptions were shared by a majority of the tutors and indeed the teachers. It was when there were disagreements that it was possible to identify the underlying assumptions because they were raised in discussion.

Taking into account to a greater or lesser extent all or many of the factors outlined above, tutors had to take action (or choose not to take it) in classrooms. Their behaviour was peculiar to themselves but still there was a degree of agreement. The analysis below was drawn out of the supervision process as it was taking place. The factors suggested were not explicitly stated as such but were based on evidence from the discussion and checked against subsequent reports/accounts. The analysis is presented in

the form of a matrix to try and show the relationship between the parts. One side of the matrix refers to what the tutors deal with and the other to how they deal with it.

Diagram to show the relationship between the component parts of a tutor's judgements about teaching.

		<u>What?</u>	
		(a)Efficacy	(b)Tutor's personal focus
<u>How?</u>	(i)	Range	
	(ii)	Degree of analysis	
	(iii)	Confidence	
	(iv)	Speed	

What do tutors make judgements about ?.

Efficacy. (1) Throughout the transcripts there was evidence of tutors' direct response to things which were happening in the classrooms, e.g.

Tutor 8 "...the student was doing all kinds of things that you were actually itching to tell her about and to offer advice on and I, when I went in, I sort of barged in too early and wanted to say all these things to the student.....I only got through half the things I badly wanted to say."

and "Yes the inadequacies if you like, in that situation stand out - they jump out and hit you as you walk into the room."

When things were going very wrong there was almost without exception an element of lack of control on the part of the student teacher. Often this meant that there was some degree of disorder but even if this was not serious there was still an element of the class "running itself". Discipline and control were mentioned regularly and

consistently throughout the study although it must be stressed that many tutors did not see control as a discrete element. It was for this reason that the word efficacy was used to express this concern. Some examples show this anxiety about efficacy.

Tutor 9 "The children were milling round. She didn't seem to recognise that the children weren't doing what she asked them to do."

Tutor 8 "...the children doing inappropriate things, children ungainfully occupied, no attempt by the student to even recognise, never mind stamp down on things."

Tutor 4 "...the children are being inattentive, fiddling, disinterested, switched off."

These were illustrations of the situation being out of control but there were also many examples in which tutors showed that the control situation had been assessed before other matters were taken into consideration, e.g.

Tutor 4 "I want to see she is getting some decent workmore innovative ways of recording or whatever than just taking the easy way out because actually she is a natural I think. I don't know how she managed so badly on the other practice (ie.with control) because she really is super with the children."

i.e. the emphasis on new ways of writing is only appropriate when it was established that control was not a problem.

¶

Tutor 3, in response to the question about what tutors were looking for in a student teacher or classroom said:

Tutor 3 "I think that its going to vary with the student. S's class control relationship with the children was excellent."

i.e. a tutor can begin to look for other things if the

class control is excellent.

One further example shows how control was not necessarily equated with discipline although that was an important part of it in the minds of most tutors:

Tutor 14 "I'm looking really at his ability to manage the situation....not just control the children - he's always been able to do that, but to actually manage their learning."

Tutor 14 was worried about her student's relationship with the teaching practice situation, i.e. that "it is happening without his really managing it". However, even here her comments show that the aspects of control as discipline were still part of her judgements.

Efficacy in the classroom (or rather lack of it) acted as a most important generator of tutor responses. Not only did it figure in the accounts of all the tutors but seemed to most of them to be a first hurdle. Tutors did not all see efficacy in the same way and many of them related it to all sorts of aspects of good and bad teaching but still if there was lack of overall control in the classroom it became an immediate concern of the tutors. For this reason it merits a place of its own as a crucial aspect of what tutors look for.

Personal focus. Given that the aspect of the student teachers' efficacy did not generate concern, there were other factors which illustrated the knowledge about teaching which tutors used to guide their comments and observations of students. These have been placed under the one heading of personal focus because, despite the fact

that they may only be called into operation by a particular situation still they tended to be tutor specific and they often became apparent in response to more than one student being supervised by a particular tutor. A close scrutiny of the tape transcripts showed certain patterns in the comments of individual tutors.

At its most overt it took the form of a personal teaching skills list, e.g. tutor 9 being aware of the difficulties of making relevant observations, used a list developed from her own knowledge of important aspects of teaching. The list reflected her psychological background.

Five of the tutors in the sample were specifically associated with a curriculum area i.e. three mathematicians, one scientist and one historian. A further four had a part-time commitment to the language curriculum area. There is evidence of the influence of this on supervision behaviour. It showed itself in a number of ways. First, the initial visit to the student teacher of a curriculum specialist tended to be in the area of her/his specialism. Secondly, when giving examples of student teachers' work during discussion tutors would often refer to work in their own specialism. Thirdly, specific advice referring to content or management was offered within their specialism. Finally, to reinforce all this there seemed to be an expectation on the part of teacher and of student teacher that the tutor would show particular interest in her/his curriculum area, e.g.

Tutor 13 (Maths)

"I was just about to say that this Wednesday morning that I missed, S told me "you should have been in this morning" and apparently the teacher had suggested where S could extend the little piece of Maths work, which was something that the teacher and I had discussed together and I discussed with S about catering for the extremes at the top...Most of them tend to think about the bottom end..."

Tutor 6 (Maths):

...he (OT) seemed much more relaxed except about Maths. He keeps that to himself. I think he's not over keen on my seeing what he's doing in Maths."

Apart from curriculum specialism there were other aspects of teaching for which different tutors showed a preference. Tutor 5 did not attend the discussion groups very often but his supervision notes were available and with the exception of one week for one student teacher he always drew attention to the use of the blackboard and various aspects of class teaching (specifically class question and answer sessions, explanations and the use of visual aids to support explanations and the need to bring the class together to make these explanations (see case-studies 7 and 9). This was usually to the exclusion of other aspects of teaching. The impression that he gave emphasis to class teaching was reinforced by his comments in private conversation and comments from his students. For example, in answer to a query from one student teacher in a student discussion group about whether there was consensus among tutors about what they look for classrooms, ES said :

ES

"I wonder that actually because this year I got so much about visual aids, visual aids, visual aids - I've had that rammed down my throat to last me a lifetime I think, whereas I didn't get that last year - so I'm wondering if its that its a different age group or whether

its just the tutor."

One of the characteristics of tutor 4 was an emphasis on group work (one which she shared with other tutors). She was aware of this and mentioned it on a number of occasions. e.g.

Tutor 4 "Yes I think I did, subconsciously, with JS. It was working all right... I tried to push her towards working on a couple of occasions ...we discussed it and she had another go."

Tutor 13 referred to "match" as one of the things he looked for in classrooms.

Tutor 13 "I expect in the third year teaching practice that they will be looking very early on to provide material at different levels for the different ability levels."

His descriptions of what he actually did in classrooms reinforced this statement. On four different occasions he referred to moving round the classroom to check that the work was suitable for the children by asking them questions. When there was concern about US2's control, this tutor checked with the teacher on several occasions to see whether the work which US2 was introducing was "matched to the children".

A final illustrative example refers to the development of areas of interest in the classroom and was mentioned frequently by two Early Years of Schooling (E.Y.S.) tutors often in conjunction with a reference to first hand experience and the inadvisability of using any sort of commercial scheme of work (see case studies 3/28 and 4).

To outline a number of personal foci about teaching did not

do justice to the way tutors expressed themselves. It was more complex than this in that tutors also applied their interest in different ways. For example a tutor whose first interest was the teaching of Science would be concerned that a student teacher should deal with this subject area in a competent way. However, it could also lead to an expectation that the importance of Science in the curriculum should be recognised and that examples of poor practice should be criticised. This applied to other personal interests of the tutors. Those E.Y.S. tutors who had a very child centred approach expected student teachers to recognise what they considered to be every poor practice in many schools. It was typical of personal foci that they could refer not only to the practice of skills but also to the development of attitudes and expectations.

A most important aspect of the attitudinal approach was the student capacity to "grow" i.e. to not be easily satisfied but to look beyond the situation to what might be possible.

How do tutors make judgements ?.

As outlined in the diagram, a truer picture of tutors' knowledge of teaching was gained by considering the ways in which what they looked for might be modified by how they looked for it. The four components which best describe this modification are (i) range (ii) degree of analysis (iii) confidence (iv) speed.

Range. Range referred to the scope or extent of what the tutor looked for in the classroom, whether applied to

aspects of control or aspects of an individual tutor's personal focus. When tutors approached a classroom it has been suggested that they were influenced by ill-defined images of what they saw to be good teaching. For different tutors the images could be described as wide or narrow in their scope. This is best illustrated by giving two contrasting examples.

Tutor 4 was described as giving an emphasis to group work but this was only one aspect of many to which she gave her attention in different classroom settings. Perhaps a better way of putting that would be to say that she incorporated the group work emphasis into a more general picture of classroom life. Similarly, in approaching the issue of control she defined it very widely to include many aspects of classroom behaviour of students and children. This was apparent in all the the tutor discussion and in the notes which she gave to the students (see Appendix 10 a).

The behaviour and approach of tutor 5 was in marked contrast to this. His emphasis was on formal class teaching followed by individual written work, and an analysis of his comments and notes to students suggest that these were very narrowly defined. Similarly control was defined only by the extent to which the student teacher could gain the attention of the children in a class teaching situation (see Appendix 10b).

Tutor 2 was another good example of a tutor who was able to extend her potential for helping her student teachers by

the extent of her range. Compared, for example with tutor 5, she saw control in a much more complex way which involved a range of actions and behaviours.

Tutor 2: "...she (T) felt she(S) wasn't being assertive enough....I was worried a little bit coming away because the teacher having discussed this assertiveness with her and I then discussed it too ...that really maybe she is quietly assertive in her own way ...a way that I couldn't see when I was there this morning. She (T) seemed to be in telling the children what not to do VERY ofteninstead of feeling that perhaps she should assert herself by going and involving herself with the children."

In considering behaviour problems and control this tutor saw many possibilities for action because control was not defined just in terms of assertiveness but also in terms of providing the right environment. The importance of range in this instance must be that it enabled the tutor to widen possibilities for remedial action.

These examples illustrate two extremes and other tutors could be placed at different points along the continuum joining those extremes (see Appendix 10 c).

This aspect of range also differentiated between specialist curriculum tutors, some of whom were bound by their specialism (e.g. tutor 10) and others much less so (e.g. tutor 13). Tutor 10 (a scientist) saw significantly more science taught than other areas of the curriculum and he talked with considerable confidence about the teaching of science, with a rather narrow perception of other aspects of classroom life. Tutor 13, on the other hand, was very careful indeed to see each student teachers teaching all areas of the curriculum and it would be quite difficult

from the transcripts or from the students' notes to tell that he was a mathematician.

Degree of analysis. Degree of analysis refers to the sort of accounts which tutors gave about what was happening in classrooms. Throughout the transcripts there was evidence of tutors' direct responses to these happenings. It was this sort of data which showed most clearly the spontaneity of their responses to specific situations. e.g.

Tutor 8 "...the student was doing all kinds of things that you were actually itching to tell her about and to offer advice on and I, when I went in, I sort of barged in too early and wanted to say all these things to the student.....I only got through half the things I badly wanted to say."

Responses from tutors were very often elicited when things were going wrong:

Tutor 8 "Yes the inadequacies if you like, in that situation stand out.....they jump out and hit you as you walk in the room."

Investigator
"Can you say what they are? summarise some some of the things that stand out?"

Tutor 8 "Yes, children doing inappropriate things, children ungainfully occupied...well they are so obvious."

It was noticeable with this tutor that on all the occasions when she was invited to be specific about the problems of this student teacher she quite quickly appealed to the "obvious" nature of the problems. Tutor 9 on the other hand was more specific:

Tutor 9 "...but what I saw happening in the classroom for the morning was the most depressing aspect of it all. It was just terrible. It is a first and second year Junior class, half primary 1 as they

are called - Junior 1 I suppose - were doing Maths and Junior 2 were doing Language and Language consisted of the most foul book I have ever seen. They didn't know what they were doing - the quality of the work was just terrible. The quality of the work in the Maths thing which S had arranged for them was some sort of number pattern work - that was dreadful. It entailed drawing lines as arcs on a circle to build up a pattern like curved stitching type of thing - but they didn't take any care as to whether they actually lined up their rulers properly - they wobbled their lines, they smudged them, they made such a total mess that most of them couldn't actually see a pattern by the time they had finished. And what distressed me was that S seemed only able to sit on top of it. I never heard her say to any child any remark at all which implied that there was any other way to do it....There were no targets for the children to work towards. No signals at all how they might work, and therefore the whole thing is scrappy."

In contrast with the account by tutor 8, this one is a much more specific description of things that were wrong in that classroom. Granted that some of the information was expressed in an emotive way but still there was evidence with which to agree or disagree.

If the first stage (described in the first illustration) is an intuitive feeling of all the things that are wrong and the second is a more detailed description of specific aspects of the problem, the third is the search for causes.

This can be illustrated by comparing two accounts:

Tutor 9 "...almost nothing seemed to be working and I suppose the lowest level of what was not working was her management of the children and her interaction with the children. In fact there wasn't any of either, I suppose. She was operating here somewhere and the children were milling around. She was asking them to do things and they were complying in a sense that they did things but they weren't the things she was asking them to do, and what was interesting was that she didn't actually recognise that the children weren't doing what she asked them to do. It was almost like I know the tune and I

know the words - teachers say right get out your books and this case it was write me a poem about...and they got out their books and wrote the date and they copied out what she had written on the board and they went through all the sort of rituals that kids had learned and it wasn't at all what she had asked them to do, and I felt that that was the point at which I had to get in there and talk about contacting the children."

Tutor 4 responded to this as follows:

Tutor 4 "Mine was a bit like that - a bit more subtle in that VS knows the class is wrong. Some of the time she is picking up intuitively that the chemistry is not right, the children are being inattentive, fiddling, disinterested, switched off but she is not acting upon what her own intuition is, tells her to do.... because eventually I think after discussion we decided it was because in the earlier days she was so anxious to maintain the patterns of working to which the children were accustomed she couldn't she said be herself and relax. Consequently, she never really got a rapport with the children. She's aware of this cultural gap, she doesn't know how to bridge it now so she's floundering. We discussed it at great length and decided that somehow she had to be more herself. She faced up to it, which I think was good - she saw what the problem was and the upshot of the discussions were that the target should be that when a message came through to her that John was doing something he shouldn't be doing - that was when the children were disinterested or whatever, then she acted on it there and then."

Here, tutor 9 gave a detailed account of unacceptable happenings in the classroom, while tutor 4 recognising this description showed the next stage by describing attempts to examine the underlying reasons. In fact, the later accounts from the student of tutor 9 showed that she was equally aware of the problems in the classroom and much later her tutor responded in the way that tutor 4 had done.

The purpose here is to illustrate 3 stages in descriptions of classroom events. These were named as follows to give

some idea of the nature of the accounts:

- intuitive response
- descriptive account
- analytical account.

The accounts which tutors gave, the evidence which they used and the level of analysis which they undertook were different for different tutors related to how they dealt with the teaching practice situation.

Some further illustrations show elements of the first two stages:

Tutor 11 "I mean this morning I sat and listened for 40 to 45 minutes to S conducting on a whole class basis, a wonderful discussion on that ferry disaster. The level of the response from those kids, I wish desperately that I had had a tape recorder, and out of 30 odd - and I was looking very closely - and only in the last 10 minutes of the lesson there were 2 kids who were switched off. Now you would never I think even if you got the kids in groups of 4 and 5 have got that level of intense contribution and listening - because they were listening - and the level of contribution went round the classroom in an orderly way - like a ping-pong - with kids chipping in and giving a lot of valuable discussion."

This account shows both the spontaneous recognition of something good and some aspects of the second stage of more detailed description of specific aspects e.g. "intense listening", "level of concentration".

Tutor 2: "Yes and the children are so happy aren't they ? I remarked on that. It's a lovely, busy, happy atmosphere - a lot of concentration too - getting on very well. It was super."

The reaction here was very positive but the description was less detailed.

Tutor 2 "She took a story session and it was lovely. I really enjoyed it and she kept and maintained

the children's interest and it was a long story so she did well. She kept involving them and asking things of the children."

None of these accounts show the "search for causes" (level 3) mentioned above. These may have come in answer to the question "Why did the lesson go well ?" or in answer to the question "Why did the student do certain things ?" The first question may have been addressed in the last account, i.e. the story session may have been "lovely" because the student "kept involving them and asking things of the children" but the transcript does not give us that information. Generally speaking the data suggests that when the teaching is successful the tutors are not interested in why the student teacher did certain things or why the session was successful.

Degree of analysis must be an important influence on the tutors' ability to help and advise student teachers. A spontaneous attitude of pleasure or horror is certainly feedback but is not likely to help the student teacher to avoid or repeat that particular situation.

The illustration below shows tutor 13 working at stages 2 and 3.

Tutor 13: "I had a chat with the teacher and she said he's down, he's low, he's not happy that he's getting out of it what he wants....I started preparing one or two things that it might be to do with - the high noise level and some of the comments he gets back from them - I could really get hold of some of them and ring their necks. But I talked to the teacher and said "Do you think that the noise has anything to do with the fact that he's not providing the right level of work?" and fortunately she confirmed what I've been thinking. She said "No, I think the level of work is all right"."

The tutor looked at particular aspects of the classroom scene e.g. high noise level, children's remarks (level 2) and generated reasons and causes (level 3). The capacity to generate reasons and causes will be seen to be related to range as described above. In this instance it could on the one hand have led to a close analysis of the relationship between control and other aspects of classroom life. On the other hand it could have been ascribed to the neurotic personality of the student teacher. In the first instance the prescription would be a close examination of classroom organisation, presentation of self, level of work; in the second, "a dose of valium".

Confidence. The degree of confidence which tutors attached to the judgements they made was apparent in some of the accounts. It was quite difficult to illustrate this because it was often expressed by a spontaneous readiness to respond or by a look of surprise at a query. However, tutors were sometimes asked to express a degree of confidence by being asked "Are you sure?" Tutor 11, for example, was sure that QS1 would not try group work and that it was not necessary for the student teachers to raise issues since he was better able to recognise the most important ones. Similarly, tutor 8 referred to the problems in KS's classroom as being so obvious and "yet sadly not to the student who appears to be quite happy with the situation as it is." The tutor was questioned about this and remained convinced holding that judgement until the last session when she said, without appearing to notice the

discrepancy:

"KS is a good example of that (i.e. learning what what you should do but not how to do it) because she has known what she should do not only towards the end of this practice but probably towards the middle of the first TP....She knew exactly what she should do, so much so that she could have written her own report."

Other tutors were much more cautious about the judgements they made, often putting forward more than one possibility. In many accounts of tutor 2 there were examples of the use of "I think" and "its possible that" and "I wonder", all illustrative of her cautious approach to making judgements. This exploratory attitude was also illustrated by the comments of tutors 4 and 14, whereas tutors 1 and 5 spoke with considerable confidence. It is important to note that in this sample of tutors, lack of confidence in making judgements tended not to signal uncertainty or lack of conviction but rather a strong element of caution in making judgements about student teachers.

Speed. Tutors were very different in the time it took them to "weigh things up". The transcripts often showed the frustration of some tutors that they had not made judgements quickly enough. Tutor 9 at the end of the teaching practice bemoaned the fact that she had not recognised the reality of one situation in the early stages.

Tutor 9: "I think it was a dreadful experience for her ...because its only now I realise through force of circumstances that she had no model on which to base her action. I thought she had the wherewithal in herself to manage because she had been good in other situations, that she could transfer some of these skills. It turns out that she

couldn't and she didn't have anybody to show her the way."

Very often this speed of judgement or lack of it, was expressed at the end of the practice when they felt that by the time they had reached an understanding it was too late.

Tutor 3 "...Its only when you get to the end that you look back and realise that you haven't given some people the right help."

Tutor 2 "Well I suppose perhaps that I was a bit tentative at first and trying ...to weigh everything up and thinking how I might contribute and wondering how I should contribute, well.... but I don't feel in some instances as if I've trusted my own judgement enough....I feel I should have gone in, I felt I should....and yet I didn't because I was frightened to in case I was going to upset a difficult situation. Now I think I could move more quickly."

The last account in particular shows the close relationship between speed and confidence. This tutor had made tentative judgements but did not have the confidence in those judgements to act quickly. Tutor 9, however, simply did not have enough information upon which to make a judgement and could not make up her mind how to act.

Speed is also related to range. A tutor who worked from a narrow range of possibilities on which to judge could make decisions quickly, although in view of the results not necessarily effectively. Tutors who could appreciate a wide range of possibilities might take longer to choose from these.

Tutor 11 was an exception who worked from a fairly wide range but usually made judgements quickly and with confidence. He made quick and certain decisions about "the parameters of the situation", and having made these he was

not very likely to change his mind. For example about school Q, he quickly decided that:

Tutor 11 "....It's always going to be within fairly tight parameters at school Q. The whole ethos is based on class teaching...so really in terms of a closer analysis if you like of how children learn its always going to be very limited in that context."

and this justified his decision not to encourage QS1 to tackle group work since:

"...basically QS1 is not a student who is inclined to believe in the value of groups."

His speed was related to his views about teaching practice:

"I am more and more convinced in some ways that teaching practice for all concerned is a very finite learning experience and there are not often infinite possibilities to lead on. At the end I wouldn't say there are clearly defined parameters in which we all operate - teachers, pupils, the lot - but I think they certainly exist."

4.5 Discussion of the framework

Rust (1988) has suggested that supervisors act in an atmosphere of privatism. The outline above was intended to make some aspects of supervision more accessible for discussion and analysis. Before beginning that it is helpful to compare the outcomes of this study with other work in this area.

The structure of supervisors' thinking

The idea of personal pre-conceptions about teaching which guide supervision practice finds support in the work of both Rust (1988) and Neimayer and Moon(1987). Rust (1988) refers to supervisors having a variety of "images" of good teaching which direct their practice. Neimayer and Moon

(1987) believe that:

Supervisors do have evaluative expectations or organising schema as they enter a school to observe a student teacher (p.11)

This is consistent with Rust's (1988) analysis and that described above. The images of the "good teacher" include "the manager", "the facilitator", "the reflective practitioner", "the scholar". Aspects of these were apparent in the tutors described in this study, but it did not seem possible or useful to try to categorise them in this way. The approach adopted in this study was more like that of Neimayer and Moon (1987) who attempted to reflect the structure of supervision by suggesting categories of tutor concerns which were: context; administration and organisation; instructional skills; management; personal and professional skills; beliefs; supervising teacher; learning by pupils. Tutors' individuality was expressed by differentiation within these categories. Their qualitative data shows similarities with that outlined in this chapter. The personal qualities of students were also of great significance e.g. "humour", "support", "knowing the children", "appearance", "willing to take risk to grow".

Neimayer and Moon (1987) comment:

Many of these seem to have such power that they can cancel out all others. (p.10)

The significance given by tutors to personal qualities and attitudes of students was also characteristic of the views of tutors in this study e.g. the attitudes of tutors 2 and 8 to child-centred education, the attitude of tutor 7 to lack of confidence, the attitude of tutor 10 to lack of

assertiveness. According to Neimayer and Moon (1987):

Supervisors' patterns of thought seemed to have different points of reference or foundations. Some appeared to be built on a personalistic base, some on a competency base, a few used content, one or two seemed to have a child or pupil advocate base and a few a systems view of the school. (p.11)

The categories such as instructional skill and classroom management were similarly represented in this study but the differentiation was expressed in terms of breadth of view (i.e. range).

The structure of tutors' thinking as outlined above has much in common with that of Neimayer and Moon (1987). It is the factors of range, degree of analysis, confidence and speed which offer an extension to their findings by introducing some process factors to the structure of tutors' thinking.

Management or control or efficacy

The work of both Rust (1988) and Neimayer and Moon (1987) highlight the emphasis on what, in this study, has been called control. Neimayer and Moon (1987) separate out classroom management as a category because of the importance which was given to it in the eyes of the supervisors. They describe it as "the structure which makes everything work". (p.18).

Similarly when Rust (1988) identified the "images" of teaching which tutors use, they did not come into operation until the aspects of classroom management had been satisfactorily achieved:

Although no supervisor explicitly named her concept of the "good teacher", content analysis of each supervisor's writings suggested that each subscribed to one of these images which, once she had confirmed their skills in classroom management, she "taught" to her students through a process similar to concept attainment." (p.60)

The term classroom management was not used in this study because what was being expressed by the tutors was something more comprehensive. It included control over the whole situation, particularly implying some sense of purpose about the the teaching. It would, for example, be possible for a student to manage within a particular class without having the "control" of the situation which is implied here. An example of this was OS in the early stages of the practice (see case-study 18).

In outlining the Oxford school based P.G.C.E. secondary course, McIntyre (1991) refers, in the early stages of the work in school, to trying to help the student achieve "efficacy" in the classroom. This is a concept which comes close to what the tutors in this study were referring to.

Context

The importance for tutors of defining the context within which the student teacher would work and which included the student teacher was significant in this study and was also a feature of the study of Neimayer and Moon (1987). His category of context had "first priority", especially at the beginning of the practice. When he refers to context he is referring to the tutors actions in establishing the right context, but this included the evaluation of that context:

The specific pattern they use and how it may be modified seems to depend upon their initial reading of the context. While they do process knowledge or concepts judged crucial for success they seemed to be applied in a context sensitive manner. (p.17)

Tutors setting limits

It was characteristic of some of the tutors in this study that they set implicit limits on their own actions or indeed their responsibility to act. For example, there were stages in the practice where tutors 1, 5, 7, 10 and 13 were quite satisfied that there was really little else for them to do once the student had reached a satisfactory stage. Tutor 9 actually made this explicit when she suggested that she worked from a model of satisfactory performance.

In a rather different way tutors 6, 8 and 11 reached a stage with certain students when they felt that under the prevailing circumstance they had achieved all that was possible.

It is interesting to try and apply the notions of self fulfilling prophecy here and in the latter cases this could probably be usefully applied (e.g. tutor 11/QS1). However, it cannot really be applied helpfully to the first category of tutors. A more useful idea which expresses the equilibrium which seemed to have been reached is Brown's et al.'s (1988) notion of "normal desirable state". This term is used to describe the classroom situation which teachers work towards and try to maintain. In the same way tutors seem to have a notion of what is satisfactory and when that point is reached they do nothing but monitor the situation

or in extreme cases stop going into school. The implications of this will be discussed below.

4.6 Implications

There are two elements of the discussion in this section. In the first place the framework developed offers possible explanations for some of the previous findings about supervision, and these will be outlined below. As well as this the potential of the use of the framework as an influence on developing supervision practice will also be discussed.

Explaining supervisors' behaviour

In chapter 2 attention was drawn to the shortcomings of supervision practice (Terrell et al., 1985; Mansfield, 1986; Gitlin et al., 1985). It seems that teacher education programmes have little influence on supervision practice and that teaching practice is not used as a vehicle to encourage good practice as outlined by the teaching programmes. Particularly telling is the study by Terrell et al. (1985) and its follow-up by Mansfield (1986). Supervisors who advocated group activities in fact spent their time with student teachers giving attention to class teaching and there was not much improvement even when this was pointed out to them. This being the case it would appear that they are either successful in deceiving themselves or incompetent.

However, an alternative explanation for this deception or negligence could be suggested by the outcomes of this

study. It is quite possible that whatever their beliefs about teaching style, the tutors in evaluating the classroom environment may decide that certain limits must be set on their actions in order to safeguard the interests of the student teacher. Alternatively, they may have convinced themselves that a particular student teacher did not have beliefs that would make them effective managers of group work in that particular environment. Both of those explanations would have been in keeping with the behaviour of the tutors in this study. A further explanation could have been that the tutor did not have enough information quickly enough in order to decide if and when to initiate a particular course of action. In deciding upon their actions tutors take many factors into consideration, and the way they do this must be an important aspect of their practice.

In the study referred to above Neimayer and Moon (1987) make a comparison between "brute" and "sense" which is made clear in the extract below:

The more cultural or mind dependent the science the greater is the disparity in meaning between the external configuration of events (brute) and internal meanings (sense). (p. 6)

They go on to argue:

It follows that sensible judgements about the adequacy of teaching cannot be made merely by collecting and analysing brute data. Instead, worth is determined by examining such data in light of the context from which it emerges. (p. 6)

Perhaps even more importantly from a practical point of view, it is unlikely that supervising tutors will wish to change their practice if they believe that they are making appropriate decisions for the circumstances. A much more

effective approach is to take action to try to influence the decision-making process itself.

Explaining tutors' attitudes to theoretical approaches to supervision

In attempts to help tutors to become more effective, various approaches to supervision practice have been advocated and these have been outlined in chapter 3. Since there is so much concern about the effectiveness of teacher training it seems to show negligence on the part of tutors that they have not made much better use of these recommendations for good practice. Stones (1984) argues that this is because supervision has never been taken seriously in institutions. However, in this study, when the theoretical approaches were suggested to the tutors, they quite often recognised them as techniques which they used but just as often they rejected an approach on the grounds that it was not appropriate for a particular situation with a particular student teacher. For example a clinical supervision approach was seen to be totally appropriate in the case of one student teacher but totally inappropriate in the case of another who, according to the tutor, would not raise an issue for discussion at all if given total control over the professional discussion. Similarly it was argued that the analytical approach suggested by Stones (1984) would not be helpful for a student teacher who was having serious difficulties since it would only lead to greater uncertainty and confusion. For such a student teacher it might be helpful to use a skill based approach

provided that the skills were those which were directly relevant to the ones which the class teacher was already using. However, a teacher/student teacher pair working well together in a classroom could be provoked into a justificatory discussion by a planning session exploring certain theoretical principles.

In summary, what these tutors were indicating were the ways in which they adapted their approach to meet the needs of the situation as they perceived them. Any theoretical approach must be subject to such adaptations.

Helping tutors to reflect on their own behaviour in classrooms

To say that tutors were doing things in classrooms for good reasons was not the same as saying that they were being effective. At times tutors set limits to their practice which did not seem to be justified in the light of the evidence available. Perhaps more importantly some tutors did not even explore the situation in great detail but on the basis of a small amount of information decided that "everything was all right" and took almost no action for the rest of the practice. At other times they took for granted that everybody else would agree with the judgement which they had made and were surprised that it might be questioned. Finally, a tutor who was helping a student teacher to learn the procedures of the class teacher could be accused of perpetuating a system which was not necessarily effective (Joyce et al., 1981; Stones, 1984).

The point has already been made above that supervision is a

very lonely occupation rarely discussed in detail with more than a few colleagues with a result that tutors are often unaware of their own procedures let alone those of other people. This was quite apparent in the difficulty which tutors had in answering general questions about their practice.

If the outline set out above is close enough to tutors' practice then it is possible that it may be used to promote such discussion and encourage a critical and reflective approach. The framework gives information about two aspects of tutors' procedures on teaching practice.

First it shows how tutors "weigh up" situations in order to know how to proceed. Using the framework may help tutors to evaluate the information on which they make their judgements, becoming more aware of the point at which they decide they cannot influence the practice and whether that decision is justified.

Secondly, the framework may indicate how tutors organise their knowledge about and processes of supervision. By making this organisation explicit tutors may make it more open to discussion and reflection. Tutors may be in a better position to think about their own preconceptions and the consequences of them for their actions in classrooms. They may consider the advisability of extending their intuitive responses to become detailed and analytical . The range of teaching behaviour which teachers address may be enhanced by discussion and joint decision making,

particularly if tutors are aware of where they are starting from. Perhaps most importantly there may be a vehicle which will make it easier for experienced and inexperienced tutors to share their expertise.

4.7 Summary and looking forward to the next of the analysis

This chapter outlines how a framework for explicating tutor supervision practice was developed from the data in the third study. It is suggested that this framework is very close to the way tutors see their own practice and as such offers possibilities for explaining tutors' practice and for helping them to reflect on that practice.

Supervising tutors are faced with two great problems. The first, isolation, has already been referred to. The second is time. Tutors spend a comparatively small amount of time with their supervisees and in the classrooms in which their supervisees are working. One of their difficulties is to gather enough information on which to base their judgements and subsequent actions. The results of this study show that the necessary information must refer to the characteristics of the situation, which includes personal characteristics of the people involved. With this information it seems that experienced tutors do apply aspects of theory which they have assimilated through experience.

The way they do this is characteristic of reflection-in-action as outlined by Schon (1983) rather than by a direct application of theoretical approaches. The argument which has been put forward by people working in this area is that

the approach to supervision should change over the course of the practice in response to the changing needs of the student (Cohn, 1988; Hoover et al., 1988; King, 1985; McIntyre, 1988). If there is to be co-operation with the teacher then the changing relationship with the teacher must also be a factor for consideration so that action may be co-ordinated.

Before considering the value of the typology as a way to enhance practice it is necessary to look at the changing relationship between the student and the teacher and the influence of the tutor on that relationship.

CHAPTER 5

CHARTING CO OPERATION DURING THE WEEKS OF THE PRACTICE

5.0 Introduction

Relationship between co-operation and effective supervision

Outlining the chapter

5.1 Examining co-operation

Tutor input to student teachers

Teacher input to student teachers

The role of the student teacher in accepting or initiating help

Relationships in the trio

Making use of the information

5.2 The first stage of the practice

The information from the first summary sheet

Discussion of the figures in the light of other evidence

Establishing relationships

Problems with establishing relationships

Factors influencing the development of effective relationships during the first stage

The corresponding role of the tutor

5.3 The second stage of the practice

The second summary sheet

Reported decrease in professional dialogue

Implicit understanding that the student is "coping"

Teacher's perception of her/his role

Nothing to talk about

Maintaining or increasing professional dialogue

Adapting the instructional role

Changing from the instructional role

Developing friendships

Enhancing a previously low level of interaction

Role of the tutor

Where a student is "coping"

Response to student difficulties

Taking a pro-active role

5.4 The third stage of the practice

Tutors acting to maintain teacher/student teacher dialogue

Tutors developing responsive patterns of supervision

Helping student teachers with difficulties

5.5 Discussion and implications

Assumptions about co-operation

Co-operation and diagnosis

Developmental aspects of teaching practice

Tutors influencing a teacher/student teacher relationship

5.6 Summary

5.0 Introduction

Relationship between co-operation and effective supervision

The importance of the teacher/student teacher relationship was indicated in the theoretical review in chapter 1 and in the discussion of the second study in chapter 3. Effective supervision involves co-operation between all the participants and the teacher/student teacher relationship was a crucial one. A number of important reasons for examining co-operation over the course of the teaching practice are suggested below.

1. The efforts which were made to enhance co-operation between the participants were outlined in previous sections. It was suggested that tutors in deciding how to act in classrooms responded to certain factors in the situation which could be summarised in the relationship which was established between teacher and student teacher. In other words assumptions were being made about the development of relationships and the tutor actions related to those relationships. It was necessary to examine those assumptions.

2. It was suggested as a result of the discussion in chapters 1 and 2 that diagnosis of student teachers' needs was an important step in providing suitable supervision strategies. The teacher/student teacher relationship was seen to be an important aspect of the student teachers' situation in school with implications for that diagnosis.

3. Diagnosis is not a once-and-for-all action: it is on-

going. In fact, in chapter 1 some developmental approaches to supervision were considered which suggested changes in supervision strategy related to student development. It seemed important to look for the way students developed over the practice. However, if the teacher/student teacher relationship is an important factor, then another facet of development may be significant, i.e. the development in the relationship between the student teacher and the teacher over the period of the teaching practice.

4. If the teacher/student teacher relationship was important as suggested in chapter 1 and in the results of the second study outlined in chapter 3, then it was quite important to see what impact that relationship might have on the tutors' behaviour and the extent to which the tutors might be able to influence the relationship.

Outlining the chapter

After examining, in section 5.1, the general nature of teacher, student teacher, tutor co-operation there will be a much more detailed analysis of the co-operation at three different stages of the teaching practice (5.2, 5.3. 5.4). A discussion in 5.5 will summarise the nature of some of the changes over the practice and the implications of these changes for tutor action. It will show that tutors can act re-actively and pro-actively to influence the teaching practice situation and that the developmental aspect is a very important one.

5.1 Examining co-operation

Before looking in detail at the development of co-operation this section offers some illustrations of the range of activities involved.

At the simplest level co-operation may be seen as participants working together for their mutual benefit. Tutors and teachers may help student teachers by offering feedback, advice, access to resources and encouragement, whereas student teachers may reciprocate by responding to suggestions, maintaining the satisfactory education of the pupils and giving information about future plans. Perhaps a further aspect of co-operation might be maintaining satisfactory communication such that there is agreement between the participants.

Despite the uniformity in the procedures to achieve effective co-operation there were very different outcomes.

Tutor input to student teachers

From the accounts of the students about their tutors there was a range of inputs. XS1 was very positive about her tutor's help:

XS1 "My tutor gave me lots of ideas, you know, that I could pick up on and just use, you know. She'd mention something and I'd say, "Oh yes!" and "My ideas would come out as we were talking....I'd say "I'll try that.""

whereas US1 only got the re-assurance that everything was all right:

US1 "We talked about what I'd done....It didn't help me really....He didn't give me any helpIt's nice to know he thought the lesson went well, he didn't give me any ideas though."

For VS the tutor was only able to identify problems but not to assist in the solving of them:

VS "Well, she advised me to do something more about differential provision but really they weren't the concrete ideas she came up with....She picked up a problem but she didn't give me any direction and advice on how to deal with it, only the problem itself."

Help for WS came in the form of moral support and encouragement:

WS "... She gives you encouragement to carry on and like determination. Sometimes something can be said which just knocks you down and it might not have been meant like that or whatever, but it really takes a lot to get back up and she really helped out a lot with that."

But for CS the presence of the tutor was not helpful at all:

CS "It made it difficult for me when the tutor was there because every time she walked in I went "ahhhh" and my heart sank and then, you know, the lesson didn't go that well."

Teacher input to student teachers

Students teachers also found differences in the support which they could expect to get from the teachers and an exchange of information between two student teachers illustrates this:

FS "Well - I got a TV programme which should have been recorded for me - the whole day was based on that programme and the tape wouldn't go on, so together we revised the whole day. She was there if I needed help.

GS "That happened to me. We couldn't find the video and he just said "Oh you'll have to find something else to do", and that was that, so I made it up, I just pretended we'd watched it and went on."

The role of the student teacher in accepting or initiating help

The role of the student teacher in accepting help was seen

to be very important since from the teachers' point of view, they sometimes found their efforts to help repulsed:

CT2 "I mean I very much wanted a student and was looking forward to having a student but she was totally uncommunicative with everybody....I think I was fishing to find out what she would like at first. I was not sure if she did want me to help and that was why she was being quiet, or whether she was just so confident in herself that she did not want to listen to anybody else."

The comments of tutors relating to the positive behaviour of student teachers has already been considered in the previous chapter e.g.

Tutor 6 "I think it depends on the student. I think some of the students will naturally bring up a lot.... I have one who is very good and will keep me for ages."

Relationships in the trio

The establishment of good teacher/student/tutor relationships within the trios was equally diverse. Some groups rarely talked together as trios, in other cases the teacher and tutor talked together so much so that the student felt excluded.

HS1 "I think it would have been nice to hear what they said to each other. We'd sort of go out and then we'd say "What did he (tutor 7) think" and they'd just sort of say "All right" and that was it. So I never knew what they'd said and we never had a chance to get together."

Another student found the trio situation rather contrived :

LS "I felt embarrassed at first (i.e. when the three sat down together)....You see I was more friendly with LT (i.e. the teacher) really and - um - she used always to ask me what the tutor said and everything and I couldn't really say the same things in front of the two of them."

A third spoke in enthusiastic tones about the usefulness of a co-operative relationship:

JS "I think it was one of the most helpful things.

It wasn't me and the tutor and me and the teacher. It was the three of us together and I never had one occasion when, for example, when the tutor said "Why don't you do this?" and the teacher said "Oh, do that", you know, where they disagreed. We just discussed it as a three."

Perhaps the least satisfactory situation was described by tutor 1

Tutor 1 "I think perhaps the choice of that school is a little unfortunate....so the whole situation is a battle-ground, a-tug-of-war between the two teachers and the head and between the head and me - um- and that is the way it will continue."

Making use of the information

The short extracts above give some idea of the elements of co-operation. It was the way that these worked together which really indicated the process of co-operation over the practice.

In order to try and chart that process, use was made of the summary sheets described in the chapter 3, which were completed on the basis of the evidence at different stages of the practice. For each stage of the practice an attempt will be made to describe the ways in which teachers and students worked together and to follow this up by a consideration of the corresponding behaviour of the tutors.

How the findings relate to the review in chapter 1 will be considered and then the four issues raised at the beginning of this chapter will be re-addressed.

The description will refer to illustrative material only to avoid burdening the text. Further data is available in the case-studies.

5.2 The first stage of the practice

The information from the first summary sheet

The first summary sheet was prepared during the first fortnight. It was filled out prior to the tutors' meeting and then the information checked and changed as appropriate. It was most significant that a number of tutors were not able to contribute to that process because they had not, at that time got, enough information. Below is a summary of the data.

1. All the teachers, except one informed the student teachers about the availability of materials and were helpful in giving access to those materials.
2. In nineteen school situations there was reported discussion about the children's behaviour.
3. In seventeen school situations there was reported discussion about the children's work.
4. In twenty two cases information was exchanged about the student teacher's proposed teaching.
5. This figure fell to 10/11 for joint planning of content or teaching strategies before the student teacher taught.
6. The figure was between 8 and 12 for discussion of teaching strategies after the teaching took place.

The range in 4 and 5 represents uncertainty about definition, uncertainty about "amount" (i.e. people did not want to count it if it had only happened once) and lack of information.

A closer examination showed that the figures did not only indicate some uncertainties as outlined above but other important differences in implementation.

Discussion of the figures in the light of other evidence
Establishing relationships. It was clear that teachers saw their supervision responsibilities very differently. This was apparent in the ways in which some of them tried to establish relationships with their student teachers.

UT2 "You have to strike up a relationship with them just as you have to do it in any situation. You've got to get to know each other....have a relaxed relationship."

UT1 "I think you've got to level it on what is in any event your initial assessment (if that could be used as the word) of the type of student you appear to have. There are ways between as with any stranger where you can tell whether a person is a rather passive person or very extrovert, within moments, in the way that you are actually greeted... whether they come in smiling or are rather serious.

and

UT1 "I like not to talk too much at them even in a chatty, friendly way. I like to say to them, "Just go round gently, walking, noticing things, open cupboards and drawers if you want to, chat to a child who is doing a certain thing or activity, offer help if somebody has a puzzled look, and so on.""

FT "Because when they first come in they are not always sure of what they are doing or what level they are aiming at or anything, and if you start asking them questions about what they are going to do they sort of immediately feel, "My goodness I'm not going to cope", so I felt to chat was the best thing."

Part of establishing relationships was to give advice and information. The summary sheet indicated that most teachers were very willing to give information about the resources and procedures in the class. Some of them felt that they should not discuss the children initially because "students should make their own unbiased judgements". Other teachers did give this information but for different reasons as the

two accounts below indicate:

QT1 "I think it helps the student to get into the practice quicker if you give them a little bit of inside information to start with. I think if you are not experienced it takes you a lot longer to spot the trouble-makers and longer to spot the ones you are going to have trouble with in various ways."

FT "I found it was most useful to chat about the children as individuals- to talk about funny things to begin with on the first visit, so that they could see that I was human and could see funny things happening.... I thought it was nice for the student to see that they were a nice class, that they had personality and that they did funny things, which I think she should look out for. But I felt the particular student I had was rather serious and I needed to break the ice and I felt that one way I could do that and try to build up a relationship was to talk about something that was common to us both, the children, and I would sort of talk about funny things that had happened in the past perhaps."

Whereas QT1 wanted the student to have what she considered to be useful advice, FT wanted to "break the ice" with a reserved student.

For some teachers giving help was very systematic even if this was not initially to the liking of the student, e.g.

QT1 "...We had a lot of discussion at the beginning about how she should change that and bring out the kids a bit more and bring out herself in the process and she's done that now but it had to come from me originally, because as I say I got the impression from her - I mean the first lesson we started off and I said "What are you doing?" and she told me, so I said "Right" and she said "You're not staying in are you?" - I mean this was the first morning, so I said, "Well, yes, I feel as though I need to" and she said "I'll be much better if you're not there", so I said, "I know exactly how you feel and I remember being like that and there's nothing worse than being watched, but I really feel I need to be there". I said "You won't know I'm here" and I just sat in the corner and marked some books and just made general notes on the lesson and it went along and we discussed it afterwards."

Sometimes this systematic approach included the tutor as well, e.g.

Tutor 4 (about school D)

"DT has assimilated all that you had said on what this research was about and she met me and said "Look, how shall we play this one?" So we agreed we would both stay in together as S seemed unperturbed by that so that we could then compare our responsesIn fact, we nearly had awful trouble not to talk about it during the lesson....we agreed absolutely on all the teaching points....Then during play-time T said "Shall I bring a cup of tea down because it is a bit exposed in the staff-room?....She was so quick that I barely said "Now how do you feel about this?" when she was back and she joined in the joint discussion."

In other situations the help was not quite so explicit but still there (e.g. case-studies: 4,8,10,11,17,23,24,25)

From the point of view of the student teachers, the teachers' help was most likely to be effective if their comments and actions were not seen as too critical, e.g.

LS "As long as you don't feel they are being- well- not too critical, over critical. No, as long as you don't feel it all the time being watched and they're going to say "Oh my goodness, what on earth does she think she is doing?"."

The sense of being criticised caused US very serious and nearly disastrous problems in the first week of the practice (see case-study 27). Despite the worry about criticism some students did welcome clear parameters along which to work:

XS1 "Well it's a lot easier if you know exactly what they want from you. You know rather than being just sort of vague about it....If they say now look this is what I want you to do, this is what I expect from you."

Other student teachers while agreeing on the need for

general guidelines also wanted the room to try things and developed strategies to make that possible. These, however, were not apparent at the early stages and will be discussed later.

In these early stages effective relationships were enhanced by student teacher participation. This was expressed quite forcibly by the teachers, e.g.

HT1 "I think you've got to be able to talk to them..."

LT "I think you appreciate one who is open to advice and is prepared to listen"

HT2 "You need one who will ask questions and will ask for help if they need it, or ask for suggestions."

In many cases the strategies of teachers and the responsive behaviour of student teachers contributed to the beginnings of co-operative relationships but there were less successful examples.

Problems with establishing relationships. The frustrated comments of CT2 about trying to work with his student teacher have already been reported above. These were corroborated by tutor 3:

Tutor 3 "The teachers have put themselves out to find time to talk to the students and in the case of one pair its a very open discussion, with equal contributions from both sides from what I can gather. With the other pair T is determined that he is going to help the student. He is trying extremely hard to draw her out and he is trying every possible ruse he can think of to try to get her to talk."

Without reciprocal action on the part of the student this teacher had no chance of achieving co-operation.

There were, however, other school situations where there were no initial strategies for setting up co-operative working. For example in school E the staff left the student entirely alone for the first week with the intention of letting her establish a relationship with the class:

Tutor 5 "When I got there I said "How is S getting on" and they said, "Well we've not been in yet, we don't go in for the first four to five days, we let them settle in.""

The result for the student teacher was that she felt very isolated:

ES "I think it was very cliquey. it took me a long time before I felt accepted."

This was not really surprising because as well as being left on her own she was also experiencing difficulty, but when she asked for help she did not receive it:

ES "I asked her you know what else I could do because I wasn't really sure...She said "Well, surely you must have it in your schemes". So I didn't feel I could ask her for any help at all because I felt she was going to take it as if I hadn't prepared enough or planned enough and as if it was my fault."

This expressed a view which was shared by more than the one teacher (PT, HT2, ET) and that was that students should be taking responsibility for their own teaching and teachers should be very careful not to do too much or the practice would not be a proper "test" of competence.

In other school placements there appeared to be little or no interaction. When tutor 5 was asked whether the student teacher was talking to the teacher in school G, he replied:

Tutor 5 "Well I don't honestly know and quite frankly I should find it rather difficult to talk to him (i.e. the teacher) because although he is a nice

enough man I should find it very hard to talk honestly and openly to him....Perhaps it might not be a good thing if they do match up quite honestly because they seem to be poles apart."

In this situation (school G) the lack of interaction between teacher and student teacher appeared to be caused more by the reserve of the teacher combined with a lack of skill on the part of the teacher in initiating interaction. In some ways this statement seems to contradict the idea that the student teacher also has a part to play. However, the evidence from this study suggests that, certainly in the early stages of the practice, the teacher has the dominant role.

Other examples of teacher/student relationships which were slow to develop at this stage are outlined in case studies 1, 14, 26.

Factors influencing the development of effective working relationships during the first stage

The preceding discussion may now be related back to the figures discussed earlier. When, for example, a figure of fifteen pairs discussing forward planning is presented it gives little information about what is actually happening. Within the number quoted may be a forceful teacher with a reluctant student when the alleged discussion may be counter-productive. On the other hand a teacher/student teacher pair may not be included despite the fact that they are busy building up a firm social relationship upon which future co-operation will be based.

The picture developing was one of student teachers and

teachers negotiating partnerships. An important factor in this process was whether or not the teacher had strategies to enhance and initiate good relationships. These strategies differed from a sensitive effort to make the student teacher feel comfortable to systematic attempts to induct the student teacher into the classroom situation. Whether these strategies worked or not depended on the reaction of the student, i.e. whether they would respond to help and initiate it. Whether they did this appeared to depend in turn on the personal characteristics of the student teacher and upon whether or not they felt the teacher to be critical.

Some teachers were restricted in their use of such strategies by their uncertainty about their role in the teaching practice situation. Almost without exception they helped with information and resources but, as illustrated above, they were not confident that it was right for them to give "too much" help to student teachers who should, in the view of the teachers, be showing competence to manage on their own. The professional ability of the teachers to contribute will be considered at a later stage since it was not an issue at this point.

The corresponding role of tutors

The discussion in chapter 3 indicated that the tutors at this stage of the practice were concerned primarily with "weighing up" the classroom situation and it is probably for this reason that their impact was not very substantial.

Judging from their accounts, only one tutor (i.e. tutor 4) could be said to have established a working relationship in her two schools (i.e. D and J). In D a situation of mutual respect and close discussion was in operation, whereas in J there were warm social relationships. Tutor 3, in response to the anxiety of the school about a very weak student teacher had begun discussions with the headteacher about co-operative action to help the student. Other tutors were in the process of establishing those relationships and some tutors clearly had very good relationships with their supervisees. The transcripts of the tutor discussions indicated a period of "finding out" dominated by descriptions of initial visits and hypotheses about the school situation.

At the same time there was some evidence that the teachers were also "weighing up" the tutors. In those early stages it seemed that the teachers only wanted to establish that the tutors were "all right" i.e. that they spent a substantial time with the student teacher but not too long and that they were supportive. This was expressed by one teacher:

NT "I met him the first time. I think he is very good the way he approaches his student, because when he comes in he stays for a long time and he's there for the beginning of a lesson and he is always constructive. It's very easy to be critical and destructive, but if he's got any little things he wants to pick on he brings them in almost as an aside and he concentrates on the positive aspects of what the student is doing."

Another teacher summarised the attitudes of many teachers in the first weeks of the practice when she said:

QT2 "I don't think you can really work well until you have established a relationship early on with the tutor. I think you've got to see him early on and have an informal chat, like (tutor 11) did, so you have a chance to talk to him. It just broke the ice so when he came in I felt could relate to somebody."

The important issue for this research was how the tutors might influence the developing relationships between teachers and student teachers.

Although many teachers had well developed co-operation strategies without the influence of the tutor, there were certainly instances where the feedback from the tutor was very welcome and encouraged the process (e.g. FT, LT, UT1, UT2, DT). In a few cases information about the student teacher had helped the teacher to focus on a particular issue (e.g. LT helped LS with group work).

It was perhaps even more important to consider the influence of tutors where co-operation was more problematic. There was very little evidence at this stage that tutors acted to initiate a relationship which had not really begun to develop. In a number of cases tutors did not have enough information to know how the pairs were working together (schools A,E,M,O and to a lesser extent M), and in some cases did not think co-operation was possible or desirable (see case-studies 1, 2, and 9).

However, the nature of the project and the presence of the investigator acted to set up more co-operative relationships in those situations. The outcomes of that action were not apparent at this stage.

Where there was uncertainty on the part of the teachers about their role there was little evidence that this was discussed with the tutors at this stage (case-studies 14, 19, 9 16)). In other cases there were no reports of uncertainty because there had been discussion with the tutors (e.g. case-studies 27, 29) to clarify problems.

Where there was anxiety on the part of the student teacher about what were seen to be critical actions of the teachers, the tutor had the potential to ease the anxieties and influence the attitude of the teachers (see case-studies 20, 27).

In summary, at this stage of the practice, the tutors like student teachers and teachers, were concerned with exploring the situation. Their small amount of contact with the schools usually meant that they did not have a lot of information at this stage. However, it was clear that there was potential for tutors to act to enhance relationships if they had enough information. They could act to re-assure teachers and students, to give information and to give feedback on the expectations for co-operation and the role of the teacher. Finally their success in the activities outlined above were likely to depend upon their ability to relate to the student teacher and make the right impression on the teacher.

5.3 The second stage of the practice

The second summary sheet

The second summary sheet summarised the opinions of the

participants about the amount of change that had taken place in the relationships, and the nature of that change. There were 2 main groups. The first included those teacher/student teacher pairs where the professional dialogue appeared to have decreased. There were 8 of these, but in 4 cases the "social chat" had been maintained.

The second main group was made up of pairs where the professional dialogue had either been maintained or increased.

The rest of the sample group are accounted for by: 2 pairs where the information at this stage was inadequate to fill in summary sheet (see case-studies 1 and 2); one student teacher who had withdrawn (see case-study 5); one student teacher where the unsatisfactory relationship with the class teacher was being supplemented with help from the headteacher.

The most significant distinction in the summary was that between those pairs in which professional contact had decreased and those where it had been maintained or increased. Each of these groups will be considered in turn with a final section to discuss the corresponding supervisory role of the tutor at this stage.

Reported decrease in professional dialogue

Implicit understanding that the student is coping In eight out of the nine cases where professional dialogue decreased there was an implicit understanding that the student

teacher was "coping" and in the ninth case the student teacher was coping as well as the class teacher coped. A few examples from the data will illustrate this.

Tutor 10 "It seems that MS is identified as a good student and therefore, he can carry on on his own, i.e. "we (meaning the school staff) don't need to support him any more"."

This statement from the tutor is supported by the investigator's notes:

"There is now little discussion of planning and conduct of lessons - some discussion of children's work and behaviour. MT is satisfied that MS has got to grips with the children"

Another example came from tutor 9:

Tutor 9 "Yes I think it's (discussion) fallen off for two reasons - one that LT actually does feel quite confident of LS because LS has got wonderful class management, it's really very good. I don't quite know what she does, she just turns her spiky hair at them or something but really they are so good. She does super oral stuff with them. Uh....the other one is that LT is acting deputy and there is quite a lot for her to do."

The investigator also noticed that this was happening:

"In some ways this is disappointing in the sense that consultation has dropped off because LT is seen as "competent" now - she can run the group system LT is aware of what is going on in the classroom because she can tell me but I don't think there is a lot of discussion and comment."

These were typical illustrations of many such remarks but it was noticeable with some of these pairs that the competency of the student teacher was not the only factor influencing the teacher/student teacher interaction. If the student teacher was perceived to be competent then a number of other factors took on importance. The first of these was concerned with other responsibilities which the teacher might have. For example in the report of tutor 9 above the

teacher involved was also the deputy head and the tutor referred specifically to this.

In school M, the teacher was timetabled in other classes once the student teacher was seen as self sufficient. Tutor 10 reported:

Tutor 10 "...They don't talk all that much about what they are doing, simply because they have now said MS is all right. The teacher's responsibility is elsewhere. She spends most of the time doing Science with the Infants."

Teacher's perception of her/his role Another factor which interacted with "a competent student" to decrease discussion was the way the teacher perceived her/his role as supervisor. This was well illustrated in case study 19 where the teacher saw herself as an "instructor" and when that role was no longer appropriate she was unable or unwilling to adapt to any other professional relationship. As a result she withdrew active support including any giving of feedback or discussion of plans and just checked what was happening if she was going to be away from school. Apart from that she usually taught a small group of children from her own or another class and made herself available if/when necessary.

Nothing to talk about A surprising and yet obvious factor, apparent in 4 of the classes (see case-studies 3, 4, 13, 18,) was that there was nothing to talk about.

This happened under different circumstances. For example, JT/JS really had very little need to talk because they both

understood what each other was doing and since teaching for them was a personal activity they each got on with it independently. The student teacher was totally confident that the teacher would help out in any difficulty at all but at this stage of the practice difficulties were not often arising. Tutor 4 tried to explain this situation:

Tutor 4 "...she is really super with the children. Now that's something interesting between the teacher and her too, because- uh- because he's another one just like her. They rely on this charismatic approach and the children relate to them well, they don't have any discipline problems- so they don't need to talk - why bother! there's nothing to talk about is there? (i.e. in the eyes of teacher and student)."

The tutor was trying to explain a situation where both teacher and student teacher taught in a similar and effective way so that discussion, (in their eyes) except in a social way seemed to be superfluous.

A further illustration of this was described by tutor 3 about CS1 and this tutor went on to link this to a lack of progress on the part of the student.

Tutor 3 "...But disappointing in the sense that she's not being extended. I have the feeling that the teacher spends little time in the class with her now that she's happy with what S is doing and that the pattern of teaching is fairly similar, i.e. quite a lot of what is basically class teaching or unimaginative group work, where they follow material from this book."

The situation with BS/BT was comparable in that there seemed to be nothing to talk about but for different reasons. Tutor 2 tried to express that:

Tutor 2 "...there was a shared concern in a difficult situation which the teacher also- she'd only just come into the classroom and was full of the problems herself- but she has left S to deal

with them and sort them out for herself.

This tutor was reluctant to be openly critical (this was apparent from a private discussion) but the implication was that the teacher was unwilling or unable to make a significant contribution to the student teacher's teaching. The student teacher, very sensitively, supported this viewpoint.

BS "Well I got on very, very well with my class teacher, but she was like my mother, she wasn't like a teacher. You know, we used to-uh-I can't explain, she was really, really lovely and I got very fond of her but she wasn't the sort of person who had a lot of "bumpf" about her."

Indeed the teacher agreed, partially with this analysis:

BT "...so I left it to her and just stood back and let her get on with it."

To summarise the situation, it appeared that if the student teacher was "coping", other factors came into operation to encourage a decrease in teacher/student teacher interaction. These factors were: other responsibilities of the teacher, a correspondence of the beliefs of teacher and student teacher about the nature of teaching; the inability of the teacher to make any contribution.

Maintaining or increasing professional dialogue

Within this one group it was possible to see four different processes in action.

Adapting the instructional role. In the early stages of the practice some of the teachers had developed what may be called an instructional role with their student teachers, i.e., they had systematically set out to induct their student teachers into the procedures of the classroom. The

ways in which this was done varied from one pair to another but the principle of the teacher initiating the student teacher was there.

As the practice developed and the abilities of the student teachers became more apparent so some of the teachers (unlike PT referred to above) were able to adapt their behaviour. In some cases the teachers actions were still definitely instructional (DT and QT1). Tutor 11 reported this change after the initial difficulties of the student teacher.

Tutor 11 "...So what you have now I think, is a situation where QT1 feels very confident and withdraws and will check that things have gone well, which she does very diligently and very regularly."

Although the teacher spent less time in the classroom she still spent a lot of time with the student teacher discussing planning, discussing children's work and anything else which the student or tutor brought up for discussion.

This was quite similar for DT, although here in consultation with the tutor (case-study 6) she was trying to give the student more opportunity to identify her own problems.

Changing from the instructional role. In other circumstances the role of instructor had either always been inappropriate or had become inappropriate, and the teachers changed their behaviour rather than adapting it.

In one case the teacher began to work with the student

teacher more as a colleague, i.e. by listening with enthusiasm to the student teacher's accounts and ideas; by making suggestions and offering equipment which the student teacher might accept or feel quite at liberty to refuse; by sharing comments about the children's work and by generally supporting the student teacher's endeavour (see case-study 24).

In the potentially difficult situation in school W, (case-study 27), the prescriptive attitude of the teacher had been construed by the student teacher as criticism . In fact the teacher had been very anxious to co-operate and quite upset because she could not "help" the student. The investigator's notes show how with the help of the tutor the situation was resolved:

"WT and WS think that they still discuss as much as before. In the evening WT checks what WS is going to do and she also knows from being in the classroom part of the time. She comes in to listen to the readers but often ends up listening to the lesson because it is interesting, e.g. lesson on shape. She actually checked the shape lesson against the skill list and put very good for everything. WT can see a worry in discussing/checking just for the sake of it....WT has taken note of many of WS's ideas and, in fact, listed them for future reference."

The tutor (14) also reported a discussion with the teacher and student teacher on this issue and they had, together, re-considered the teacher's function which they had decided was now to listen to and support the student teacher in order to help her clarify her own ideas, rather than acting as an instructor or withdrawing from the situation. As the student teacher said, her friends "too soon get bored with listening to me". At this stage in the practice, teacher,

student teacher and tutor were recognising the changing situation of the student and beginning to respond to it.

With a third pair in the sub-group the changes were more dramatic:

Tutor 2 "I feel like tutor 14 that the relationship does change....Last time I went in I felt less able to contribute in the situation because the circumstances and needs of the student had changed. At first they were like your teacher/pupil but she's moved to a collaboration, and I felt very much the time before last that I was in the way and I read your paper and it said you often feel that way and I was feeling that way (laughter) so then I didn't feel so bad."

At stage 1 the tutor had been asked to co-operate with the teacher in diagnosing the student teacher's problems and offering the right sort of advice. At this new stage of the practice the student teacher and the teacher were working together as colleagues and the tutor felt that she was excluded from this team.

Developing friendships. In a third sub-group the accounts from teachers, student teachers and tutors suggested that initial useful and helpful co-operation had not only been maintained but had been increased by the feelings of friendship which had had time to develop since the beginning of the practice. Some extracts will illustrate this general feeling of a close working together.

Tutor 7 (about HS2/HT2)

"An excellent teacher there, supporting the student no end, getting the best out of the students."

and the same tutor again about HS2 and HT2

"They actually plan everything together and say 'Shall we do it this way or shall we do it this way?' They could almost move into each others sessions."

The investigator's notes referred to the enhanced discussion of this pair:

"Talking has got a lot more and on a more personal level as they have got to know each other. Talk is about what they are going to do and particularly talk about individual children and the way they are progressing."

Tutor 12 described a similar situation with RS2/RT2:

Tutor 12 "I asked her about this co-operation- did they talk- and they talk morning , noon and night about what they are going to do....When I asked her she said "Oh we do it in the morning, we do it at break and we do it after school.""

Again these are selected illustrations but the picture which emerged from the data was of teacher/student teacher pairs who got on well and worked closely together in a mutually supportive way, generating a lot of discussion about the teaching in progress.

(Examples are case-studies 8,11,17,23,)

Enhancing a previously low level of interaction. The final sub-group included those teacher/student teacher pairs where there had not been a great deal of interaction in the earliest weeks but where, for different reasons, it was enhanced later on. The impetus for action was different in different cases but the results of increased teacher participation were the same.

It has already been shown above that a number of teachers had an established view of what their role should be in the teaching practice situation i.e. as an instructor. In this particular group the teachers were uncertain about their role and in the light of that uncertainty they waited for more information.

The case of GT (case study 9) has already been referred to in stage 1. In this case information about ways of co-operating came for the teacher in an interview with the co-ordinator. Despite the fact that he had entered into very little discussion with the student teacher, he had produced for the interviewer a diary of what the student had been doing so far. It became apparent that, although the teacher offered no feedback to the student, he did praise the student to other members of staff. It was a simple step to suggest that this feedback could go directly to the student. In fact this was what happened, see investigator's report.

"GS now always tells GT what he is going to do, and GT asks if he wants anything. GT is very helpful here. GT is praising GS more now. In fact GS asked if I had mentioned it. Also they have talked a lot more about the children's work, especially the poorer ones, i.e. about both the standards/expectations and whether GS has given them enough explanation."

With the rest of the student teachers in this sub-group the stimulus came from the fact that the student teacher was not succeeding in organising and teaching the class. In three cases, the interaction between the teacher and the student teacher, as well as that between the teacher and the tutor, was enhanced by the anxiety on the part of the school about the ineffective performance of the student teachers. In the final case the teacher was still incapable or unwilling to take on an interactive role and this had to be assumed by the acting headteacher. By this stage of the practice the teachers were being dragged, a little reluctantly, into a much more participative role.

TK was a very good example of a teacher who, despite the preparation for the project, was uncertain about her role. The tutor did not contribute any encouragement until the difficulties of the student teacher promoted action. This aspect of the co-operation will be discussed below, but the result was that she began to be much more explicit in her instructions to the student teacher and to give model lessons. This help was accompanied by a very much increased social interaction. (A similar situation is reported in case-study 7.)

However, in school V where the student teacher was also performing very ineffectively, the teacher was either unwilling or incapable of giving any support.

Tutor 9 "I don't think she really wants to engage in a level of discussion which I think is necessary to get that student doing what she is capable of doing but isn't doing at the moment."

Eventually it was the head teacher who took on the consultative role with an appropriate improvement in the situation, reported by the investigator:

"A much more relaxed atmosphere. Headteacher described friendly, constructive discussion with VS. He has asked for more progression in her plans and more adventurous artwork. Made suggestions for topic work which is now developing much better. VS supported everything he said. She found the discussion very useful. The headteacher likes her work on calculators. She has now grouped the children and adapted the calculator work to ability levels."

In this section the behaviour of some of those pairs whose interaction was maintained or increased has been described. Four sorts of progression were identified. In the first two instances some teachers who had tried to take on an

instructional role adapted that role or changed it completely. Sometimes this was accompanied with an increasingly friendly interaction between teacher and student teacher. In these cases there was an overlap with the third sub-group in which teachers and student teachers began to work as colleagues and at the same time to show an increasing warmth and respect towards each other in their relationships. In the final group teacher/student teacher pairs who had not previously worked closely together were encouraged to either by the action of an outside person or because there were serious problems with the student teacher's teaching.

Role of the tutors

The account above shows some clear changes in the relationships within the teacher/student teacher pairs from the first stage of the practice. The tutor also responded in different ways to these changing situations. Their corresponding behaviour will be outlined below.

Where a student teacher is "coping". If there were no apparent problems there was not an immediate spur to action and a number of tutors were subject to the "everything is all right" syndrome. The interaction had decreased because of a sense of satisfaction between teacher and student teacher that all was well and some tutors were prepared to agree and also be quite satisfied to "leave well alone." e.g.

Tutor 1 "I have no basic worries about her"

Tutor 10 "...They are both competent"

and "....There is no chance he will fail."

Tutors seemed to be almost expressing the view that there was little else for them to do. Tutor 9 tried to express her feelings to the rest of the group:

Tutor 9 "I think ...I have a threshold of competence in the classroom which I expect every student to meet. I sometimes think I set that threshold too high - but a student who meets that threshold, I'm almost so relieved they are there and I'm happy for whatever development comes beyond that and I don't actively promote much more I think.

Tutor 1 expressed that a little bit differently:

Tutor 1 "...Where a student can define a route which he or she is following...then I'm quite happy to let that student go off and hang herself if she wants to - fly a kite - demonstrate just how good she is, and I'm quite happy to let that happen."

Implicit in this statement is the view of teaching as a personal activity which one develops on one's own without outside interference. Tutor 6 working with OS seemed to have a similar view when she said:

Tutor 6 "I am looking for something where there might be a spark that I can develop or work from - not anything specific, just generally...I think a lot of that has to do with the class she is in - and the teacher."

Just as tutor 6 was not sure what she was looking for so tutor 9 would not be able to express exactly what her "level of competence" was, because it was intimately tied up with the classroom situation, the student teacher and the tutor's view of teaching. Whatever the case, it led to a situation where the student teacher's teaching was unproblematic and required a minimum of tutor input.

There was another factor which encouraged some tutors not to take significant action and this was expressed by tutor

9:

Tutor 9 "I feel a bit embarrassed about it in a way but I realise that I always hope that my student will have a competent, supportive, self-examining class teacher, not because it takes the heat off me, because it does, but also I think that's where the student's greatest help comes from and I see my role as topping up really if that ideal isn't approached to some extent."

Response to students' difficulties. Where there were problems with the student's teaching then the tutors acted to mobilise resources. It was important to note at this stage that not all the tutors were aware in every case of these difficulties because they had not noticed them and had not been informed (see case study 7). However, this was not typical and tutors did work to encourage the participation of teachers in helping students. The case of VS has already been referred to above. In this case the tutor recognised at this stage the difficulties of the student and the lack of support from the teacher, e.g.

Tutor 9 "I don't think she (the teacher) really wants to engage in a level of discussion which I think is necessary to get that student doing what she is capable of doing but isn't doing at the moment. ...So what I've done now is to ...to engineer a situation where the head has now agreed to spend the first half hour of every Monday morning going through the student's plans with the student."

Because help had not been forthcoming she explicitly requested the help of the headteacher and the results of this consultation are referred to above.

In school K where there had been little co-operation between teacher, student teacher and tutor, the serious situation again provoked action:

Tutor 8 "...Because right from the start, I felt that I couldn't put that relationship into any of

your categories at all and I couldn't make out why. But this time, only on Friday afternoon this week, the teacher suddenly came out with something which explained it in a sense - um - when I sort of jumped on her for help because I simply didn't know how to start to put right a most disastrous PE lesson - so I sort of said "Well, what can you do, what can we do?" - putting it in those kind of terms, and she suddenly said, "I've had students before but nobody has ever before asked me to be involved in this kind of way."

Again the positive effects of the teacher's subsequent efforts to help were beneficial for the student and are reported in case-study 14.

These examples of remedial action were comparable to what was already going on in other situations, (see case-studies 6, 10, 20) where diagnosis had been achieved more quickly.

Tutors taking a pro-active role. The discussion above has centred on situations where the tutor was satisfied and prepared to stand back and situations where there were problems which the tutor was obliged to address. However, there were a number of tutors who saw themselves as having a very positive role throughout the teaching practice including when the teacher/student teacher relationship had settled into an exclusive equilibrium (e.g. see above and case-studies 13 and 28). Tutor 11 expressed the concern of some tutors that students could be willing to "please the teacher" and that this might, under some circumstances, restrict further professional development:

Tutor 11 "...He did a very professional job....He was almost a chameleon teacher. He took on completely what the class teacher wanted and did it. How do we start to shape things beyond that?....I think that obviously the student's success in a school, in a specific situation, has to be a priority but

on the other hand it's our job as educators to give them a "sparkling".

Tutors 2, 3 4, 11, 13, 14, all tried to develop strategies to keep a positive and active relationship with the teaching practice situation but their efforts did not become apparent until the final stage of the teaching practice and will be reported later.

At this stage of the practice tutors could be faced with problems which had not been diagnosed earlier and required immediate action. This usually led to increased co-operation with the school. Where action was already being taken co-operatively with a teacher and a weak student teacher there was evidence that this continued with adaptations to meet the needs of the student teacher. Where student teachers were giving cause for concern tutors had to decide whether to allow every thing to develop without any interference and so act in a peripheral way to monitor the situation or they had to develop procedures to keep in touch with the teaching practice situation even when this was not easy and they were likely to be excluded by the teacher/student teacher team.

5.4 The third stage of the practice

By the third stage of the practice the interactional patterns between teachers and student teachers were quite well established so that there were no major changes in professional dialogue to chart. With only two pairs did this decrease. In the first of these the teacher felt that her instructional role was no longer required and the tutor

was satisfied that no further progress was possible (case-study 20). In the second case the headteacher in school V was no longer able to act as consultant to the student and the teacher did not take over that role (see case-study 26).

However, there were some significant changes at this stage of the practice which were related to the actions of a minority of tutors who were trying to improve situations with which they were not satisfied or to build on the good relationships they had established in the schools. Some illustrations of these developments will be considered below. The remainder of the trios continued to function very much as they had done at stage 2.

Tutors acting to maintain teacher/student teacher dialogue
The teacher/ student teacher pair JS/JT (case-study 13) have already been referred to in the previous section as a couple whose professional dialogue had decreased because, it was suggested, their teaching style was so similar that they took all their actions for granted and talk seemed unnecessary. As JS was "coping" well in that classroom it was a situation where the tutor could afford to stand back. This, however, was not the attitude of tutor 4. She was pleased with the progress which had been made but not satisfied to let matters rest. In general terms her attitude was expressed in this statement which she then related to this particular student teacher:

Tutor 4 "I think I have a notion of what that student could be, I think in my own mind...and if that notion is they could achieve certain things then

I would push them to the limit to try that - if I really feel that yes they are competent like I think I really did with JS."

and more specifically:

Tutor 4 "What I would really like to work on is to get her to work harder and to think things through thoroughly and she has not done that. JT's always covered over for her....so I've not had that sort of extra strength I would have liked - which is a pity."

As a result of her efforts she was instrumental in reversing the decrease in discussion in school J which was described earlier.

Tutor 4 "I prod the class teacher into making suggestions, which he then does, very useful ones."

and "I prompted him this morning saying "I noticed this JT what do you think?" Then he would say "Yes really you need quick short bursts of this" and then he would come in with things - but you have to prod hard."

It would seem that the tutor was successful, because JT said at the end of the practice:

JT "She is probably about the only tutor I think I have met where the three of us have actually sat down. I have had tutors who have talked about this poor old student who is standing right beside you and being totally ignored....yes I think that has helped because the student then knows both what the tutor wants and what I want, and usually we have come to an understanding, and that way she probably feels confident to go ahead."

And JS was equally pleased with the results:

JS "Yes I think it was one of the most helpful things. It wasn't me and the tutor and me and the teacher, it was the three of us together and I never had one occasion, for example, where the tutor said, "Oh why don't you do a thing" and the teacher said "Oh, do that" - you know where they disagreed - we just discussed it as a three."

Two further comparable examples can be found in case-studies 28 and 29.

In the second half of the practice tutor 3 tried, in a similar but less successful way, to change a strong social relationship between teacher and student teacher into a more effective professional relationship. She was worried that the teaching style of the teacher about which the tutor was critical was being taken over unreflectively by the student teacher. Very late on in the practice she tried to encourage the student teacher with the help of the teacher to initiate group work on a wider scale. To this teacher/student teacher pair complainingly agreed.

CT1 "Yes, because it is coming up now and we have got a week to go and we are still trying to work towards this goal which should have been defined a long, long time ago."

This tutor's efforts produced considerable antagonism in the teacher/student teacher pair. It seems quite likely that that was the outcome which tutors who did not act were trying to avoid.

Tutors developing responsive patterns of supervision

Some tutors took advantage of stable, supportive relationships between students teachers and teachers and their own acceptance by the pairs to develop their own supervision role. Tutor 11 working with a very effective teacher/student teacher pair (see case-study 17), took the opportunity to make the links between specific teaching points and more general issues.

Tutor 11 "I think with someone like NS, its easier because the ongoing position is so strong that you can actually in effect use a shorthand approach to point out where things were going wrong but what I find is perhaps a bit more

pertinent to the original question is that its far easier with someone NS's standard to generalise. I don't find that we discuss in such a specific classroom context"

Tutor 14 having worked hard initially to help WS and WT to work together now worked equally hard on enhancing the student teacher's experiences. She concentrated on two aspects. First, she began to work much more closely with the children themselves, so that she could give information to the student teacher about the effectiveness of her teaching.

Tutor 14 "I think I concentrate more on being with the children to actually pin-point particular things that she has been able to teach them."

Secondly, she worked hard to maintain the teacher's (WT) involvement with the student teacher at a time when she, the teacher, was beginning to have other responsibilities within the school.

Tutor 14 "I couldn't actually talk to the three because the teacher was in with the children. I had to speak to them separately and she (WT) suggested something that hadn't occurred to me that perhaps there were not enough facts going on. There were all these beautiful, imaginative things going on in the classroom which is lovely for the teaching practice but being a class teacher she (WS) would need to introduce more facts....Then I conveyed the things i.e. what the teacher had said, because WT hadn't liked to say anything to WS...and I suggested we did something on parents and a family tree....and immediately WS said "Yes, yes I think I'll do it" and immediately thought of a hundred other things she could do with the class as well."

It was possible to detect here the potential for hostility between the student and the teacher (i.e. that teaching practice is a time for doing wonderful things which a "real" teacher could not possibly find time to do) and this potential was also detectable in the investigator's notes.

Tutor 14 was very successful in defusing any awkwardness and at the same time she was assessing and re-assessing the expectations she should have of the student.

Tutor 14 "...And also I detected that if I pushed her any further it would start to cause her stress."

Helping student teachers with difficulties

Even in the third stage of the practice some student teachers were still described as weak and it has been pointed out above that weak student teachers usually generate special attention.

The close working relationship between tutor 4 and DT (case-study 6) meant that there was continual consultation and goal setting for DS.

However, two rather weak students teachers were not receiving help from the school and in both cases the tutors tried to fill a dual role (see case-studies 3 and 26).

Tutor 2 described her efforts:

Tutor 2 "...Which is why I think I also play a different role....because when I go in I go in to look at what she has been doing, to help her and think what we might do next in a way that the teacher would perhaps be doing (i.e. under different circumstances), but she opts out doesn't she?"

Subsequent discussion suggested that the tutor was participating in everyday planning and classroom management in a way which was different from her behaviour with other student teachers. In a very difficult situation it did, at least, provide some support for the student teacher but it created problems as well because the tutor was drawing on professional knowledge which was not directly related to

that particular context. The student teacher felt an unease with the tutor's recommendations:

BS "I think that like - well - my tutor was very good and I really got on with her but I don't think she understood some of the things that....and I don't think she understood what a state my classroom was in."

Decisions about teaching are made every moment of the day and the weekly visit of a tutor could hardly provide the regular feedback and joint planning which a competent class teacher could provide. This was reinforced by the difficulties experienced by tutor 9 and VS, referred to above when the head teacher was no longer able to act as counsellor and the class teacher wouldn't.

Summary

This section has indicated changes in professional behaviour during the final stages of the practice. It was significant that the teacher/student teacher relationships were very stable at this time as were many of the trio relationships. However, illustrations show how certain tutors could build on sound trio relationships to enhance the experience of the students. Different sorts of actions were appropriate in different situations. Tutors could adapt their strategies to focus on new aspects of the student teachers' practice, they could develop more analytical approaches to diagnosis of difficulties and they could act to bring teachers and student teachers into dialogue.

5.5 Discussion and implications

In section 5.0 certain assumptions about the nature of co-operation in supervision were outlined. These will be discussed with reference to the evidence outlined above and information from comparable studies.

Assumptions about co-operation

Evidence showed that co-operative relationships developed between teacher/student teacher pairs and within trios. It was exceptional for there to be no co-operation. However there were wide variations in the nature of the co-operation and the attempts by the participants to achieve that co-operation.

In the early stages of the practice the teachers were in the best position to be pro-active in initiating interaction within the teacher/student teacher pairs and a number of teachers showed well developed strategies for achieving this. Other teachers were less successful and this was for a number of reasons: that they were uncertain of their role; that they were unhappy in the teaching practice situation; that they were reserved people who found interaction difficult; that circumstances in the school made relationships uneasy. (The case-studies provide examples of all of these).

As outlined in chapter 2 the evidence in the literature points to the role of student teachers in this process and this was also the case here. Student teachers recognised

the difficulties of the situation in which they were placed but could greatly enhance professional interaction by: being willing to listen; asking for advice; being appreciative; being sensitive in consultation. All of these factors contributed to forming good social relationships and these from a professional point of view could sometimes restrict professional dialogue. McAlpine et al. (1988) have pointed to the difficulties of sharing professional dialogue and Goodman (1986), Brown (1981) and Zeichner and Liston (1987) have suggested some qualities of students which are likely to enhance this. The student teachers in this study were also different in their capacity to promote professional dialogue. Some of the reasons for this will be developed at a later stage in the analysis.

There were also marked differences in the professional co-operation within the trios. Perhaps because of the way the project was set up, no anxieties were expressed by the teachers about their lack of control of the teaching practice situation. In fact the only teacher who complained was making a complaint against her own school situation because her responsibilities restricted the time she could spend with the student (case-study 16).

A number of tutors reported that they had spent much more time in dialogue with the class teachers but again this was affected by factors of personality and the willingness on the part of the participants to be involved. The problematic nature of trios suggested by Boydell (1986) was apparent in a number of cases (see case-studies 4 and

13 for a comparison). In fact, some student teachers could see the potential for their gain in the triadic relationship, e.g.

XS1 "I think in some cases you tend to - I'm not playing them off against each other in the sense of - um - but you can sort of relate - if you think the teacher's doing something wrong and you know that the tutor, you know, agrees with you, and the same with the teacher, . I know that sounds awful, siding with whoever is there at the time but I don't know if it does you any harm if the tutor and the teacher don't get on."

and GS "I had that throughout. My tutor and teacher were nice to each other when they were there, but behind each others' backs I had to stick up for them all saying "Well he means well and he's only doing what he thinks". It was a difficult position to be in really."

The last illustration was not typical but shows the potential for disagreement. What was probably more important was the way limits were set upon interaction. Despite the nature of the project some tutors in particular did not make serious efforts to initiate interaction with teachers unless there were serious problems with the student teacher.

Co-operation and diagnosis

It was evident that the interaction between teacher and student teacher was an indicator of the needs of the student. This can be illustrated in: case-study 10 when a weak student teacher was receiving a lot of practical help from the teacher; case-study 26 when a weak student teacher was receiving no help; case-study 16 when a student teacher was "re-inventing the wheel" every week because he was not discussing his teaching with the teacher; case-study 8

where the sensitive interaction was greatly enhancing professional development; case-study 13 where a drop in level of teacher/student teacher interaction was restricting the student teacher's professional development. In each case-study it was possible to draw out significant information about the relationship which has implications for supervision and the role of the tutor.

It was also significant that in some cases the tutor did not have information about the interaction between teacher and student teacher. This did not appear to be that they were unhappy with "the inactivity of supervision" (Rust, 1988, p.58), on the contrary, even the most inexperienced tutors accepted that role. What seemed much more in evidence was the notion of "normal desirable states" (Brown et al., 1988, p.5) i.e. that as long as there were no problems there was no need to delve into classroom matters unnecessarily. Even when there were problems, some of the tutors and the teachers still seemed to have the view identified by Richardson-Koehler (1988) that people learn about teaching for themselves.

Developmental aspects of teaching practice

In chapter 1 developmental approaches to supervision practice were outlined. Specifically it was suggested that supervision strategies would change at different points in the teaching practice and be responsive to different levels of professional development (Cohn and Gellman, 1988; Hoover et al., 1988; McIntyre, 1988). There was clear evidence in this study that different student teachers might benefit

from different approaches and that this was also related to the time in the practice. For example NS (case-study 17) benefited from ego-counselling (Richardson-Koehler, 1988) in the early stages when she was settling into a complex classroom environment and she benefited greatly from a clinical approach when she had established herself in the classroom.

However, the situation in practice was more complex than that suggested by Richardson-Koehler (1988) and was much more related to the nature of a specific situation. For example, NS did not require the situational teaching approach from her supervisor because the close professional relationship which she had with the teacher ensured that that went on all the time.

This aspect of the work will be developed in later chapters. It is enough to say that students teachers develop professionally over a teaching practice in such a way that different supervision strategies are appropriate at different times. The way in which strategies are matched to students is quite complex.

Tutor influence on teacher/student teacher relationships

If teacher/student teacher relationships were important in the professional development of students then it was important to know what implications these might have for tutor practice. The question of whether tutors can use an understanding of those relationships diagnostically has already been discussed above. The issue now is whether a

tutor can act to influence those relationships. The evidence from the study outlined above was that tutors could influence those relationships if they recognised their nature, had a clear idea about what they wanted to achieve and were able to deal sensitively with the personal and social aspects of the situation.

5.6 Summary

It has been suggested that teacher/student teacher co-operation is an important factor for good or bad in professional development of student teachers. They can be enhanced by strategies initiated by the teacher but the student teacher and tutor input can also be significant.

Although good social relationships form the basis for professional relationships they can sometimes be restrictive. Social relationships can stay warm but the nature of the professional co-operation within the pair and within the triad will need to change over the course of the practice if the student teacher is to receive a worthwhile experience. Tutors are in a position to influence that change but in order to do so they need to have information and some blueprint for action. The potential of the typology to enhance that process will be the consideration in the next two chapters.

CHAPTER 6

VALIDATING THE TYPOLOGY

6.0 Introduction

6.1 Teacher/pupil

Description

Some actual examples of teacher/pupil relationships

Potential teacher/pupil relationships

Teacher/pupil, an inappropriate relationship

Modifying the description of the teacher/pupil relationship

6.2 Collaborators

Description

Some actual examples of collaborator relationships

Potential collaboration

Modifying the description of the collaborator relationship

6.3 Protagonists

Description

Some actual examples of protagonist relationships

Potential protagonist relationships

6.4 Summary

6.0 Introduction

Chapter 5 has shown the importance and complexity of the teacher/student relationship during the teaching practice. More than this, there was a clear indication that the teacher can influence the experience for the student teacher for better or for worse and that the tutor can play a role in that process. If this is the case, then any help which the tutor can get in understanding the teacher/student teacher relationship has the potential to be beneficial.

During the course of the second study a typology describing teacher/student teacher relationships was identified. This is set out in chapter 3. In chapter 1 and in chapter 5 the importance of diagnosing student teachers' needs was stressed. Because the typology was developed out of the perceptions of experienced tutors, it seemed to offer the potential for helping tutors to search for appropriate information and to choose appropriate supervision strategies. There are two stages in validating this approach:

- to show that the descriptions of the typology are consistent with the perceptions of the tutors and what actually happens in classrooms
- to indicate how the system would work in practice.

This chapter will be concerned with the first of these requirements. Using the case studies, the nature of teacher/student teacher relationships will be examined against each type described in the typology. Each type will be discussed in turn under the following headings:

1. The description of the type from the second study
2. Actual examples of relationships which conformed to that type in the third study
3. Potential examples of relationships which conformed to that type in the third study
4. Examples of situations where attempts were made to form that sort of relationship but inappropriately
5. A discussion of how the description of that type might be modified in the light of the evidence from the third study.

Item 4 was added to the list on the grounds that identifying where a relationship is not appropriate is another way of specifying the nature and characteristics of that type of relationship.

6.1 Teacher/pupil

Description

In the second study this type was characterised by a student teacher who for a variety of reasons, (i.e. lack of confidence; without necessary previous experience; ill prepared; faced with a complex classroom structure and organisation), or a combination of reasons, does not seem to be competent to deal with the classroom routine as it is or to be able to replace it with an alternative. The teacher/pupil relationship is effected when the teacher devises a programme whereby the student teacher is initiated into the classroom procedures step by step. The teacher may set the aims for the teaching and play an important role in the planning. The teacher may also simplify the classroom routine, help in the preparation of materials and take out small groups of children to make the teaching less difficult.

Some actual examples of teacher/pupil relationship

RS1/RT1	- case study 22
HS1/HT1	- case study 10
DS/DT	- case study 6
KS/KT	- case study 14
XS1/XT1	- case study 28
LS/LT	- case study 15
QS1/QT1	- case study 20
CS1/CT1	- case study 4

An examination of the first block of four teacher/student teacher pairs will indicate student teachers who were having difficulties in the early stages of the practice. HS1 and RS2 were having difficulties with rather complex classroom organisations in Reception and Y2 classes respectively, DS could not satisfy the high expectations of the teacher in a Y5 class and KS, left to her own devices in organising a large and lively Y2 class, was completely lost.

With the first three of these pairs action was taken by the teacher immediately to direct the student teachers and in some instances to simplify the requirements being made of them. In the fourth case this action did not take place until later on in the practice but, when it did, it had all the same characteristics of the other three.

With the three pairs in the second group the situation was slightly different. The student teachers did not face serious difficulties during the first weeks of the practice but there was an expectation that they might. In the case of QS1 and LS the teachers had that information and acted to forestall any difficulties. This involved the same

careful supervision as the student teachers in the first group received. With XS1 the student teacher had had a previous difficult practice but there was no information that the teacher knew about this. Rather, she acted as an instructor because that was how she expected to act with a student teacher. The outcome for the student was the same as for the others in the group.

In the final case CS1/CT1, there was no evidence of serious weakness on the part of the student teacher but towards the end of the practice the tutor's increasing dissatisfaction with the unwillingness of the student to be more adventurous in her teaching finally led to her making a specific requirement of the student to develop group activities in the classroom. This was difficult for the student teacher and the help of the teacher was enlisted. Her guidance in that particular aspect of teaching was comparable to that given by the other teachers referred to above.

Potential teacher/pupil relationships

IS/IT	- case study 12
VS/VT	- case study 26
ES/ET	- case study 7
US2/UT2	- case study 25
XS2/XT2	- case study 29
BS/BT	- case study 3

In the first group the student teachers were experiencing difficulties in the classroom. Their organisation was very uncertain, the quality of the teaching was criticised and with this came the inevitable lack of control of the children. The difference between these and the first set of

pairs described above was that there was no corresponding teacher reaction. With VS, some help from the headteacher was eventually negotiated by the tutor. With ES, again some help was forthcoming but without the encouragement of the tutor this was only partially maintained. This was a group of student teachers who had many problems which could have been addressed with close instructional help from the class teacher.

In the second group BS had similar difficulties although they were not as severe as those in the previous group. US2 and XS2 had more specific difficulties in that their teaching was in many ways very well prepared and sometimes effective. However, there were factors in the classroom that restricted its effectiveness. In all these situations an instructional role on the part of the teacher could have been of help. However, for different reasons this was not possible. BT, a supply teacher, was having just as many problems as BS and felt unable to contribute except with sympathy and sometimes help in preparing resources. XT1 was in a somewhat similar position because she was also a supply teacher facing a lively class in a disadvantaged area for the first time. Like BT she was also unable to act in an instructional role. However, she did develop an alternative but positive relationship with the student teacher which will be considered below.

US2 was a creative and hardworking student teacher dealing with a very difficult class. Much of his careful planning

was made ineffective by the inappropriate behaviour of the children. It might have been expected that the teacher would be able to offer useful advice at this stage and she did offer some. However, the contrast between her as a person and her student teacher with its implications for teaching style were so marked that the student was unable to adopt her manner with the children. In this sense the teachers described in Rust's (1988) study were right that the development of teaching strategies is a personal process to which others cannot contribute. The subsequent interaction of this pair will be discussed at a later stage.

Teacher/pupil an inappropriate relationship

PS/PT	case study 19
WS/WT	case study 27

In two cases the teachers saw their role in the early stages as one of instructor and tried to act accordingly. In both cases the students teachers not only had a good degree of competence in the early stages but they were also resourceful, independent and in one case very creative. The role of the teacher as instructor was quite inappropriate at that time and rejected by the student teachers. In the one case, PS/PT, this led to the teacher withdrawing from the relationship and in the other with the teacher adapting her role.

Modifying the description of the teacher/pupil relationship
A review of some examples from the greater number of pairs in the third study supports the description of the

teacher/pupil relationship which developed out of the second study. A number of comments can help to clarify that description.

1. The instructional role is likely to be an element at the beginning of most teaching practices when teachers are explaining the organisation of their classes. However, it is often superseded so quickly that it is not apparent and in fact may just come in the form of information given during an initial visit. The possibilities of helping student teachers benefit more from these is worth consideration.

2. The teacher/pupil role is not always one which is in operation for a particular period of time and then superseded. It might also be part of another supervision strategy just brought into play for a particular purpose, e.g. to experiment with group work.

3. The attempt to use a teacher/pupil strategy can be counter-productive:

- for some student teachers for whom it is not necessary and who may lose confidence in their own autonomy if someone tries to instruct them
- in some situations where it may seem appropriate for the student teacher but the teacher cannot take on that role.

6.2 Collaborators

Description

In the second study an important characteristic of collaborators was what appeared to be a shared understanding about what should be going on in the classroom. This could be associated with warm social

relationships and sometimes similar personal characteristics. Certainly there was expression of shared beliefs. Planning and teaching were shared and at best there was a great deal of discussion about how the teaching should be conducted and what progress the children were making. The methods of teaching were usually those which were characteristic of the class and the discussion focused on how to make those more effective. There was evidence of real team teaching which could be achieved easily because the two participants worked in a comparable way.

Some actual examples of collaborator relationships

HS2/HT2	case study 11
RS2/RT2	case study 23
XS1/XT1	case study 28
NS/NT	case study 17
XS2/XT2	case study 29
FS/FT	case study 8
JS/JT	case study 13
CS1/CT1	case study 4

The first two pairs illustrate well the collaborator situation described above. In neither of these cases was any anxiety expressed about the teaching practice by any of the participants (teacher, student teacher, tutor). HS2 and RS2 were both reported to be lively, well prepared student teachers with ideas of their own and a good level of competence. Both seemed to be incorporated into well organised classrooms from the first day. There were no reports of the classroom organisation being changed or adapted for the student teachers, but there was evidence of the class teachers being readily available or on the spot.

There was no evidence that the students were worried by the regular presence of the teachers. In fact the evidence suggests the opposite. There were, however, reports of regular and sustained conversation between the pairs and extensive team working. The planning and teaching was notable for the joint input, i.e. one partner did not act as a "senior" partner, rather each respected the contribution of the other. All the evidence suggested that the partners liked one another. All the participants were lively, competent, independent but the pairs were able to form a partnership of mutual respect where each had equal standing.

With the third pair in the first sub-group the student teacher had started off in a teacher/pupil relationship (see above). As the student teacher and teacher gained confidence in each other, the relationship changed and the student formed a closely knit team with the teacher and the nursery nurse which was characterised by team planning and teaching.

With those pairs in the second sub-group the relationships were equally friendly and mutually supportive and had very much in common with the description above. The significant difference was that the student teachers did not go into a classroom which had a definite and well established routine. For different reasons the classes were in a state of re-organisation. For example, X52 was the student teacher referred to above who had been placed with a supply teacher in a class where the present classroom organisation

was being rejected because it did not work and no replacement had been agreed. Under these circumstances the student teachers did not become integrated into a classroom organised in a particular way and then make their contribution. They were actually part of the re-organisation and shared in every way with that task. Apart from that the nature of the co-operation was directly comparable to that described above with the pairs negotiating their attitudes as well as their teaching.

The final small group of two showed some notable differences from those described above but significant similarities. In each case there was a warm social relationship within the pair and it was clear that the student teachers were integrated, early, into the organisation of the class in an unproblematic way. Their agreement about teaching style and content was also apparent and in the early stages there was discussion and some team teaching. However, once that situation had been established, the need for discussing their work together seemed, to them, to be unnecessary. Each member of each pair took for granted that the teaching would be carried out in a particular way which made talk superfluous. The idea that anything might be done differently did not arise and such talk as there was was only to reinforce their agreement. This situation could best be described as implicit collaboration.

Potential collaboration

PS/PT	case study 19
QS1/QT1	case study 20
BS/BT	case study 3

These three pairs have already been referred to under the teacher/pupil section above. PS was a student teacher who was treated by the teacher as if she was in need of instruction. In fact, the student teacher was able to function quite effectively in the class and did not react well to that approach. As a result the teacher withdrew from the interaction and the two, without any antagonism, taught almost in parallel. However, it was quite clear that the student teacher missed very badly the opportunity to discuss her planning and to receive feedback on her teaching. The situation suggested the possibility that a collaborative relationship could have been developed. The potential for this was made even greater by the fact that they were actually sharing the children for some of the teaching, i.e. the class was split into ability groups for some core curriculum areas, with all the possibilities for joint action which that could have presented.

The second student teacher QS1 had a very successful teacher/pupil relationship with her teacher until such time as she became competent in the eyes of the teacher and the teacher withdrew from professional discussion. However, the tutor's comments suggested that there was still room for professional development and a new sort of relationship with the teacher could have encouraged this. The close working relationship which they had had during the first

half of the practice and the comments of the tutor about characteristics which they had in common suggested that a collaborative relationship could have been developed.

The final student teacher in this section, BS, was only just coping in a difficult Y2 class. She was working with a supply teacher who had only just joined the school and who was having similar difficulty with the class. Like XS2/XT2 referred to above there was the possible potential for these two people with a common problem to work together to remediate the situation.

Modifying the description of the collaborative relationship

As with the teacher/pupil relationship, the evidence from a review of the data supports the description of the collaborative relationship. However, a close scrutiny of the case studies suggests the possibility of some modifications that widen the the scope of the previous description. These are outlined below:

1. Although some collaborative relationships developed very early on in the teaching practice, others developed out of a teacher/pupil relationship after the student teacher had "outgrown" that sort of help.

2. A collaborative relationship can develop in a classroom situation where there is a well established organisation and a confident well organised teacher. It was apparent that given the right conditions it was not

inevitable that the inexperienced student teacher would be overwhelmed by such a situation. Within the parameters of that organisation, modifications could be made by the student teacher and by the pair together.

3. A collaborative relationship could also be developed in a classroom that was lacking a well developed organisation or even any organisation at all. In this case the planning was a genuine co-operative response to the uncharted situation. The characteristics that made this a collaboration and not another sort of relationship (see below) was the equality of the partnership and the joint responsibility/accountability.

4. An aspect of collaboration that arose out of the data of the third study was that of quality. There was always a danger in a collaborative situation that reflection would not be a part of the learning of the student teacher. In a well organised class close discussion of the teaching and the children's learning even within limited parameters could offer some opportunities for reflection. Where the planning for new forms of organisation and teaching were a joint responsibility this was even more likely to promote reflection. However, there were situations in this study where the acceptance of a shared understanding about the teaching restricted reflection almost completely. The teaching carried on in the normal way with no place for change. In this case the quality of the collaboration was a point of concern.

5. Related to (4) above was the problem of assumptions being made about the nature of teaching which it was assumed were shared with the student teacher. There were times when this was not the case and the bewildered student teacher was "fishing" for clues as to what the teacher was expecting. This can only be described in ambiguous terms as a "one-sided" collaboration or an "assumed " collaboration.

6.3 Protagonists

Description

It was typical in this type of relationship to find a student teacher who was independent and often working in a way which was different from that of the class teacher. It could offer considerable possibilities for hostility between the teacher and the student teacher if there was not sensitivity and forbearance on the part of the participants. Co-operation was achieved when the teacher and student teacher recognised each others rights and points of view and shared these, as well as their planning. If there was any team teaching it usually took the form of the teacher taking out groups of children as the student teacher had finished working with them or taking out groups of children so that the student could experiment. Under these circumstances the teacher would work with a chosen group of children usually in a place other than the classroom.

Actual examples of protagonist relationships

US1/UT1	case study 24
QS1/QT2	case study 21
WS/WT	case study 27
GS/GT	case study 9
US2/UT2	case study 25

The first two pairs offer positive illustrations of protagonist pairs. In both cases they developed strong, positive, professional relationships and in this sense they were comparable to some of the collaborators but with some notable differences. Despite the evidence of warm, supportive relationships there was also evidence of a feeling of independence on the part of the students teachers. Acknowledgement was made of the input of the teachers especially where the student teachers recognised a weakness in themselves, but there was a sense in which they saw their planning as their own and took responsibility for it and its results. The teachers also had well developed and quite individual styles of teaching of their own and all the participants were able to compare and contrast their own strengths and weaknesses and appreciate each others. Particularly noticeable with these pairs were the occasions when teachers went into the classroom just to see and learn from the way the student teacher was teaching.

This last characteristic was also noticeable with WT and GT, the teacher members of the second sub-group. These pairs also developed a professional dialogue after a potentially difficult start. In both cases there was an uncertainty on the part of the teachers about what the

student teacher was doing. In the one case this was expressed in criticism and in the other with a reserve on the part of the teacher which was interpreted by the student as criticism. These difficulties were overcome to create useful working relationships although without the warmth and rigour of the first two pairs.

The final pair has already been referred to under 6.1. US2 was having difficulty with a class which was hard to handle despite his excellent planning and proposed teaching strategies. It was pointed out above that he was unable to "learn" the teacher's methods because, personally, he could not put into practice her idiosyncratic style. Even her presence in the classroom was a disruption to his teaching. With the very good social relationship which these two had built, the ingredients for a protagonist relationship were there, except that the student teacher did not have the degree of competence in that situation which was usually associated with that relationship. However he was supported by the professional dialogue (as well as all the social dialogue) that went on all the time, and the discussion of strategies and their trial implementation (always reported to the teacher after the teaching session). At the same time the teacher was appreciative of some of the very original ideas which he introduced into the classroom.

Potential protagonist relationships

LS/LT	case study 15
MS/MT	case study 16
NS/NT	case study 17

The pair LS/LT have already been referred to as a pair which established a teacher/pupil relationship early in practice. LS was a potentially weak student teacher whose professional development was very noticeable indeed in the warm, supportive atmosphere of her school. However, as her confidence and competence grew the class teacher spent less and less time with her and more time with her other school responsibilities. In fact LS was acting in a quite innovative way in the classroom and would have benefited from the chance to discuss her developing insights. Like the student teachers referred to in the previous section, she was an independent person and she was also teaching in a way which was in quite marked contrast to that of the class teacher. These circumstances along with the excellent relationship which she had with the class teacher suggested the potential for a protagonist relationship and with it the opportunity to justify her actions and modify them by sharing the experience.

MS/MT were a pair who could not really be said to have developed a co-operative relationship at all. The student teacher learned about the complicated classroom organisation on his initial visits, the teacher stayed in the class to check that there were no problems during the first week and then was involved in other school activities. The totally different approach to the implementation of the group work characteristic of that school had tremendous potential for professional dialogue

but neither person was really aware of what the other was doing.

It could be suggested that in the uneven power situation of a teaching practice there is a certain amount of pressure on student teachers who have achieved a certain level of competence to attempt to collaborate with the class teacher. This feeling was put into words by XS1 and indeed when she had moved from a teacher/pupil relationship she began to collaborate with the class teacher.

However, there was some evidence of moves towards a protagonist relationship in two pairs which had previously collaborated most successfully. Towards the end of the practice when the teacher had many other responsibilities which took him away from the classroom, it was interesting to see that NS began to implement different ways of working and to talk about the shortcomings of some of the ways which had been used before. It was likely that this reflective approach developed from the discussion which had gone on before but it was interesting to speculate about the potential value professionally for that student teacher of a protagonist type situation. This situation was repeated in the case of XS1, which was particularly interesting because it showed a progression from teacher/pupil through collaborator to protagonist modes.

6.4 Discussion

The aim in the chapter was to show whether or not the typology as described in chapter 3 was consistent with the

perceptions of the tutors and the experience of the other participants in this larger sample.

Relating the case studies to the descriptions of the typology

It was possible to relate each of the pairs to one or more of the descriptions in the typology. This was done in different ways.

1. Sometimes the relationships contained all or most of the elements of a particular relationship described in the typology and it was possible to say it was a particular type of relationship. The evidence was checked from the information from all the participants and the interpretations were checked with the tutors.

2. There were instances where the essence of the type as described was apparent in a relationship and this led to a modification of the description.

3. There were instances where, despite the preparations for the teaching practice, the extent of the co-operation was minimal. In this case the circumstances of the situation were examined carefully to see if they were consistent with one of the types as described or showed potential for classification .

4. In some cases the elements of a type were in operation in an inappropriate situation. Under these circumstances an attempt was made to see if it was possible to deduce an appropriate classification from the background if the participants had been able to adapt their behaviour. This

process produced what could be termed negative examples of the typology.

Extending definitions in the typology

As a result of the process described above there were some modifications to the typology which were agreed by the tutor team to fit the evidence. These have been described in the chapter above. Two points were made which are significant enough to be reinforced:

1. The definition of the collaborators was extended to include an element of quality. This was seen to be justified by the evidence. The collaborator relationship always showed the potential to exclude the tutor from a firm teacher/student teacher relationship and to have the potential for restricting a reflective approach because of the common understandings of teacher and student teacher. At best these problems did not arise because the team shared a reflective approach. However, at the other end of the spectrum the shared beliefs became so much common sense that they no longer needed to be articulated.

2. The other point that needed to be addressed was what seemed to be overlap between the most co-operative protagonists and those collaborators who developed a team approach to defining a new situation. The feature that separated these two was the degree of independence between the teacher and student teacher. In a protagonist situation the student teacher and teacher each maintained her/his independent and different viewpoint while at the

same time having a sincere respect for that of the partner. In the reflective collaborator situation the views were negotiated and then shared. Some trouble has been taken to establish this distinction because of its relevance to the corresponding supervision practice of the tutor.

Relating the discussion to other studies of supervision practice

At this stage the discussion is concerned with the supervisory role of the teacher rather than that of the tutor. However, it is helpful to see how this relates to different forms of supervision practice described in other studies.

1. Zahorik (1988) identifies three main types of university supervision (see chapter 1):

- behaviour prescription
- idea interpretation
- person support.

Within the behaviour prescription type he identifies a subtype labelled the master. According to Zahorik (1988):

The master supervisor prescribed instructional and management practices from the perspective of an experienced, expert teacher. (p.11)

He was referring to the tutor's role but in this co-operative situation it was exactly a role that the most effective teacher/pupil teachers took upon themselves.

A further subtype in the behaviour prescription category was the scholar supervisor, who according to Zahorik (1988):

...presented research evidence to the student teacher effective teaching behaviours and urged the student

teachers to use the behaviours. (p.11)

This seems to be much more in line with Cohn and Gellman's (1988) view of situational teaching which included the reinforcement of theoretical approaches introduced in the college courses. It was generally not characteristic of the approach of the teachers in this study, although possible with some individuals.

Zahorik's (1988) mentor who "presented wise advice to the student teachers" (p.11) was characteristic of the least effective teachers but his critic (which is hard to distinguish from the person support category) who "collected evidence" and "provided analysis and interpretation of behaviours" (p. 11) was characteristic of one of the teacher/pupil teachers (QT1), who worked most effectively in this role.

Zeichner and Liston (1987), using Van Manen's analysis to classify supervision behaviour, refer to technical rationality which seems to include most of Zahorick's (1988) subtypes. This does not really distinguish between the teachers' behaviour in this study since each would be offering instruction in skills based on their own classroom practice. However, Zeichner and Liston's second "level of reflection" was:

...based upon a conception of practical action whereby the problem is one of explicating and clarifying the assumptions and pre-dispositions underlying practical affairs and assessing the educational consequences toward which an action leads. (p.24)

If the teachers in this study were asked whether they were doing that they would probably have denied it. However,

there is no doubt that there were elements of this in different circumstances. In the teacher /pupil relationship the most effective teachers explained to the students why they did things in a particular way. There was also potential for that sort of dialogue in the protagonist situation when teacher and student teacher really did begin to justify their own way of doing things. There was also potential in those collaborator pairs who were planning a new system together. It is possible that there were elements of this approach in the other collaborator relationships but there could always be the possibility there that the teachers were involved in what Zahorick (1988) calls idea interpretation, i.e.

...presenting beliefs to the student teacher that the supervisor had about what classrooms and schools ought to be like. (p.11)

This usually did not happen in a teacher/pupil situation because the views of the teacher tended to be taken for granted and the emphasis was on the student attaining competence. However, the actions of a person are underpinned with their beliefs and it is almost inevitable that students would receive messages about beliefs. It was equally inevitable that, where a strong personal relationship was developed, exchange of views about teaching would also form part of the conversation particularly in a collaborative situation and a very positive protagonist situation. In the former the views may not be exchanged in a very critical atmosphere.

At times it is important to try to distinguish between

those categories of different theorists which seem to have much in common. Cohn and Gellman (1988) refer to ego counselling as a necessary component in the early stages of the practice. Zahorik (1988), on the other hand, identifies a type called a person support supervisor. Both of these seem to be concerned with strategies intended to give support to the student teacher. However, Zahorick's support seems to be intended to create a climate in which a student teacher can think for her/himself including asking pertinent questions about the situation in which s/he finds her/himself. This seems to be consistent with two of the categories outlined by Zeichner and Liston (1987) i.e. explicating practical action and addressing moral and ethical issues. It has already been suggested above that the former of these was an aspect of some classroom situations. The latter was rarely apparent in the teacher/student interaction which could have been because it did not happen or that it was not mentioned to the investigator. The latter seems more likely and this is supported in the experience of McIntyre (1991). Ego counselling seems to be a much more general concept concerned with making the student teacher feel comfortable in a new professional situation and able to act in the school situation. This will be discussed below.

2. As discussed in chapter 1 a number of researchers have drawn attention to the developmental aspects of teaching practice and the corresponding changes in supervision strategies. It is helpful to consider how the evidence from

a study of teacher/student teacher relationships supports this point of view.

It was clear that the student teachers did develop in confidence and competence and this did influence and was influenced by the co-operation within the pairs. All the teacher/student teacher pairs showed an initial period of familiarisation which was usually the fore-runner to the development of a working relationship. This working relationship was usually related to the needs of the student teacher in that classroom and reflected the personal characteristics of the people involved. There was also evidence that the relationships changed either with the teacher adopting a different and more appropriate role or withdrawing from the interaction.

King (1985), working with experienced teachers, suggested a matching of the supervision strategy to the professional needs of the teacher but his classification of "professional" includes quite an important personal element because this is related to professional progress. The teacher/student teacher types also combined these elements and the evidence suggested that the types in practice were not defined by the strategy used but by the needs of the student teacher in that situation. Where a teacher implemented a strategy because that was the way s/he expected to work it was not effective.

Cohn and Gellman (1988) have suggested a definite developmental pattern for student teachers on teaching

practice i.e.

ego counselling > situational teaching > clinical supervision.

The results of this study suggests that the idea of a developmental approach is helpful and reflects the situation but that the specific proposals over-simplify the situation. Because Cohn and Gellman (1988) are referring specifically to the role of the tutor, a closer discussion of this approach will be undertaken in the following chapter, when the complementary role of the tutor is considered in more detail.

6.5 Summary

This chapter has addressed the issue of whether the descriptions of the typology are consistent with the perceptions of the tutors and what actually happens in classrooms. The evidence suggests that this is the case.

At the same time the typology developed out of the tutors' behaviour and was adapted to make it fit better the experience of participants on teaching practice. It was suggested in chapter 4 that tutors develop professional knowledge about students and teaching which directs their supervision behaviour. If the typology is consistent with the way tutors construe the teaching practice situation, then it may be possible to use it as a means to enhance supervision by helping tutors to access information more quickly and offering guidelines to supervision behaviour

which are consistent with the way they view the situation.

The way this may be done is discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 7

USING THE TYPOLOGY TO ENHANCE PRACTICE

7.0 Introduction

Reviewing the argument

Outlining the chapter

7.1 Justifying the use of the typology

7.2 A consideration of how the typology might be used

Establishing co-operation

The early stages of the practice

Nature of the relationship between teacher and student teacher

Looking for efficacy

When a teacher/pupil situation is not appropriate

Strategies for development

Moving from an initial teacher/pupil relationship

Collaborators

Protagonists

Maintaining a teacher/pupil relationship

Demands on tutors

7.3 The typology working in practice

Developing from a teacher/pupil situation

Modifying a teacher/pupil approach

Development as a progression through three types

Enhancing a collaborative relationship

Sustaining a protagonist relationship

Diagnosis and development

7.4 Discussion

Summarising the chapter

Relationship between the recommendations
and the case study material

Relationship with other studies of supervision
practice

 The nature of supervisory style
 Adapting supervisory style

Aims of supervision

7.0 Introduction

Reviewing the argument

Before going on to consider the use of the typology it will be helpful to review the argument so far.

It has been argued that tutors in a teaching practice situation were importantly influenced by the circumstances in which they and the student teachers were placed. All their actions were directed or modified by those circumstances. The relationships between individual student teachers and their co-operating teachers were very significant and if efforts had been made to enhance co-operation then the significance was likely to be greater. It has been further suggested that the context was defined in the relationship between the teacher and the student teacher because this relationship reflected the relevant factors, i.e. the organisation and management of the class, the children, the curriculum, the participants.

Interacting with the context was the personal input of the tutor. A framework which describes the structure of tutors' thinking was outlined in chapter 4. This suggested that the tutor was directed by considerations of the student teacher's efficacy in that class and then by the personal focus of the tutor. These factors in turn were modified by range, degree of analysis, speed and confidence.

In simple terms the tutor had two tasks:

- to see if the student was managing adequately in that situation
- in the light of that information to decide on the next step and take appropriate action.

In the process of doing these tasks the tutor:

- looked for information
- experimented with different strategies.

In looking for information the tutor was faced with two of the difficulties already referred to, i.e. the lack of time and the comparative marginality which a tutor may feel in the school situation. In any new situation tutors were often not exactly sure what they were looking for initially.

Taking experimental action could also be problematic. The tutors' sensitivity about the context of the school was apparent in the tape transcripts (see chapter 4). They were very aware that they might take action which would not be appropriate in that school, in which case they sometimes felt that they would not be acting in the best interests of the student teacher.

If there was satisfaction that the student teacher was coping with the classroom situation, the tutor could sometimes be even more uncertain about what to do next. At this stage their personal focus would come into play with its different levels of expectation (see chapter 4) and a lack of knowledge about how appropriate these might be for the student in this situation. So more information gathering would be necessary and more time needing to be spent.

In other words the tutors were faced with the twin issues of diagnosis of student need and student professional

development over the practice.

There was one further alternative which was open to tutors and that was to do very little. If they took this approach they avoided the dangers of doing anything "wrong" in the school and they could usually be satisfied that if things were too bad they would eventually hear about it. All tutors did something but there were cases, particularly if reasonable efficacy seemed to have been achieved, when tutors took on a very marginal role which entailed visiting the school each week and checking that there were no outstanding problems.

To summarise the situation, if tutors were going to act they needed:

- appropriate information on which to base decisions
- a blue-print for appropriate action related to that information.

It has been suggested that the typology could enhance both these processes. As well as this it is being suggested that the typology may have potential in another way.

In chapter 2 it was argued that supervision like teaching is a professional skill and as such is built up by a process of reflection-in-action (Schon 1983). Critical reflection of practice has not been easy for tutors because of the isolation in their work. The framework outlined in chapter 4 offered a starting point for tutors to reflect on the way they organise their professional knowledge. The further suggestion is being made that the typology also can enhance the reflective process, by helping tutors to apply

theory in an appropriate way.

Outlining the chapter

The aim of this chapter is to show how the typology may be used to help in the three processes described above. In order to do this the chapter will be sequenced as follows:

- establishing the credibility of the typology as an instrument which is compatible with the way tutors actually work
- hypothesising about how the typology could work to enhance supervision in the ways described above
- reviewing the evidence from the study to see if it is consistent with the above.

7.1 Justifying the use of the typology

It has been argued in chapter 5 that tutors use their own professional knowledge to direct their supervision behaviour and that any heuristic device to enhance supervision must be compatible with the way tutors perceive the situation in schools. If a heuristic device has this characteristic then it is possible that it will be used as a means of helping tutors to reflect on their actions.

The typology arose out of the tutor discussions during the second study. A third study was set up with a greater number of tutors who were informed about the typology but put under no pressure to make use of it during the teaching practice. During this study the relevance of the typology was examined in three ways:

- by establishing whether tutors actually made use of it
- by examining the data to see if it was consistent with the typology
- by asking tutors to comment on interpretations related to the typology which were made about their students, teachers and supervision practice.

The results of that process are discussed in chapter 6. It

was considered, after implementing the processes outlined above, that teacher/student pairs could be described by reference to the typology in a way which made sense to the tutors and fitted the data from other sources.

7.2 A consideration of how the typology might be used

Establishing co-operation

The use of the typology assumes a fair degree of co-operation between the teacher and the student. This means that the initial task for a supervising tutor would be to establish that there is the beginning of a professional dialogue within the teacher/student teacher pair.

Discussion would include such questions as:

(with the student teacher)

- Have you discussed this with the class teacher?
- How does s/he tackle this sort of session?

(with the teacher)

- How/when have you shared ideas/planning?
- Have you reached a decision together about when you will stay in the classroom?

It is almost unnecessary to say that these questions will be asked with sensitivity. The asking of the questions themselves is likely to raise expectations about co-operation and can lead to a more extended discussion.

The early stages of the practice

Nature of the relationship between teacher and student teacher. In the early stages the tutor will be looking for information which will tell something about the nature of the relationship between the teacher and the student. If the argument outlined in this thesis is correct, then that

will also be the information which experienced tutors use to make decisions about their actions. Much of the necessary information can come from an initial visit to the school, from any previous knowledge of the school and from discussion with the student teacher. It will be expected that there will be an element of the teacher/pupil situation in that the student is searching for information about the school, the children and resources.

The making of a protagonist situation can become apparent at this stage from such remarks from the student as:

- I don't like that way of doing things
- That's not what teaching's about.

and from the teacher,

- That's all very well on teaching practice but not what really happens
- These children are not used to that sort of thing.

Information about potential hostility is important and will lead to action by the tutor to de-fuse it.

There may also be information about the likelihood of a collaborator situation although that is less likely in the early stages. It may be possible to feel the friendly atmosphere supported by comments from student and teacher like:

- We've arranged to work together on the school production
- We are going to share the teaching of the topic
- We are doing certain practical activities, which we'll take it in turn to supervise
- We are going next week together to visit the country park so that we can make our plans together for the children.

Looking for efficacy. As well as looking for potential relationships tutors will be concerned with efficacy (see

chapter 4). A judgement of efficacy will be clearly related to the context in which the student is placed and the expectations of the teacher will be an important factor. If the student is experiencing difficulties in the early stages the most likely supervision strategy is to encourage a teacher/pupil relationship. The plan of action would need to be agreed between teacher, student and tutor so that all would be working to the same end. The strategy would be likely to involve elements of the following:

- simplifying the classroom organisation if it is too complex
- breaking down some of the elements of the teaching into small units
- modelling these for the student
- giving appropriate reinforcement/feedback to the student teacher
- explaining the reasons behind the teaching/learning strategies, especially the way they are related to the needs of the children
- helping the student to recognise the strategies in her/his own teaching and that of the class teacher.

Many of the elements of skill teaching will be apparent in this outline (see, for example, Stones, 1984). Some elements of the situational teaching suggested by Cohn and Gellman (1988) are also recognisable. There are, however, some important differences here. Situational teaching for Cohn and Gellman (1988) relates to the theory which is taught in the training institution, but, in the situation outlined here, the teaching would relate to the usual strategies adopted by the teacher in that classroom. It would require the accessing of the teacher's professional knowledge as described by McAlpine et al. (1988, see chapter 2). A useful tool for discussing that knowledge is the skill list. This approach would help the student

teacher to acquire the necessary skills to function in that classroom and also to decide when different strategies were appropriate. The latter is identified by Joyce et al. (1981) as a crucial aspect of teaching student teachers skills. It is very likely that as this process is under way the tutor may well be able to extend the student teacher's knowledge by relating the classroom situation to other aspects of the student teacher's experience as long as this is not at the cost of clarity for the student teacher when s/he is in a vulnerable position.

When a teacher/pupil situation is not appropriate. There are circumstances under which a teacher/pupil situation would not be possible. Use of the typology would alert a tutor to this and help them to ask the questions which would make that clear.

For example, this relationship could not be implemented as described above if there was not a well developed classroom organisation in existence or, to put it another way, if the teacher was as much "in the dark" as the student teacher.

Under these circumstances the tutor might look for a collaborator situation where the teacher and student teacher would plan together and team-teach. This would give the weak student teacher some support in a fluid situation and would provide important initiation into planning and its implementation. Some instruction in techniques could be provided by tutor and teacher. There may, of course, be

circumstances under which the situation was considered to be unsuitable for a weak student teacher.

There is a further situation in which a teacher/pupil relationship may not be recommended (or even possible). There are teaching environments which are almost totally dependent upon the personal characteristics of a teacher. If the student teacher does not share those personal characteristics, then it is unlikely that s/he would be able to implement that form of teaching. Under those circumstances there would need to be some form of integration between a teacher/pupil situation and a protagonist one. This would be likely to involve some skill based instruction for the student teacher as well as some modification of the classroom organisation.

Summary. This section has outlined possibilities for using the typology in the early stages of the practice and linking it with the way tutors work. The tutors would look for the nature of the developing interaction and the degree of competence of the student teacher in that situation. A teacher/pupil situation is very likely in the very earliest stages as the student teacher is initiated into the classroom situation. The tutor would want to be sensitive to any potential for antagonism and also for any signs of a collaborator relationship.

If the student teacher appears to be in difficulties the tutor is likely to encourage a teacher/pupil relationship

unless particular circumstances make that impossible. If the student teacher reaches a degree of efficacy as defined by the classroom situation the tutor will look for the further development of professional skills. This will require further diagnosis and a sense of the developmental needs of the student teacher. This aspect will be considered in the next section

Strategies for development

It has been suggested that the stage at which efficacy is achieved is a difficult time for supervising tutors. At that point their own personal ideas of good teaching become important factors for their supervision strategy, but that creates problems of applying those ideas without causing difficulties within the school and so for the student teacher. It is the time when tutors may be tempted to do very little except monitor what is happening in the classroom and just to check that there are no problems.

What has been described in chapter 4 as a personal focus can be considered in different ways. For example, if a tutor has a belief about the value of group work in the classroom, it can express itself by an expectation that a student teacher will implement group work in an effective way. However, it is also likely to include an expectation that the student teacher will also value group work and perhaps for the same reasons as those of the tutor. As well as that, it might be expected that the student teacher will recognise the shortcomings of other ways of teaching which are presently in practice in the classroom. It will

be clear that these aims for the student teacher are not of the same order and require different forms of development. They relate to at least two of the types of reflection outlined by Zeichner and Liston (1987, see chapter 6) and probably the third, i.e.

- technical rationality (assessing the best way of implementing group work)
- practical action (assessing whether group work is the best way of achieving a particular teaching aim)
- critical reflection (deciding whether small-group work should be undertaken anyway because it gives the opportunity to prepare children to make group decisions as this is an important aspect of democracy).

It has also been pointed out in chapter 4 that the factors of range and degree of analysis can be important in influencing the effectiveness of the tutor's supervision.

If the tutor is to make appropriate decisions at this stage, the situation in the school as defined by the teacher/student teacher relationship is crucial. There are three possibilities here and these will be considered in turn.

Moving from an initial teacher/pupil relationship. If the teacher and student teacher have had an initial teacher/pupil relationship until this time then there are three possibilities:

- that with the competence of the student teacher established s/he will reject that relationship
- that with the competence of the student established the teacher will withdraw from the relationship and leave the student teacher to her/his own devices
- that the teacher will adapt her/his relationship with the student.

The nature of this research is based on the assumption that the student teacher will learn from the relationship with the teacher so that the intention will be that the first two possibilities will be developed into the third. Development through a collaborator relationship, development through a protagonist relationship and the possibility of a teacher/pupil relationship being maintained will each be considered in separate sections below.

Collaborators The collaborator relationship is characterised by a mutual understanding about what is going on in the classroom and what should be going on. It is quite likely to follow on from a teacher/pupil relationship in which the teacher and student teacher have been working together. At best it involves a close working together of colleagues who share similar values and who discuss and plan together to achieve the best results for the children. It can also describe a situation where the understanding is assumed so that it does not require conversation.

A problem in both cases is that the professional knowledge may not be expressed because it is assumed. This means that it is less open to analysis and adaptation. Any strategies to encourage discussion which makes information explicit will be helpful here.

This will not necessarily be easy because the teacher and student teacher may tend to make an exclusive pair which will not easily accommodate an unwelcome third person,

especially when that person is asking them to explain approaches which seem to them self-evident. If a tutor is able to establish a good relationship with the pair then the first step is to encourage the conversation between them. Where this is not happening, direct requests for contributions from the teacher may be needed.

In working with the teacher and student teacher the tutor will attempt to:

- share the dialogue
- ask for justification
- present an alternative view
- explore underlying assumptions.

Presenting an alternative point of view is comparable to the approach adopted by the idea interpreters of Zahorik (1988) who try to present to student teachers their own beliefs about teaching. This would be typical of tutors addressing their personal focus, but would need to be done sensitively in a situation where they were different from the views held by the teacher/student teacher pair.

One approach to supervision which may be helpful here is that put forward by Stones (1984) in his psychopedagogical approach to supervision. In this approach the tutor would share with the student teacher and the teacher her/his aims for the teaching. On the basis of this there would be agreement about an observation schedule that the tutor would undertake. This would provide evidence to evaluate the teaching with the teacher and student teacher and perhaps discuss the usefulness of modifications. Under these circumstances there could be situational teaching as

proposed by Cohn et al. (1988) because in this case, unlike the teacher/pupil situation, where the situation needs to remain unproblematic, there may be the opportunity to introduce aspects of theory. It is in a case like this that a profile developed by the institution (e.g. the Exeter profile) could be used profitably.

The value of the Stones (1984) approach in this situation is that it could offer a semi-formal approach with an emphasis on evidence which may not otherwise be part of the collaborative relationship. However, where the collaboration includes two people for whom reflection is a shared concern, then a clinical approach which left the responsibility to the student could be adopted with the tutor acting as an "outsider", i.e. acting as a gatherer of information, at the disposal of the student (and the teacher).

To summarise, the strength of a collaborator relationship lies in its potential for a trouble-free professional dialogue and the opportunity which it offers for the student teacher to learn from the teacher. The dangers lie in the taken-for-granted nature of the professional dialogue and teaching. To counter this effect and to enhance the other, the tutor will act to encourage the dialogue on a regular basis, to help the participants to be explicit about their actions, and to find systematic ways of exploring the teaching with the participants to help reflection and modification. All of this may be

unproblematic if the shared understanding includes a critical approach to teaching on the part of the teacher and the student teacher. However, if this is not the case the tutor may encounter some hostility from a pair who exclude the interference of a third person.

Protagonists The protagonist relationship is characterised by the independence of the teacher and student teacher, and the potential for hostility which could result from two people with different views about teaching sharing a classroom. It is most likely to show itself in the early stages of the practice when a competent student teacher with clear ideas is placed with a teacher who has different ideas. However, it could develop from a previously collaborative situation after the student teacher has the confidence to realise and accept that her/his opinions are different from those of the teacher. In the same way it could develop from a teacher/pupil relationship for similar reasons. In both these cases there would probably have to be some encouragement from teacher or tutor since the initial competence and/or confidence of the student teacher would not have been there.

The first issue to address would be the establishment of good relationships between teacher and student teacher, and the tutor may have a role to play in re-assuring the teacher and student teacher and helping them to agree a strategy for co-operation. The word "may" is stressed because many teachers welcome the input from somebody with

different ideas from themselves so that hostility is not inevitable.

It is that last point which encapsulates the strength of this relationship, i.e. that because the approach to teaching is different, there is not a danger of ideas being taken for granted. Professional dialogue in this situation can be satisfying for everybody. However, the co-operation within the trio will be endangered if the tutor pursues with the student teacher a personal focus which includes recognising weaknesses in the present teaching of the classroom, without consideration of the place of the teacher.

In the protagonist situation there will need to be:

- an emphasis on initiating dialogue
- maintaining dialogue
- acting to re-assure
- negotiating space for the student teacher to experiment.

The approach outlined by Stones (1984) could be threatening for a student teacher who is already having to justify each action taken in order to maintain the confidence of the teacher. The clinical approach which leaves the responsibility to the student to initiate observation and comment is likely to be most effective. This may also require a teaching/learning relationship if the student teacher recognises a need in her/his own repertoire of skills. This "instruction" may be provided by tutor or teacher as appropriate. The justification for adopting this approach lies in the assumption that the student teacher has already shown a degree of autonomy in adopting a

protagonist relationship. It is likely that such a student teacher have the ability to make the best use of an approach which depends for its success on a critical approach and autonomous action.

In this protagonist situation, supervising tutors may need to give more emphasis to Zahorick's (1988) person support function than to the idea interpretation since the student may feel under some pressure from the school situation. At the same time the second two levels of reflection outlined by Zeichner and Liston, (1987) i.e. practical action and critical reflection, are likely to be addressed much of the time if the dialogue is maintained. Since the student teacher will tend to be working independently from the teacher, the daily reinforcement of technical skills which is part of the collaborator situation will not be available. This may require attention from the tutor.

To summarise, the strength of the protagonist relationship lies in the environment it offers for examining the strengths and weaknesses of alternative approaches to teaching and extending the student teacher's range of experience. There are the inherent difficulties which may arise when people working together have different views about what they are doing. For this reason supervision will be directed to maintaining harmonious relationships, encouraging the student teacher's autonomy and offering any necessary support in the development of new skills.

Maintaining a teacher/pupil relationship If a student teacher is to be prepared for the responsibility of managing a class of children, with all that that entails, it is advantageous for her/him to develop from a teacher/pupil situation as soon as that seems reasonable. There may be two reasons why such a situation is maintained:

- that the teacher is determined to maintain it and the student teacher complies
- that the student teacher does not reach the required level of competence.

Both of these require action on the part of the tutor and teacher. In the first instance the progress of the student can be reviewed and in the light of evidence about the relationship there can be encouragement towards a collaborator or protagonist situation.

In the second instance, the focus of the instructional approach can be discussed within the trio to try and give the student teacher more responsibility for her/his development.

Demands on tutors. It should be clear that all these recommendations will make demands on tutors in terms of sensitivity to the situation and in terms of the range and degree of analysis which will be required of them. These requirements will, however, be within the framework which tutors appear to use in directing their supervision behaviour.

7.3 The typology working in practice

In section 8.2 above a set of rather prescriptive recommendations have been made which were based upon the practice of tutors in the third study. Supervision is a professional skill and as such is based on reflection-in-action. If tutors are to make use of the recommendations, they will need to know something of the actions on which they were based. The detail of the data from the third study is available in Appendix 11 but this section will outline a number of illustrations to show the recommendations in practice. The illustrations will show actual practice as well as further possible developments of that practice.

Developing from a teacher/pupil situation

- HS1 - case study 10
- QS1 - case study 20

HS1 and QS1 were two student teachers who benefited very much from teacher/pupil relationships with their teachers. The implementation of the strategies recommended above for this approach could be seen in the first few weeks of their practices, i.e. simplifying the structure, breaking down the teaching skills, modelling, giving of feedback. In the case of HS1 the tutor stood back and allowed the process to take place but gave positive reinforcement to the teacher and the student teacher. In the case of QS1 the tutor took some part in the process.

When the student teachers had achieved competence in the classroom the professional dialogue ceased. According to

the recommendations outlined above, the tutors at this stage could have looked for development into a collaborator or protagonist relationship. The typology could have been a guide for searching out information in order to make those decisions and this evidence was available.

HS1 who was quiet, lacking in confidence, and unassuming, had very little in common with HT1 who was outgoing and confident as well as being very competent. It was clear to teacher, tutor and investigator that the two were likely to develop different teaching styles. However, once the student teacher had achieved competence, it was seen to be her responsibility to develop that style. In fact the student interviews at the end of the practice showed that the student teacher did have teaching strategies that she wanted to try out but lacked the confidence to go ahead. The only time when she did tackle different ideas was when the teacher was not there because HS1 lacked confidence to assert her own individuality in the front of the confident teacher who had her own successful way of working. However, in trying to implement her own way, she was lacking in skill and needed the sympathetic help of teacher and/or tutor. This was typical of the protagonist situation and could have been anticipated and so identified.

QS1, on the other hand, was described by the tutor as having characteristics in common with the class teacher as well as a quiet confidence in her own ability. As she was developing competence the tutor felt satisfied that she had

achieved what she could in "that school" since he believed that she had beliefs about teaching which were similar to those expressed by the teacher and that he would not be able to influence those. However, at the time that she was developing competence the tutor had suggested an alternative approach to the teaching of a particular aspect of Maths involving group work. The teacher and the student teacher, in response to this, planned together a follow-up session which complied with the tutor's suggestions. This was achieved successfully. The tutor underestimated his own influence and the commitment of the teacher to the professional development of the student teacher. In this case the scenario suggested the potential for a collaborator relationship which could have enhanced further the successful teaching practice of this student.

Modifying a teacher/pupil approach

DS - case study 6

This student teacher was in a very demanding situation and during the course of the teaching practice did not really develop from a teacher/pupil relationship. The teacher and the tutor worked hard to structure a programme for her and there is no doubt that she developed skills during the course of the practice. As outlined in the recommendations the tutor tried hard to help her to take more initiative for her own learning. This was only partially successful.

However, the analytical approach of the tutor provided a learning experience for the rest of the group as it became clear that the demands of the school had been too much for

this student teacher. With hindsight this gave a clue to the action which should have been taken with a student teacher who was not progressing from the teacher/pupil situation. The teacher was expecting that all the teaching strategies and curriculum approaches which she used should be assimilated by the student teacher very quickly. An alternative strategy would have been for the teacher to have organised herself those aspects of the teaching which she felt could not be changed, leaving the student teacher to learn at a slower rate and experiment with some of her own ideas. This learning has now been incorporated into the recommendations.

The example is included because it indicates the way the typology can be used to share practice among tutors.

Development as a progression through three types

XS1 - case study 28

This student teacher began the teaching practice in a rather prescriptive teacher/pupil relationship with the teacher. At this time the tutor acted to support the student and re-assure her in the slightly threatening environment as well as participating in the discussion about the development of skills.

As the student teacher achieved competence and confidence the relationship developed into a collaborator one. The tutor recognised this and felt her exclusion from it. However, she worked very hard to maintain good

relationships with teacher and student teacher and during this time the pair listened to her discussion and shared it with each other after the tutor had left the school. Because they valued her opinion they began to respond collaboratively to issues which had been raised by her. It is interesting that the teacher began to ask her opinion about issues concerning education in the early years.

Towards the end of the practice, the student teacher, who had now increased greatly in confidence in this supportive atmosphere (which included the respect which tutor and teacher felt for each other), began to evaluate critically the practice of the teacher. As a result the tutor was able to extend the views of the student teacher but this was done with great sensitivity and never damaged the teacher/student teacher relationship.

This example shows progression through the three types and the corresponding behaviour of the tutor at these stages. It is interesting to note that as well as the student teacher, the teacher and the tutor also gained from the interaction.

Enhancing a collaborative relationship

JS - case study 13

It has been pointed out above that collaborative relationships can be non-productive for student teachers when the discussion stops because it no longer seems to be necessary. This was very much the case with JS. The relationship between teacher and student teacher was very

friendly indeed and the teaching was progressing to their satisfaction. Under these circumstances it is particularly difficult for the tutor to intervene without antagonising both teacher and student teacher. It can easily happen under these circumstances that the word of the tutor begins not to be taken seriously and teacher and student teacher form a "conspiracy" (Yee 1968) to marginalise the tutor.

Tutor 4 realised this danger and worked hard to act without provoking it. She was always warm in her praise of the student's achievement and went out of her way to spend time talking to her and noticing all the most recent work in the classroom. She was always willing to join in the teaching especially if the student teacher was trying out something which she had recommended. In this way she gained the respect of both teacher and student teacher. She was assiduous in engaging the teacher in conversation about the student teacher's teaching and often encouraged him to express opinions which he had not thought to share with the student. She was quite prepared to accept the joint disagreement of teacher and student teacher of her suggestions providing they had spent time listening to those opinions and could justify their own views. One of the significant characteristics of her approach which brings it quite close to the recommendations was her regular emphasis on encouraging JS to review what she was expecting to achieve with the children and whether the approach she was adopting was the most suitable. This was in line with the recommendations of Stones (1984) without

following the letter of his technique.

It was this combination of strategies which kept the interest and co-operation going throughout the practice in a classically difficult teaching practice situation for a tutor. This success was expressed in the comments of the teacher and student (see case study 13).

Sustaining a protagonist relationship

WS - case study 27

In this case an independent student teacher with well-developed ideas of her own about practice was working with a quietly determined traditional teacher in an area of some social disadvantage. From the very beginning there was potential for hostility as the enthusiastic student teacher made plans to try out her original and creative ideas. From the beginning of the practice the teacher laid down certain parameters for what she saw were the requirements for "these children who are lacking in basic skills". Another fact of the situation was that the personal focus of the tutor on a child-centred creative approach to teaching was close to that of the student teacher with all the possibilities which that could offer for the exclusion of the teacher and even more hostility.

In fact, all of these difficulties were forestalled. The tutor, in the early stages, worked very hard to reassure student teacher and teacher, and especially to reassure the teacher, that her aims for the children could still be realised in a different way. At the same time the teacher

showed admirable tolerance and the student teacher began to develop an appreciation of her point of view.

The exchange of views between teacher and student teacher was often mediated by the tutor especially when the teacher was beginning to withdraw from the situation. This showed very well indeed the explicit expression of commonsense views of teachers as WT tried hard to put into words her intuitive worries about the approach which WS was taking in the classroom and tutor 14 tried hard to understand these and express them to WS.

A further aspect of this practice was the tutor's reliance on clinical methods of supervision combined with the collection of information for the student teacher to evaluate her own teaching.

Diagnosis and development

OS - case study 18

In many ways the final example was one of the least satisfactory because of the uncertainty of the situation and the difficulty of developing a supervision strategy. At the same time it offered a learning experience for the project.

OS was a nervous student teacher who did not quickly or easily make her presence felt. The ability of student teachers to initiate supervision strategies from teachers and tutors has already been referred to in chapters 2 and 4. OS did not have that skill. The tutor reported a lot of

time spent waiting for something to happen so that she would know how to act. At the same time it was apparent that the classteacher was not very comfortable with the tutor and did not spend a lot of time with the student teacher. He maintained his normal classroom routine and found opportunities for the student's input within that routine.

The situation did not raise any critical problems of the student teacher not managing. The teacher/student teacher relationship was classified with the agreement of the tutor as a collaborative one because of the maintenance of the normal classroom routine, the "just satisfactory" performance of the student teacher in that routine and the uncritical acceptance of the "rightness" of that routine.

However, as outlined in chapter 6, there was a further reason which made this relationship comparable with IS/IT (case study 12) and that was that the teacher assumed that the student teacher would come into the classroom and pick up what he saw to be the obvious way of doing things. It was the assumption of a collaborator situation without the initial development of skills to implement it. The illustration is presented here because of the way the skill list was used to access the knowledge of the teacher. The discussion of the list with the teacher and the student teacher gave them the opportunity to realise that they did not always share the knowledge which they thought they did. It also gave the student teacher a chance to ask questions about the teacher's practice which she had not felt able to

ask before.

The outcome was a rather low-level collaborator relationship which began to include some of the characteristics of sharing professional knowledge which other collaborator relationships had shown. With hindsight this action could have been initiated at an earlier stage with more satisfactory results.

7.4 Discussion

Summarising the chapter

The chapter has outlined some recommendations for the use of the typology to enhance supervision practice by :

- directing the gathering of information about the context
- indicating possible supervision strategies
- provoking reflection and the application of theory.

Some examples from the case studies were identified to illustrate particular aspects of the recommendations in practice.

Relationship between the recommendations and the case study material

It is important to be clear about the relationship between the recommendations and the case study material. The recommendations were related firmly to the actual practice of the tutors as it was apparent in these studies. In other words, the recommendations were based on the experiences outlined in the case studies as well as on a consideration of theories of supervision. At the same time, the

recommendations went further than the experience in some cases and expressed the learning which arose out of the experience. This is comparable to the process of developing professional skill as outlined in chapter 2. That is, that reflection on past action has led to some re-interpretation of possibilities in the light of further experience. It is in this way that the typology may mirror the experience of being in new situations and so enhance reflection and subsequent practice in new situations. Because of the isolated nature of supervision it is not an opportunity which tutors have very often.

Relationship with other studies of supervision practice

The nature of supervisory style. It has been argued that the framework and the typology have been derived by making explicit the professional knowledge which experienced tutors use to direct their supervision practice.

The study by Zahorik (1988), which has already been referred to above, also charted the behaviour of tutors and identified what he believed were personal supervisory styles i.e.

- behaviour prescription
- idea interpretation
- person support.

It was possible to recognise the characteristics of some of these styles in this study and, where that is the case, reference has been made to it. It is interesting to speculate whether these were, in fact, regular patterns of supervision behaviour for those tutors or whether they were

strategies brought into play by the particular situation in which the supervising tutor was working.

In this study, rather than charting the behaviour of tutors, an attempt was made to investigate the underlying processes or, to use Neimayer and Moon's (1987) chosen terminology, the "sense" or "internal meanings" as opposed to the "brute" or "external configuration of events" (p. 6).

The evidence suggested that whereas the tutors showed certain pre-dispositions, their behaviour was adapted to the circumstances in which they were placed.

Adapting supervisory style. Zahorik (1988) attempted to chart the behaviour of supervising tutors but another approach has been to recommend supervision strategies on the basis of theory and these were outlined in chapter 2. The evidence from this study would suggest that strategies for supervision need to be related to the particular circumstances of the situation and that it may well be counter-productive to use one particular approach because of its theoretical credentials. The typology outlines the function which a strategy for supervision may have at a particular time and in a particular situation rather than recommending one approach.

Aims of supervision

Because this study has focused on experience and perceptions of the tutors the aims of supervision have been considered only as part of that general picture. It was

found, for example, that tutors found it difficult to express their aims except in relationship to a particular student in a particular situation.

However, when the aim for a student had gone beyond wanting competence in a given situation, then the tutor's own "image" of a good teacher (Rust 1988) became important. The expression of personal focus was not a simple concept. It could involve thinking that a student teacher should be able to display a particular skill at the simplest level or that s/he should recognise the inadequacies of a situation at a more complex level. An important concept for the tutors was one of growth and the capacity to grow (see chapter 4).

This view of the complexity of teaching is compatible with the levels of reflection outlined by Zeichner et al, i.e. technical rationality, practical action, critical reflection, discussed above.

Cohn et al's (1988) developmental approach to supervision is intended to lead students teachers into this by a phased programme of:

- ego counselling and first aid
- situational teaching
- clinical supervision.

In the first phase student teachers need help to adjust their role as well as some practical advice about what to do in the classroom in order to build up competence. In the second phase student teachers require help in relating theory introduced in courses to the school situation and in

the third phase they are expected to be in a position to develop a reflective approach.

This developmental approach has things in common with the development of professional skills as seen in this study, e.g. in the support for the student teacher, in the importance of skill learning, in the eventual emphasis on reflection at the second and third levels.

However, there are some important differences:

- First of all, ego counselling was seen in this study as important throughout, especially as student teachers were changing their roles with respect to the teacher and tutor
- Secondly, the idea of first aid seems to under-rate the importance of the skill learning which may be the basis for later development
- Thirdly, situational teaching was not seen as distinct from the skills learning. Rather, the learning was not just about theory introduced in the training institution but also about the professional theory of the class teacher in that situation
- Finally, clinical supervision was not necessarily the best strategy to encourage a reflective approach. In some circumstances, e.g. certain sorts of collaborator situation, a more structured approach could be recommended.

CHAPTER 8

Conclusions

8.0 Introduction

8.1 Supervision as a professional skill

An outline of the way in which tutors' professional knowledge is organised

8.2 Implications of these findings for a study of supervision

Describing supervision behaviour

Supervisory style

Allocation of roles in the supervision situation

Ambiguities in reports of supervision intentions and behaviour

Prescribing supervision behaviour

Stones' psychopedagogical approach to teaching and learning

Clinical supervision

8.3 Implications for the development of effective supervision practice

Demands made of tutors in the practical situation

A summary of the potential of the typology to enhance supervision practice

Outlining the typology

The significance of the typology as a heuristic for enhancing supervision practice

8.4 Implementing such an approach in a practical situation

Organisation of teaching practice

Co-operation

Information

Allocation

Professional development of tutors

Using the framework

Using the typology

Training groups

8.5 Limitations of the study

The situation

The participants

Resources

Chosen focus

8.6 Extending the application of the research

8.7 Concluding comments

8.0 Introduction

The importance of the school experience element in the training of teachers cannot be disputed. What is the subject of controversy is the way the school experience is used and who should have the control of it. This series of studies was set up because of a conviction that student teachers can be helped in their professional development by competent supervisors and that the supervision is most effective if it is shared by people in school and from the training institution. A review of the literature on supervision does not, perhaps, support such optimism and the discussion in chapter 1 highlighted a number of difficulties in the implementation of school-based work. These include uncertainties about objectives, difficulties of communication, and disagreements about appropriate roles of the participants.

A review of the literature has shown a wide variation in supervision behaviours. Some examples are the "person support" and "idea interpretation" approaches identified by Zahorick (1988), and the "ego counselling" and "situational teaching" suggested by Cohn and Gellman (1988). It is not really surprising that there should be variety, since according to Zimpher and Howey (1987), supervision has a number of functions which are likely to require different approaches at different times. Some of these were outlined in chapter 2.

Differences in supervision behaviour are also likely to be influenced by a person's view of what counts as effective

teaching. For example, Joyce et al. (1981) have outlined a number of models of teaching and suggested that recognition of these models and skill in their implementation should be part of teacher training. Zeichner and Liston (1987) have also identified different emphases by drawing distinctions between the development in teachers of particular skills, their understanding of the rationale underlying the use of particular skills and, thirdly, giving close attention to moral and ethical issues relevant to classroom practice.

In identifying different approaches to teaching and the values which underlie them, Zeichner and Liston (1987) also recognised the importance of considering how student teachers learn and how they should learn. A view of how learning is effected and the nature of knowledge is a further influence on the implementation of supervision. They found, for example, that people who did not really believe in the value of clinical supervision did not in fact put it into practice even although they thought they were so doing.

The evidence from the literature shows further discrepancies between the actions and intentions of supervisors. For example, the work of Terrell et al. (1985) and Mansfield (1986) suggests that even when supervisors are able to articulate what actions they are expecting to take, still, in practice, they do not act according to their intentions.

If, for various reasons, there is variety in supervision

behaviour, there is also complexity in the contexts in which it is practised and this may explain some of the discrepancies between behaviour and intentions. There are pressures of time, the differences of opinion between the participants, difficulties in social relationships related to the location of teacher training in more than one institution and the problems of lack of clarity in communication between participants. Finally there is the very important factor of the professional development of the student teacher over time which must be of crucial significance in influencing what a supervisor does.

The tendency in the work on supervision is to examine these two factors of behaviour and context separately rather than to explore the relationship between them. It is in a consideration of this relationship between the behaviours of supervisors and the context in which they are working that this piece of work is attempting to make a contribution.

8.1 Supervision as a professional skill

The important theoretical relevance of this set of studies arises from viewing supervision, like teaching itself, as a professional skill. This implies that the way tutors interpret their own professional situation is an important area for research. Lowyck and Clark (1989) describe the effect of the "emergence of teacher thinking" as follows:

Teaching behaviours and skills were replaced by new concepts, like intention, planning, reflection, concerns, constructs, personal theory, pedagogical

knowledge, subjective problems etc. The teacher is no longer perceived as the observable performer of a set of effective but isolated teaching skills: he/she is a problem solver, professional planner, hypothesis tester, decision maker, reflective practitioner. (p. 1)

The study of teaching has benefited from such an approach by relating research much more closely to the experience of teachers, or to put this another way, by relating teaching behaviours more closely to the context in which the teaching takes place. At the same time, it has given the teacher the status of being the "problem solver" or "the reflective practitioner", i.e. a person adapting her/his behaviour to the circumstances as s/he judges them. It is this sort of research approach which has only just begun to be applied in the field of supervision. This is surprising since supervision can justifiably be defined as a form of teaching.

If supervision, like teaching, is given the status of a professional skill and examined in that way then it implies three important tasks for the researcher. The first task is well expressed by Clark and Yinger (1987):

(The aim is) to understand and explain how and why the behaviourally observable activities of teachers' professional lives take on the forms and functions which they do." (p. 84)

If the term "teachers" includes supervisors then the task of the researcher goes beyond describing supervisory skills to understanding them in the context in which they are placed. This latter includes taking into consideration the judgements of supervisors about their actions.

The second task is to give to the practitioner the power

not only to define her/his own behaviour but to be able to influence the research process and in so doing improve practice. This is well expressed by Oberg (1989):

The concern is not to influence practice to bring it closer to a pre-defined outcome, but rather to empower practitioners themselves to become better educators. (p. 145)

The third task relates to the ways in which information about supervisor thinking is obtained. If an understanding of the ways in which tutors make decisions is important, then this must imply a need to examine these methods as they develop and at the same time make use of the interpretations of the practitioners themselves as they are developing in response to the practical concerns.

Rather than describe or prescribe supervision behaviour one of the aims of these study was to understand how supervisors make sense of teaching practice and organise their supervisory behaviour. Neimayer and Moon (1987), who did approach the study of supervision in this way, tried to identify "the thoughts and schema supervisors held while supervising student teachers" (p. 10) in order to understand more about the professional skills of supervision. This approach to exploring supervision behaviour may lead to a re-appraisal of research evidence.

As a result of adopting this approach to the exploration of tutor behaviour, a framework describing the way in which the professional knowledge of supervisors is organised was outlined.

An outline of the way in which tutors' professional knowledge is organised

The information from the tutors suggested that tutors' professional knowledge was organised in a meaningful way. An analysis of the data suggested that tutors are, first of all, concerned with the general efficacy of the student teacher in the situation in which s/he is placed. Within this judgement, control in the sense of discipline is an important factor but the term "efficacy" applies also in more general terms to the student teachers' ability to show that s/he knows what is going on and can exercise some influence on that. At the simplest level it implies the ability to function in that classroom situation to the satisfaction of the teacher and the tutor, especially the former.

If that situation was achieved, the tutor was then influenced by her/his personal focus, i.e. those qualities which s/he believed constituted good teaching.

Both of these factors were modified by a further set of factors:

- range which refers to the breadth of the tutor's conceptions about teaching
- degree of analysis which refers to the way in which the tutor analyses the teaching situation
- confidence which refers to the amount of confidence which tutor seems to feel about an interpretation
- speed which refers to how quickly the tutor makes interpretations.

In implementing their thinking tutors were significantly influenced by the nature of the context in which they were placed. Specifically, the important influences were:

- the significant characteristics of the students as they judged them i.e. competence, personality, confidence, ability to be self-critical, personal effect on the tutor
- judgements about the schools and classes i.e. pressure for particular outcomes, supportive atmosphere, potentially difficult relationships as well as factors concerned with the nature of the teacher, children, classroom organisation and the approach to the curriculum.

All these factors interacted together to influence the tutor's actions in the classroom in the way outlined in chapter 4.

8.2 Implications of these findings for studies of supervision

Describing supervision behaviour

The view of the professional behaviour of supervisors outlined above suggests that supervision is a very complex process of perception, judgement, decision-making and subsequent action, followed by re-appraisal and new action. That these thought processes are not easily accessible does not invalidate this point of view.

Descriptions of supervisors' behaviour, especially those based on limited evidence, will do less than justice to this complexity. Such descriptions need to be supported by explanations of "how and why the behaviourally observable activities of teachers' professional lives take on the forms and functions which they do" (Clark and Yinger 1987, p. 1). To explain this view further some examples of such descriptions from the literature will be discussed. They refer to a description of supervisory style, a consideration of the roles of different participants in supervision and a consideration of discrepancies between

stated beliefs and actual practice of supervisors.

Supervisory style. The analyses of Zahorick (1988) described a number of different supervisory styles which were discussed in chapters 1 and 4. One of these styles he calls idea interpretation. A supervisor working in this way sees supervision as an opportunity to present to the student teacher her/his beliefs about teachers and classrooms. This suggestion is interesting but, according to the analysis suggested by this piece of work, it will not be helpful to identify this style without information about the circumstances under which that supervisor adopts that approach, since this is likely to be one influence on the initial decision to adopt the approach. A reflective supervisor may be quite likely to discuss personal beliefs about teaching with a competent, confident student teacher working in a particular classroom environment. However, the same supervisor may need to adopt a very different approach when working with a timid student teacher in a classroom with a dominant classteacher. Further information about the context would make discussion and evaluation of that supervision style interesting and profitable. It is significant to note that Zahorick's (1988) analyses were based on two interviews with each supervising tutor, only the first of which was focused on a particular student teacher. According to the evidence outlined in chapter 4, this technique may have been accessing the personal focus of the tutor but it would be equally likely that what was noted was the tutor's reflective response to a specific

situation. Whatever the case, the information gives only a limited account of the supervision in that situation. It gives little insight into the complex professional judgements being made by the supervising tutor.

Allocation of roles in the supervision situation. In attempts to tackle the problems of overlap and unease in tutor relationships with teachers, researchers have tried to identify the roles taken by each participants. Typically this has been by observing and describing what each appears to be doing. Some illustrations are given in chapter 1.

For example, according to Koehler (1984), institute personnel may focus on matters to do with the training course whereas teachers focus on teaching skills. Alternatively, Richardson-Koehler (1988) believes that teachers are interested in practical teaching skills whereas the tutor may give an emphasis to the way these may be generalised from one school to another. Unfortunately, different studies come up with different findings about what each participant does. According to Zimpher et al. (1980), teachers do not give feedback on teaching skills and according to O'Neal (1983), tutors do not make generalisations.

In this study of the way tutors understood their task of supervision it became clear that tutors adapted their approach to the circumstances in which they were placed. This being the case it follows that any study which attempts to make generalisations about what tutors do or

should do may miss some important factors which explain supervision practice. If the evidence from this study is valid, then many tutors will evaluate what the nature of the teacher/student teacher relationship is before deciding what they themselves are going to do, with a result that their behaviour may be different at different times. Only a study which takes into account the point of view of tutors over a period of time will do justice to the detail of the thinking and progress which is typical of professional knowledge.

Ambiguities in reports of supervisors' intentions and behaviours. It has been suggested that if the framework outlined above is true to the way tutors think about supervision then some of their seemingly ambiguous behaviour is more easily explained. For example, the observation made by Terrell et al. (1985) that supervising tutors do not do what they say they are trying to do (in this case encouraging students to implement group work in the classroom), may be explained by supposing that those tutors who approve of group work had decided that in that particular context it would be inadvisable to encourage their students to implement it. This hypothesis would find support in the work of Neimayer and Moon (1987) who also found that context was the first priority of the supervising tutors before other factors were taken into consideration.

Descriptions of the behaviour of supervisors may be the

first stage in coming to an understanding of the nature of supervision but there are serious limitations in an approach which ignores the active, personal and professional contribution of the supervisor and the combination of circumstances which produce such behaviour.

Prescribing supervision behaviour

While some researchers have attempted to describe the behaviour of supervisors, others have tried to offer systems of supervision with a theoretical base. A number of theoretical approaches to supervision have been put forward and their implementation argued for on theoretical grounds. These were outlined in chapter 2.

However, the evidence outlined in this study suggests that supervision is a professional skill and that supervision practice is based on judgements about student teachers and classrooms which tutors make on the basis of their experience and developing professional knowledge of student teachers, classrooms and schools. Experienced tutors drew on their own professional experience in order to make decisions about their supervision behaviour.

If this is the case, then they are not very likely to follow a prescribed approach to supervision behaviour if they do not see its relevance to the situation in which they are placed. To put this another way, tutors who are required to follow certain supervision procedures are likely to adapt those procedures to fit their own professional judgements. This suggestion is supported by

the work of Zeichner and Tabachnick (1982) who have shown how tutor attitudes to teaching affect their application of a clinical supervision approach. It seems likely that personal attitudes will not be the only factors affecting such adaptations but that tutors' professional judgements about the school situation (which will include the participants in that situation) will also be significant.

Some examples will help to clarify this suggestion. The first refers to the application of theoretical notions of effective teaching and learning, the second to recommendations for a developmental approach to supervision.

Stones' psychopedagogical approach to teaching and learning. Stones' (1984) psychopedagogical approach to teaching and learning may be taken as an illustrative example here. According to Stones, there is important psychological theory which can and should be applied to teaching if it is to become more effective. As outlined in chapter 2, this requires, in the teaching practice situation, that teacher, student teacher and tutor sit down together and, having made decisions about learning objectives for children, should then go on to plan from first psychopedagogical principles a teaching session.

It is this type of prescriptive approach which supervising tutors, drawing on personal, professional skills would apply with sensitivity and adaptation. This was certainly characteristic of the tutors who participated in this

study. Their understanding of classrooms, teachers and student teachers made them wary about applying such an approach until they were aware of the nature of the context in which the student teacher was working. According to their professional judgements, not all student teachers would necessarily benefit from the same sort of teaching/learning approach. This would be the case, particularly, when a student teacher was uncertain and lacking in competence and was working in a classroom where certain expectations about a teaching approach were made explicit. The difficulties would come from a combination of anxiety and lack of skill in implementation. To use the terminology of the framework outlined above, the student teacher would be lacking in efficacy in that situation. This being the case, the psychopedagogical approach would be likely to be rejected by the supervisor as inappropriate at that time. This judgement would in no way invalidate the approach under other circumstances.

Clinical supervision. A further example related to a particular approach to supervision may add more weight to the point being made. A clinical approach to supervision is often strongly advocated because of the autonomy which it gives to the student teacher. The evidence from this study would give support to that view under certain circumstances but would reject that approach again for a student teacher lacking efficacy, when a more effective approach might be to engineer a successful teaching session for the student teacher so that effective teaching points may be

reinforced. Such a strategy is more typical of skill teaching and it may be argued that a student teacher would be adopting an approach unreflectively. However, the successful attainment of efficacy would appear, in appropriate circumstances, to be an instigator of subsequent reflection when the student teacher would be in a position to take the initiative.

Cohn and Gellman (1988) recognised the point being made above and advocated that a clinical approach may be adopted at the later stages of a student teacher's training programme. In this scheme of things the clinical approach would follow ego counselling, situational teaching and, if necessary "first aid" if a student teacher needed specific and prescriptive advice.

This approach presented by Cohn and Gellman (1988) seems to take into account the professional understanding of supervising tutors which is responsive to student teacher need at stages in their professional development. However, it still shows the disadvantages of a prescriptive approach to supervision which sets out the supervision behaviour at each stage. What is not made explicit is that a supervision approach appropriate in the earlier stages of student teaching may be equally appropriate at the later stages under certain circumstances. Ego counselling, for example, is intended to help to phase the student teacher into the teacher's role in a new situation. However, this might be equally applicable when the student teacher is entering a third teaching practice which is in a teaching situation

which the student has not faced previously or to help a student move from a skill learning supervision approach to a clinical supervision approach within a single teaching practice. The important general point being made is that a system derived from theoretical principles will only be effective when it has been subjected to professional analysis by the supervisor in context. It is this aspect of a professional's use of prescriptive approaches which is lacking in much of the literature on supervision.

8.3 Implications for the development of effective supervision strategies

In the section above it was suggested that prescriptions for supervision behaviour cannot be effective in enhancing and improving practice. This is a suggestion which has already worried the teaching profession when applied there. Rowell and Dawson (1981) have criticised, vociferously, the professional skills approach to understanding teaching on the grounds that it ignores theory and allows each teacher to continue in a way which will never change and improve. Britzman (1991) has also identified one of the "myths" of the teaching profession being a view that teachers are self-made. Graves (1990), while applauding the concept of professional skills as outlined by Schon (1983,1987), is still waiting expectantly for those to be applied in a rigorous way to teaching.

However, the suggestion that supervision is a professional skill which is developed in a practical situation does not exclude its further development and refinement by the

application of theory. Viewed in a very positive way, this approach gives to the practitioner the status of being the problem-solver rather than being a technician who is unthinkingly implementing a prescribed model. It gives to the practitioner responsibility for her/his own practice.

As well as developing an understanding of supervisors' professional skill this piece of research shows an attempt to explore ways of using this understanding to support the work of supervisors. This section will outline the possibilities.

Demands made of tutors in the practical situation

Tutors work in constrained and isolated situations and these were discussed in chapter 1:

- They are visitors in schools for very limited periods of time
- They work with students, who may initially be strangers, and for very limited periods of time
- They have little opportunity to discuss their work with other practitioners
- They carry out their duties in a potentially difficult social environment.

In this context supervisors have to make choices about appropriate supervision strategies. In chapter 2 the key aspect of adapting supervision strategies to the needs of student teachers was discussed and it was suggested that the task of diagnosis of student need is complicated by the fact that those needs change as the student teachers develop professionally. Development over the teaching practice and diagnosis of student teacher need were identified as key areas.

In the situation of limited information in which tutors are placed, detailed diagnosis is not easy. Any approach which helps tutors to make the very best use of the information available has the potential to enhance supervision practice. The isolation of supervision makes a further limitation on effective supervision practice. In chapter 2 it was argued that professional behaviour can only develop effectively in a reflective and discursive environment. Under the conditions outlined above it is very difficult for tutors to reflect on their practice and to share their expertise with other people. One way of encouraging both of these is to be able to make professional skills explicit rather than implicit and so open to dialogue if and when tutors have that opportunity. If tutors are able to share this dialogue then there will be potential for developing and refining chosen supervision strategies.

It has been argued in chapter 7 that the typology has the potential to be used as a heuristic device to influence the collection of information, the diagnosis of student teacher need and the development of reflective practice. This argument will be reviewed below but it must be made quite clear that the typology was developed in a co-operative environment when steps had been taken in the early stages of the practice to enlist the active help and support of the class teachers.

A summary of the potential of the typology to enhance supervision practice

Outlining the typology. When tutors brought together their

judgements about the teaching practice context, they summarised them in terms of the relationship which had been or was being developed between the teacher and the student teacher. A typology outlining the relationships which the tutors described was developed. It offered three main types of teacher/student teacher relationship:

- teacher/pupil, where the student was experiencing some difficulty and/or the teacher took on an instructional role in relationship to the student teacher
- collaborators, where teacher and student teacher shared values about and practices of teaching and worked very closely together to implement these shared values
- protagonists, where teacher and student had very different ideas about teaching so that they tended to teach independently but could influence each other by sharing professional dialogue.

It was suggested that different supervision strategies were appropriate in these different circumstances. These strategies would be chosen for the function which they would fulfil at that particular time, e.g. a teaching of skills approach where a student teacher was having difficulty; maintaining harmonious relationships where these could be threatened; enhancing reflection in different ways to match the needs of the situation.

It was suggested that the typology might be used to direct the observations of the tutors as they were evaluating the contexts in which the student teachers were placed (i.e. fulfilling a diagnostic role) and at the same time offer direction in the making of decisions about supervision practice. As student teachers develop professionally so may their relationship with the co-operating teacher so that the planning of supervision practice will also be

developmental and responsive to the changing professional needs of the student teacher.

The significance of the typology as a heuristic for enhancing supervision practice. There appear to be three main ways in which the typology may enhance practice and these have been hinted at above.

1. In the first place, the typology can be used to aid the gathering of information in order to make a diagnosis of the requirements of the situation. In a co-operative situation the nature of the context is summarised in the nature of the teacher/student teacher relationship. Although each situation is unique, tutors appear to make sense of these situations by a process of comparison. The typology makes explicit some of the past professional judgements of teacher/student teacher relationships against which a tutor may make comparisons. In this way the process of gathering information becomes more focused and more effective in the short time which is available to the tutor. Details of the way this may be done are presented in chapter 7.

2. It has been pointed out that diagnosis is ongoing as the student teacher develops professionally. It also became clear that one of the difficulties for some tutors was to make decisions about further development when a student teacher had achieved an acceptable level of efficacy. However, the term "development" does not apply only to the professional development of the student teacher, it also

applies to the changing relationship between the student teacher and the class teacher. The typology offers a programme of development for the student teacher professionally, to guide the judgements of the tutor. At the same time it links this programme to the changing relationship between the student teacher and the class teacher, which has been shown to be so important in its influence on the tutor's actions. The detail of this is presented in chapter 7.

3. Finally, it has been suggested that professional development requires dialogue and reflection. The evidence from this study suggested that tutors were not unwilling to apply theory to their practice but that it was necessary to apply it selectively and appropriately. This is consistent with the findings of Elbaz (1983) who found that the teacher with whom she worked applied and adapted theory as it seemed appropriate and relevant at a particular time. It has been pointed out that reflection and dialogue are not easy for tutors because of the isolation in which they work and the lack of a tradition of training in this area. The framework and the typology make explicit some of the common-sense knowledge which tutors use and in so doing make it available for analysis and reflection.

8.4 Implementing such an approach in a practical situation

If supervision is to be conducted in the way outlined above then certain procedures would enhance its effectiveness. These relate to organisational procedures and the professional development of tutors.

Organisation of teaching practice

The most effective implementation of the procedures outlined above will be achieved if certain aspects of teaching practice organisation are given attention. These may be considered under the headings of:

- co-operation
- information
- allocation.

Co-operation. The research studies were set up to explore the nature of teacher/student teacher/tutor co-operation in the teaching practice situation and the processes as outlined depend for their success on that co-operation. If co-operation is to be achieved there must be a commitment on all sides to that co-operation. Very specific attempts were made to achieve co-operation in this study (see chapter 3). Clear guidelines shared between the institutions and sets of procedures can be helpful but the evidence suggests the commitment of individuals to co-operation is crucial.

Information. The typology offers guidance to tutors for the collection of information upon which to make informed decisions. The collection of information takes time and, for tutors, time is a scarce resource. Much of the preliminary information could be collected prior to the practice by asking for information from the school. Preliminary visits by tutors and student teachers with close guidance for the students to help them collect the relevant information would also help.

In many institutions these already form an important part of the preliminary procedures for teaching practice. What is often lacking is the discussion of the information in the training institution prior to the teaching practice so that it is not used in a purposeful way to prepare for the practice.

Allocation. This final category is related to the one above. The allocation of tutors to schools and student teachers is carried out in different ways in different training institutions. Very often major considerations in making such allocations are cost and tutor convenience.

Whatever the case, the link between tutors and particular schools can only enhance the procedures outlined in this study. Even if this is not possible or considered desirable, still there are ways of sharing information between supervising tutors about the schools in which they will supervise. This seems to have critical importance.

One final point about the allocation process concerns the interaction among tutors. If tutors were allocated as a group to groups of schools this could offer the environment in which professional dialogue between tutors could take place.

Professional development of tutors

Stones (1984) has suggested that training of supervising tutors has never really been taken seriously. It seems, however, that at the present time the emphasis on teacher

competency may act to redress the balance. The approach outlined above emphasises the importance of the professional judgements of the tutors and the importance of their autonomy in making decisions about their practice. This implies that training may be used to develop skills but at the same time it should encourage tutors to become more aware of their own intuitive practice.

Using the framework. In chapter 4 some suggestions have been made about ways in which the framework describing tutors' professional approach to supervision may be used to encourage reflection and understanding. In training groups tutors would be able to exchange views about efficacy, personal foci and range and relate their discussion to course planning and implementation. "Efficacy" and "range" would have different meanings at different stages of the training course and would be closely linked to profiling of teacher competencies. If training was conducted in this way it could act to co-ordinate the supervision procedures closely with the course development and profiling.

Specific training sessions could be focused on an understanding of degree of analysis to help tutors to observe carefully and to look for underlying causes. A particular emphasis could be given to looking for the reasons why some teaching is effective since tutors appear to focus on teaching which is ineffective, (see chapter 4).

Using the typology. If the typology was to be used in the way suggested in chapter 8, then clearly tutors would need

to share their experiences and understand the suggested relationship between the types and the supervision strategies. This would provide an opportunity for particular training in skills related to theories of supervision providing that such training gave equal emphasis to the tutors' judgements about when they should be applied. The use of case study material would be an effective way of implementing such an approach.

Training groups. The composition of training groups would need to be considered carefully and would change according to the focus of a training session. At times it would be important for tutors involved in a particular course to work together in order to link supervision of school-based work with that course. However, it would also be important to share discussion with tutors working on different courses, particularly to share views about personal foci. Finally, because of the importance of context, opportunities should be made for tutors, sometimes, to see the same student teaching situation and exchange their views about it.

8.5 Limitations of the study

The limitations of the study are closely associated with the circumstances in which it was carried out. The circumstances include:

- the situation
- the participants
- the resources available

and related to all the above:

- the chosen focus.

Each of these will be considered in turn.

The situation

The outcomes of a research study conducted in a social situation will be influenced by the circumstances of that situation and it is necessary for those circumstances to be made explicit. This has been done in chapter 3 and is summarised here.

The institution was a College of Higher Education in which between a third and a half of the students followed a 4 year B.Ed. programme. The students involved were not following degree courses which complied with the new requirements for subject study (D.E.S. 1989). They were in the third year of a degree which had not been subject to accreditation by the Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education.

It could be argued that the students comprised a particular segment of the population of student teachers and that their curriculum could have been influential. A further factor could have been the already good relationships which the college had with most of the co-operating schools and the regular nature of the supervisory visits.

However, a most significant factor is likely to be the nature of the course which these students were undertaking. In an era of diverse teacher training initiatives, the four year B.Ed. course, while presently accounting for a large number of trainee primary school students, has a very small

role in training of secondary teachers and is likely to have a diminishing role in the primary sector. The generalisability of the outcomes of this study are not self evident.

The participants

A serious attempt was made in the final study to include tutors whose background were varied and who did not work regularly together on a daily basis. Even so there was some shared experience among the participants who were all involved in some way with the four year BEd programme. The fact that they agreed to participate may have been significant. The influence of those tutors who joined two of the studies may have been significant in the development of the group thinking.

Although some of the tutors did contribute to the P.G.C.E. courses in the college this project was exclusively concerned with the BEd course and tutors were not asked to make any explicit reference to their P.G.C.E. commitments.

All the teachers had supervised students from the College before the project and in that sense they were familiar with the expectations of the College insofar as those expectations were made explicit. However, all the teachers were working with the tutors concerned for the first time.

The students were all studying on the B.Ed. programme and it could be argued that students teachers participating in a P.G.C.E. course would not only have different backgrounds

to those of BEd students but that they would certainly have had different training experiences. The way in which these experiences may alter teaching practice relationships is not apparent without empirical research.

Resources

Any project has limitations in terms of the resources available: The co-operation of the participants was bound to be affected by the extent of their available time and their commitment. The time of the investigator and the cost of transport was a further limitation on the scope of the work.

The time and cost influenced the number of trios which could be included in the study. They also influenced the number of visits which could be made to the schools which resulted in a possible under-representation of the views of the teachers and student teachers. Finally, time was a problem for two tutors who were not able to make themselves available for all the tutor meetings.

It may be considered that time had an adverse influence on the tutor discussions in that they usually had to be finished before everybody had said what they wanted to say.

Chosen focus

Perhaps the most important parameter of the study influencing the generalisability of the results was the chosen focus.

For reasons which are outlined in chapter 3 the focus for

the data gathering and the subsequent analysis gave precedence to the point of view of the supervising tutors. At all stages of the research the views of teachers and student teachers were taken into account but still that information was seen as supporting or negating the views of the tutors.

As a result of this emphasis the framework describing professional understanding was based on the tutors' perceptions and the typology recommended supervision strategies which were responsive to the teacher/student teacher relationship or, to put this another way, were responsive to the supervision role which the teacher was taking in that situation, whatever that might be. In some ways this seems to be patronising to teachers since it seems to give all the responsibility to tutors. It is this factor of extending the findings to take into account the views of the other participants which offers the most exciting prospect for future work.

8.6 Extending the application of the research.

At the present time in the United Kingdom the climate of co-operation in teacher education is changing, or rather moving more quickly in the direction it was already facing. The training of teachers is being seen increasingly as a joint enterprise between training institutions and schools. If the present developments continue along these lines, then it is quite possible that the major responsibility for teacher training (or at least the school based element of

it) will come to be taken by the schools with training institutions becoming redundant or changing the nature of their work. This is already apparent in the Articled and Licensed Teacher schemes.

It is not the purpose of this work to predict or comment on changes in teacher education. However, there does seem to be the potential for some very interesting and productive studies, based on this work, in the area of mentor training for those people who will be responsible for the training and professional development of teachers and trainee teachers in practical situations.

The challenge in further studies would be to trace the potential for what might be called co-operation between students teachers, teachers and tutors which would be of a higher order. Rather than tutors waiting to respond to the teacher/student relationship or manipulating such a relationship to meet what appear to be the student teacher's professional needs, the participants would be able to discuss those needs and jointly develop the most effective approach. Under these circumstances training for supervision would be shared by the teachers and tutors. Student teachers would also need to understand the possible supervision strategies which could be implemented. The professional understanding of teachers and student teachers could be monitored in a way which was not possible in this set of studies.

A further series of studies would monitor the nature of the

co-operation under these different circumstances and the way judgements and decisions are made. The roles taken by the participants would also be monitored and re-assessed.

The possibilities for a genuine sharing of expertise and responsibility for professional practice is exciting and brings to mind the words of Graves (1990) quoted in chapter 2.

However, though those concerned with the "reflective practicum" will develop an ethos of their own, they need to keep in touch both with the world of practice (the schools) and the world of science and scholarship, so that reflective practice is informed from these sources.
(p. 63/4)

It is tempting to think about the formation of a body of people who would have exactly those concerns. As Stones (1984) has pointed out, supervision has received much less attention than its importance merits and it is time for the balance to be redressed. In the increasingly shared environment of teacher education the members of such a body would come from many different institutions:

- training institutions
- teacher centres
- individual schools
- groups of schools.

It is the view of the writer that the mentoring of student teachers is too important to be assigned to a single practitioner. The evidence from this study has shown the potential for dialogue and reflection when people with different backgrounds can contribute.

8.7 Concluding comment

Schon (1983) has described supervision as "the management of messes". The evidence from this study suggests that for

many tutors supervision is a well-developed professional skill despite the lack of significance which is awarded to it and the difficult circumstances under which it is practised. In a training system which is rightly giving more emphasis to the practice of teaching it is important that supervision of that practice is also taken very seriously.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

ALLEN, D.W. and FORTUNE, J.C.(1967) An Analysis of Micro-Teaching: a New Procedure in Teacher Education, in: Micro-Teaching: a Description. (Stanford, California: School of Education, Stanford University).

ALPHONSO, R.J., FIRTH, G.R. and NEVILLE, R.F. (1985) Supervisory Skills: Selection and Application, Illinois School Research and Development, 22 (1), pp. 1-9.

APPLEGATE, J.A. and LASHLEY, T.J.(1982) Co-operating Teachers' Problems with Preservice Field Experience Students, Journal of Teacher Education, 33 (2), pp.15-18.

ASHCROFT, K. and GRIFFITHS, M.(1989) Reflective Teachers and Reflective Tutors: School Experience in an Initial Teacher Education Course, Journal of Education for Teaching, 15 (1), pp. 35-52.

ASHTON, P.M.E., HENDERSON, E.S., MERRITT, J.E., and MORTIMER, D.J. (1983) Teacher Education in the Classroom: Initial and In-service (London and Canberra, Croon Helm).

BARROWS, L (1979) Power Relationships in the Student Teacher Triad. Paper presented to the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.

BEARD, R.M. (1969) An Outline of Piaget's Developmental Psychology (London, Routledge, Kegan and Paul).

BERLINER, D.C.(1987) Ways of Thinking about Students and Classrooms by More and Less Experienced Teachers, in: J. CALDERHEAD (edt) Exploring Teachers' Thinking (London, Cassell Educational).

BERLINER, D.C. and CARTER, K.J. (1989) Differences in Processing Classroom Information by Expert and Novice Teachers, in: J. LOWYCK and C.M. CLARK Teacher Thinking and Professional Action. (Leuven, Leuven University Press).

BLUMBERG, A.(1976) Supervision: What it is and What it Might Be, Theory into Practice, 15. pp. 284-292.

BOLAM, R. (1975) Induction Programmes for Probationary Teachers (Bristol, University of Bristol, School of Education).

BOLAM R.(1980) Training the Trainers, Trends in Education, 3.

BOLAM, R., BAKER, K., McMAHON, A. (1979) The Teacher Induction Pilot Schemes (TIPS) Project :National Evaluation Project (Bristol, University of Bristol, School of Education).

BOOTHROYD, W.(1979) Teaching Practice Supervision: a Research Report, British Journal of Teacher Education, 5 (3), pp. 243-250.

BORG, W.R., KELLY, M.L., LANGER, P and GALL, M.(1970) The Mini-course: a Micro-teaching Approach to Teacher Education, (Beverly Hills, California, Macmillan Educational Services).

BOWMAN, N.(1979)) College Supervision of Student Teaching: a Time to Reconsider, Journal of Teacher Education, 30 (3), pp. 29-30.

BOYDELL, D.(1986) Issues in Teaching Practice Supervision Research: A Review of the Literature, Teaching and Teacher Education, 2 (2) pp. 115-125.

BRITZMAN, D. (1991) Practice Makes Practice: A Critical Study of Learning To Teach (New York, State University of New York Press).

BROMME, R. (1987) Teachers' Assessments of Students' Difficulties and Progress, in: J. CALDERHEAD Exploring Teachers' Thinking (London, Cassell Educational).

BROMME R. (1989) The "Collective Student" as the Cognitive Reference Point of Teachers' Thinking about Their Students in the Classroom, in: J. LOWYCK and C.M. CLARK (Edt) Teacher Thinking and Professional Action (Leuven, Leuven University Press).

BROWN, C.C. (1981) The Relationship between Teaching Styles, Personality and Setting, in: B.R. JOYCE , C.C. CLARK and L. PECK Flexibility in Teaching (New York and London, Longman).

BROWN, S., McINTYRE, D. and McALPINE , A (1988) The Knowledge which Underpins the Craft of Teaching (Edinburgh, Scottish Council for Research in Education).

CALDERHEAD, J.(1981) Stimulated Recall: a Method for Research on Teaching, British Journal of Educational Psychology, 51, pp. 211-217.

CALDERHEAD, J. (1985) Conceptualising and Investigating Teachers' Professional Knowledge. Paper presented at a Seminar on Teachers' Professional Craft Knowledge, University of Stirling .

CALDERHEAD, J.(1987) Exploring Teachers' Thinking (London, Cassell Educational).

CALDERHEAD, J.(1988a) Learning from Introductory School Experience, Journal of Education for Teaching, 14 (1), pp.75-83.

CALDERHEAD, J. (1988b) The Development of Knowledge Structures in Learning to Teach, in: J. CALDERHEAD Teachers' Professional Learning (London, New York, Philadelphia, The Falmer Press).

CALDERHEAD, J. and MILLER, E. (1986) The Integration of Subject Matter Knowledge in Student Teachers' Classroom Practice Research Monograph Series. (Lancaster, University of Lancaster, School of Education).

CAMERON-JONES, M. (1982) Final Report of Primary Teaching Practice Project (Edinburgh, Moray House College of Education).

CLARK, C.M. (1989) Asking the Right Questions about Teacher Preparation: Contributions of Research on Teacher Thinking, in: J. LOWYCK and CLARK C.M. Teacher Thinking and Professional Action (Leuven, Leuven University Press).

CLARK, C.M. and ELMORE, J.L. (1981) Transforming Curriculum in Mathematics, Science and Writing: a Case-study of Teacher Yearly Planning Research Series No. 99. (East Lansing, Michigan Institute for Research on Teaching, Michigan State University).

CLARK, C.M. and PETERSON, P.L. (1986) Teacher Thought Processes, in: M.C. WITTRICK (Edt.) Handbook of Research on Teaching, 3rd Edition. (New York, MacMillan).

CLARK, C.M. and YINGER, R.J. (1987) Teacher Planning, in: J. CALDERHEAD Exploring Teachers' Thinking (London, Cassell Educational).

COGAN, M.L. (1973) Clinical Supervision (Boston, Houghton Mifflin).

COHN, M. A (1981) New Supervision Model for Linking Theory and Practice, Journal of Teacher Education, 32 (3), pp. 26-30.

COHN, M.M. and GELLMAN V.C. (1988) A Developmental Approach for Fostering Inquiry in Pre-Service Teacher Education, Journal of Teacher Education, 39 (2), pp. 2-8.

COPE, E. (1971) School Experience in Teacher Education (Bristol, University of Bristol).

COPELAND, W. (1980) Student Teachers and Co-operating Teachers: An Ecological Relationship, Theory into Practice, 18, pp. 194-199.

DAVIDMAN, L. (1985) The Mismatch: Clinical Supervision and Pre-Service Education, Teacher Education Quarterly, 12 (3), pp. 95-100.

DERRICK, T. (1971) Teacher Training and the School Practice, Educational Research, 3 (3), pp. 3-8.

DESFORGES, C. and McNAMARA, D. (1979) Theory and Practice: Methodological Procedures for the Objectification of Craft Knowledge, British Journal of Teacher Education, 5 (2), pp. 179-183.

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND SCIENCE (1988) The New Teacher in School: A Survey by H.M. Inspectors in England and Wales, 1987 (London, H.M.S.O.).

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND SCIENCE (1989) Criteria for the Approval of Initial Teacher Training Courses (London, D.E.S.).

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION AND SCIENCE (1991) The Professional Training of Primary School Teachers: A Commentary Based on the Inspection of 20 Initial Teacher Training Courses, March 1988-June 1989 (London, D.E.S.).

DOYLE, W. and PENDER, G.A. (1975) Classroom Ecology: Some Consensus about a Neglected Dimension of Research on Teaching, Contemporary Education, 46, pp. 183-188.

DOYLE, W. and PENDER, G.A. (1978) The Practicality Ethic in Teacher Decision Making, Interchange, 8 (3), pp. 1-12.

DUTTON, W. (1982) Attitude and Anxiety Change of Elementary School Student Teachers, Journal of Educational Research, 55, pp. 380-382.

ELBAZ, F. (1983) Teacher Thinking: a Study of Practical Knowledge (London, Croon Helm).

ELBAZ, F. (1990) Knowledge and Discourse: the Evolution of Research on Teacher Thinking, in: C. DAY, M. POPE and P. DENICOLA Insight into Teacher Thinking and Practice (London, The Falmer Press).

ELLIOTT, J. (1976) Preparing Teachers for Classroom Accountability, Education For Teaching, 100, pp. 37-59.

ELLIOTT, J. (1977) Some Key Concepts Underlying Teachers' Evaluation of Innovation, Mimeo (Cambridge, Cambridge Institute of Education).

ELLIOTT, J. (1982) Institutionalising Action Research in Schools, in: J. ELLIOTT and D. WHITEHEAD Action Research For Professional Development and Improvement of Schooling (Cambridge, CARN Publications).

ELLIOTT, J. and ADELMAN, C. Ford Teaching Project Unit 2: Research Methods (Cambridge, Centre for Applied Research in Education).

EMANS, R. (1983) Implementing the Knowledge Base: Redesigning the Function of Co-operating Teachers and College Supervisors, Journal of Teacher Education, 34,

pp. 14-18.

ERICSSON, K.A. and SIMON, H.A. (1980) Verbal Reports as Data, Psychological Review, 87, pp. 215-251.

EXETER UNIVERSITY, Teaching Practice Criteria: Primary (Exeter, Exeter University).

FEIMANN-NEMSER, S. and BUCHMANN, M. (1985) On What is Learned in Student Teaching and Appraising the Experience, Paper presented at the annual meeting of American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Chicago.

FROEBEL, F. (1887) The Education of Man (New York and London, D. Appleton and Co.).

FULLER, F.F. and MANNING, B.A. (1973) Self Confrontation Reviewed: a Conceptualisation for Video Playback in Teacher Education, Review of Educational Research, 43 (4), pp. 469-528.

FURLONG, V.J., HIRST, P.H., POCKLINGTON, K. and MILES, S. (1988) Initial Teacher Training and the Role of the School (Milton Keynes and Philadelphia, Open University Press).

GAGE, N.L. (1978) The Scientific Basis of the Art of Teaching (New York and London, Teachers College Press, Columbia University)

GARMAN, N.B. (1986) Reflection, the Heart of Clinical Supervision: a Modern Rationale for Professional Practice, Journal of Curriculum Supervision, 2 (1), pp. 1-24.

GIBSON, R. (1977) The Effect of School Practice: the Development of Student Perspectives, British Journal of Teacher Education, 2 (3), pp. 241-250.

GITLIN, A., ROSE, E., WALTHER, C. and MAGLEBY, L. (1985) Why Supervisors Behave as They Do: Relationship of Beliefs, Socialisation and Practice, Journal of Education for Teaching, 11 (1), pp. 50-62.

GLASER, G.B. and STRAUSS, A. (1967) The Discovery of Grounded Theory (Chicago, Aldene).

GLICKMAN, C.D. and GORDON, S.P. (1987) Clarifying Developmental Supervision, Educational Leadership, 44 (8), pp. 64-68.

GOLDHAMMER, R. (1969) Clinical Supervision (New York, Holt, Rinehart and Winston).

GOODMAN, J. (1986) Making Early Field Experience Meaningful, Journal of Education for Teaching, 12 (1), pp. 109-125.

GRANT, C.A. and ZEICHNER, K. (1984) On Becoming a Reflective Teacher, in: C.A. GRANT (ed.) Preparing for Reflective Teaching (Boston, Allyn Bacon).

GRIFFIN, G.A. (1983) Expectations for Student Teaching: What Are They and Are They Being Realised? Paper presented at the meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Montreal, Canada.

GRIFFIN, G., BARNES, S., HUGHES, R., O'NEAL, S., DEFINO, M., EDWARDS, M., and HUHILL, H. (1983) Clinical Pre-Service Teacher Education: Final Report of a Descriptive Study (Austin, University of Texas Research and Development Center for Teacher Education).

GRIFFITHS, M. (1987) The Teaching of Skills and the Skills of Teaching: a Reply to Robin Barrow, Journal of Philosophy of Education, 21 (2), pp. 203-212.

GRIFFITHS, R. (1974) The Training of Micro Teaching Supervisors, British Journal of Teacher Education, 1 (2) pp. 59-78.

GRAVES, N. (1990) Thinking and Research on Teacher Education, in: GRAVES N. Initial Teacher Education: Policies and Practice (London, Kogan Page).

GRIMMETT, P. and RATZLOFF, H. (1986) Expectations for the Co-operating Teacher, Journal of Teacher Education, 37 (6) pp. 141-150.

GUNMUNDSDOTTIR, S. (1990) Curriculum Stories: Four Case Studies of Social Science Teaching, in: C. DAY, M. POPE and P. DENICOLA, Insights into Teachers' Thinking and Practice (London and New York and Philadelphia, The Falmer Press).

HALKES, R. and OLSEN, J.K. (1984) Teacher Thinking: A New Perspective on Persisting Problems in Education (Lisse, Swets and Zeitlinger).

HAMILTON, D., JENKINS, D., KING, C., McDONALD, B., and PARTLETT, M. Beyond the Numbers Game (Basingstoke, McMillan Educational).

HANDAL, G. and LAUVAS, P. (1987) Promoting Reflective Teaching - Supervision in Practice (Milton Keynes, The Society for Research into Higher Education and Open University Press).

HARGREAVES, D.H., HESTOR, S.K. and MELLOR, F.J. (1975) Deviance in Classrooms (London and Boston, Routledge and Kegan Paul).

HARRE, R. and SECORD, P.F. (1972) The Explanation of Social Behaviour (Oxford, Basil Blackwell).

- HAYON, K.L. (1990) Reflection on Professional Knowledge: a Conceptual Framework, in: C. DAY, M. POPE and P. DENICOLA Insights into Teachers' Thinking and Practice (London and New York and Philadelphia, The Falmer Press).
- HEATH, R.W. and NEILSON, M.A. (1974) Performance Based Teacher Education, Review of Educational Research, 44, pp. 463-484.
- HODGES, C. (1982) Implementing Methods: If you Can't Blame the Co-operating Teacher Who Can You Blame?, Journal of Teacher Education, 33 (6), pp. 25-29.
- HOOPER, D. and JOHNSON, T (1973) Teaching Practice: Training for Social Control?, Education for Teaching, 92, pp. 23-29.
- HOOVER, N.L., O'SHEA, L.J. and CARROLL, R.G. (1988) The Supervisor-Intern Relationship and Effective Interpersonal Communication Skills, Journal of Teacher Education, 39 (2), pp. 22-27.
- HOYDY, W. and REES, R. (1977) The Bureaucratic Socialisation of Student Teachers, Journal of Education for Teaching, 28 (1), pp. 23-26.
- HUNT, D.E. and JOYCE, R. (1981) Teacher Trainee Personality and Initial Teaching Style, in: B.R. JOYCE, C.C. BROWN and L. PECK Flexibility in Teaching (New York and London, Longman)
- INHELDER, B. and PIAGET, J. (1958) The Growth of Logical Thinking from Childhood to Adolescence (London, Routledge, Kegan and Paul).
- JOYCE, B.R., BROWN, C.C. and PECK, L. (1981) Flexibility in Teaching: An Excursion into the Nature of Teaching and Training. (New York and London, Longman).
- KAGAN, D. and ALBERTSON, L.M. (1987) Student Teaching: Perceptions of Supervisory Meetings, Journal of Education for Teaching, 13 (1), pp. 51-60.
- KING, R.L. (1985) Situational Supervision or Student Performance Based Teacher Training. Paper presented at the Annual General Meeting of the National Council of States on In-Service Education, Denver.
- KOEHLER, V. (1984) University Supervision of Student Teaching (Report No 906) (Austin, University of Texas, Research and Development Center for Teacher Education).
- KOMPF, M. and DWORET, D. (1990) Teachers Never Stop Thinking about Teaching, in: C. DAY, M. POPE and P. DENICOLA Insight into Teachers' Thinking and Practice (London, New York, Philadelphia, The Falmer Press).

KORTHAGEN, F.A.J. (1988) The Influence of Learning Orientations on the Development of Reflective Teaching, in: J. CALDERHEAD (edt.) Teachers' Professional Learning (London, New York, Philadelphia, The Falmer Press).

KREMER-HAYON, L. (1986) Supervisors' Inner World: Professional Perspectives, European Journal of Teacher Education, 9 (2), pp. 181-187.

LASHLEY, T.J., APPLGATE, J.H. and ELLISON, C. (1986) The Expectations and Problems of University Supervisors of Early Field Experiences, Journal of Education for Teaching, 12 (2), pp. 127-140.

LAWLOR, S. (1990) Teacher Mistought: Training in Theories or Education in Subjects Policy Study No. 16 (London: Centre for Policy Studies).

LOWYCK, J. (1986) Post -Interactive Reflection of Teachers: a Critical Appraisal, in: M. BEN-PERETZ M., R. BROMME and R. HALKES (edt.) Advances in Research on Teacher Thinking (Lisse, Swets and Zeitlinger).

LOWYCK J. and CLARK, C.M.(1989) Teacher Thinking and Professional Action (Leuven, Leuven University Press).

McALPINE, A., BROWN, S., McINTYRE D. and HAGGER H. (1988) Student Teachers Learning from Expereinced Teachers Scottish Council for Research in Education Project Report. (Edinburgh, Scottish Council for Research in Education).

McCULLOCH, M. (1979) School Experience in the Initial BEd/BEd (Hons) Degrees Validated by the Council for National Academic Awards. (London, Council for National Academic Awards).

McINTYRE, D. (1988) Designing a Teacher Education Curriculum from Research and Theory on Teacher Knowledge, in: J. CALDERHEAD Teachers' Professional Learning (London, New York. Philadelphia, The Falmer Press).

McINTYRE, D. (1991) Theory, Theorising and Reflection in Initial Teacher Education. Paper read to Conceptualising Reflection in Teacher Development Conference, Bath University.

McKAY, D.A. and MARLAND, P. (1978) Thought Processes of Teachers CEDRS-ED 151328

McNAMARA, D. (1976) On Returning to the Chalkface, British Journal of Teacher Education, 2 (2), pp. 147-160.

McNAMARA,D.R. and DESFORGES, C. (1978) The Social Sciences,Teacher Education and Objectification of Craft Knowledge, in: British Journal of Teacher Education 4 (1), pp. 17-36.

McNAMARA, D.R. and DESFORGES, C.W.(1979) Professional Studies as a Source of Theory, in: R. ALEXANDER and E. WORMALD (edTs.) Professional Studies for Teaching (Windsor, Society for Research into Higher Education).

McNAMARA, D. and BOLGER, O. (1982).....What about the practice?, in: Times Educational Supplement 10/09/82.

MAHLIOS,M. (1982) Effects of Pair Formation on the Performance of Student Teachers, in: Action in Teacher Education, 4, pp. 65 - 69.

MANSFIELD, P.A. (1986) Patchwork Pedagogy: a Case Study of Supervisors' Emphasis on Pedagogy in Post - Lesson Conference, Journal of Education for Teaching, 12 (3), pp. 259-271.

MAY, W.T. and ZIMMER, N.L. (1986) An Examination of Three Theoretical Perspectives on Supervision: Perceptions of Pre-service Field Supervision, Journal of Curriculum and Supervision, 1 (2), pp. 83-99.

MONTESSORI, M. (1912) The Montessori Method (New York, F.A. Stokes Co. Inc.).

MORRIS, J.R. (1974) The Effects of the University Supervisor on the Performance and Adjustment of Student Teachers, Journal of Educational Research, 67, pp. 358-362.

MOSHER, R.L. and FURPEL, D.E. (1972) Supervision: the Reluctant Profession (Boston, Mass., Houghton Mifflin).

NEIMAYER, R. and MOON, A. (1987) Discovering Supervisors' Thought Patterns Through Journals Paper presented at the Annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Washington D.C.

NETTLE, T. (1988) A Teaching and Learning Approach to Supervision within a Teacher Education Program, Journal of Education for Teaching, 14 (2), pp. 125-133.

NUTTHALL, G.A. (1968) Teacher Verbal Behaviour and Pupil Learning. Unpublished manuscript. (Christchurch, New Zealand, University of Canterbury Department of Education).

NUTTHALL, G.A. and LAWRENCE, P.J. (1965) Thinking in the Classroom. (Wellington, New Zealand Council for Educational Research).

OBBERG, A. (1989) The Grounds of Professional Practice, in: J. LOWYCK and C.M. CLARK, Teacher Thinking and Professional Action (Leuven, Leuven University Press).

O'HEAR, A. (1988) Who Teaches the Teachers ? Research Report No 10. (London, Social Affairs Unit).

O'HEAR, A. (1991) Getting the Teacher We Deserve in: The Guardian, 26/3/90.

OLSEN, J. (1989) Case Study on Research on Teaching: A Ground for Reflective Practice in J. LOWYCK and C.M. CLARK Teacher Thinking and Professional Practice (Leuven, Leuven University Press).

O'NEAL, S. (1983) Supervision of Student Teachers: Feedback and Evaluation (Austin, University of Texas Research and Development Center for Teacher Education).

O'SHEA, L.J., HOOVER, N.L. and CARROLL, R.G. (1988) Effective Intern Conferencing, Journal of Teacher Education, 39 (2), pp. 17-21.

PARTLETT, M. and HAMILTON, D. (1977), Evaluation as Illumination: A New Approach to the Study of Innovatory Programmes, in D. HAMILTON et al. Beyond the Numbers Game (Basingstoke, McMillan Educational).

PECK, R.F. and TUCKER, J.A. (1973) Research on Teacher Education, in: R.A. TRAVERS (ed.) Second Handbook of Research on Teaching (Chicago, Rand McNally).

PERLBERG, A. and THEODOR, E. (1975) Patterns and Styles in the Supervision of Teachers, British Journal of Education for Teaching, 1. pp. 203-211.

RICHARDSON-KOEHLER, V. (1988) Barriers to Effective Supervision of Student Teaching, Journal of Teacher Education, 39 (2), pp. 28-35.

ROSENTHINE, B. and FURST, N. (1973) The Use of Direct Observation to Study Teaching, in: R.M.W. TRAVERS (ed.) Second Handbook of Research on Teacher Education (Chicago, Rand McNally College Publishing Company).

ROWELL, J.A. and DAWSON, C.J. (1981) Prepared to Teach?, Journal of Education for Teaching, 7 (3), pp. 315-323.

RUST, F.O. (1988) How Supervisors Think about Teaching, Journal of Teacher Education, 39 (2), pp. 56-63.

SCHON, D.A. (1983) The Reflective Practitioner (London, Temple Smith)

SCHON, D.A. (1987) Educating the Reflective Practitioner (San Francisco and London, Jossey Bass).

SCHUTZ, A. (1971) Collected Papers II: Studies in Social Theory (The Hague, Martinus Nijhoff).

SEPERSON, A. and JOYCE, B.R. (1981) The Relationship between the Teaching Styles of Student Teachers and Those of Co-operating Teachers, in: B.R. JOYCE, C.C. BROWN and L. PECK Flexibility in Teaching (New York and London,

Longman)

SERGIOVANNI, T.J. (1985) Landscapes, Mindscapes, and Reflective practice in Supervision, Journal of Curriculum and Supervision, 1 (1), pp. 5-17.

SERGIOVANNI, T. (1986) Theories and Models as Metaphors: Building a Science of Supervision: Paper presented to the annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco).

SHANKER, A. (1974) Competency Based Teacher Training and Certification: Acceptable and Unacceptable Models. (Washington DC, Quest Consortium of Books, American Federation of Teachers).

SHAVELSON, R.J. and STERN, P. (1981) Research on Teachers' Pedagogical Thoughts, Judgements, Decisions and Behaviour, Review of Educational Research, 51, pp. 455-498.

SIMON, A. and BOYER, E.G. (edt.) (1970) Mirrors for Behaviour: an Anthology of Classroom Observation Instruments: Supplementary Volumes A and B (Philadelphia, Research for Better Schools).

SMITH, E.L. and SENDELBACH, N.B. (1979) Teacher Intentions for Science Instruction and Their Antecedents in Program Materials Paper presented to the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco.

SMITH, L. and ALVERMANN, D.E. (1985) Field-Experience: Reading Interns Profile the Effective/Ineffective University Supervisor, Reading World, 24 (3), pp. 1-9.

SMITH, R. and TOMLINSON, P. (1984) Radio Assisted Practice: Preliminary Investigations of a New Technique in Teacher Education, Journal of Education for Teaching, 10 (2), pp. 119-134.

SOLOMAN, J. (1987) New Thoughts on Teacher Education, Oxford Review of Education, 13 (3), pp. 267-74.

STAPLETON, M.L. (1965) An Evaluation of Two Programs of Student Teacher Supervision by College Supervisors Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation. (The Pennsylvania State University. University Park).

STONES, E. (1984) Supervision in Teacher Education (London, Methuen and Co. Ltd.).

STONES, E. (1979) Psychopedagogy: Psychological Theory and the Practice of Teaching (London, Methuen and Co. Ltd.).

STONES, E and MORRIS, S. (1972) The Assessment of Practical Teaching, Educational Research, 14 (2), pp. 110-119.

- STONES, E. and WEBSTER, H. (1983) Failure and Retrieval in Teaching Practice mimeo.
- TABACHNICK, B.R. and ZEICHNER, K.M. (1984) The Impact of Student Teaching Experience on the Development of Teacher Perspectives, Journal of Teacher Education, 35 (6), pp.28-36.
- TERRELL, C., TREGASKIS, O., and BOYDELL, D. (1985) Teaching Practice Supervisors in Primary Schools: an Ethnomethodological Perspective: A Research Report (Cheltenham, College of St Paul and St Mary)
- TRACY, S. and MACNAUGHTON, R.H. (1986) The Neo-Traditional Approach to Instructional Supervision: Problems, Promises, and Options, Contemporary Education, 57 (3), pp. 130-134.
- TURNER-MUEKE, L.A., RUSSELL, T. and BOWYER, J. (1986) Reflection in Action: Case Study of a Clinical Supervisor, Journal of Curriculum and Supervision, 2, pp. 40-49.
- TURNER, C. (ed) (1977) Innovation in Teacher Education (Sydney, Sydney University Press).
- TURNER, C., CAIRNS, L.G., ELTIS, K.J., HATTON, N., THEW, D.M., TOWLER, J. and WRIGHT, R. (1982) The Practicum in Teacher Education: Research, Practice and Supervision (Sydney, Sydney University Press).
- WARGER, C.I. and ALDINGER, L.E. (1984) Improving Student Teacher Supervision: the Pre-Service Consultation Model TEASE No. 7.
- WILBUR, P. and GOODING, C. (1977) Attitude Change in Student Teachers, College Student Journal, 11, pp. 227-231.
- WINTER, R. (1980) Perspective Documents on Teaching Practice (Chelmer, Essex Institute of Higher Education).
- WRAGG, E. (1974) Teaching Teaching (Newton Abbot, David and Charles).
- WRAGG, E. (1982) A Review of Research in Teacher Education. (Slough, N.F.E.R. - Nelson).
- WRAGG, E. (edt.) (1984) Classroom Teaching Skills (Beckenham, Croon Helm).
- Yates, J.W. (1981) Student Teaching in England: Results of a Recent Survey. Journal of Education for Teaching, 32 (5), pp. 44-46.
- YEE, A.H. (1968) Interpersonal Relationships in the Student Teaching Triad, Journal of Teacher Education, 19 (1), pp.23-31.

YINGER, R.J. (1977) A Study of Teacher Planning: Description and Theory Development Using Ethnographic and Information Processing Methods. (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University).

ZAHORIK, J.A. (1988) The Observing Conferencing Role of University Supervisors, Journal of Teacher Education, 39 (2) pp.9-16.

ZEICHNER, K.M. (1983) Alternative Paradigms of Teacher Education, Journal of Teacher Education, 34 (3/5), pp. 3-9.

ZEICHNER, K. and TABACHNICK, B.R. (1982) The Belief Systems of University Supervisors in an Elementary Student-Teaching Programme, Journal of Education for Teaching, 8 (1), pp. 34-54.

ZEICHNER, K. and LISTON, D. (1987) Teaching Student Teachers to Reflect, Harvard Educational Review, 57 (1), pp. 23-47.

ZIMPER, N., DEVOSS, G. and NOTT, D.L. (1980) A Closer Look at University Student Teacher Supervision, Journal of Teacher Education, 21 (4), pp. 11-15.

ZIMPER, N. and HOWEY, K. (1987) Adapting Supervisory Practices Orders of Teacher Competence, Journal of Curriculum and Supervision, 2, pp. 101-127.

