CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

Numerous studies have been carried out on the supervision and mentoring of undergraduate pre-service and in-service teachers during teaching practice in the last few decades, mostly in the west. However, there seems to be limited investigations specifically on college supervisors providing advice and support to pre-service teachers, in relation to the principles of clinical supervision and reflective practice, especially in Malaysia. Thus, the researcher had to survey literature based mainly on research done in the last two decades on undergraduate pre-service and in-service teachers in other countries.

This literature review is divided into three parts. The first part will explore studies done on the theories and perspectives of teacher preparation and supervision. It will deliberate on the models of teacher preparation, the supervisory triad and collaboration, models of clinical supervision, interventions, interactions, counselling, multiple activities, and the implementation of clinical supervision.

The second part will highlight issues on reflective practice and autonomous teacher development. This will include theories and perspectives of reflective practice, the importance of reflective practice, developing effective reflective practice, and the phases of reflective practice.

Lastly, this chapter will examine the methods employed by researchers in the studies surveyed, so as to provide an avenue for the researcher to select suitable methods for his data collection.

2.1 Theories and Perspectives of Teacher Preparation

2.1.1 The Models of Teacher Preparation

It is believed that historically, the teaching profession has evolved as other skilled professions, through three major models, namely the craft model (Dewey, 1933; and Stenhouse, 1975 in Wallace, 1991) the applied science model (Gebhard, Gaitan and Oprandy, 1990; Wallace, 1991; Beyer, 2001), and the reflective model (Schon, 1983). As for the degree of professionalization of teachers, Carr and Kemmis (1983 in Richards and Nunan, 1990) asserted that the methods and procedures used by teachers are based on a dynamic body of theoretical knowledge and research findings. Generally, teacher preparation programs are designed based on these studies, to include two major components: theoretical content; and teaching practice (Richards and Nunan, 1990). The Teaching of English as a Second Language (ESL) programs, specifically include theories of teaching and learning of English as a second language, and teaching practice based on language teaching methodology (Richards and Nunan, 1990).

The craft model or *'apprentice-master'* model of teacher preparation was practised up till the end of the Second World War (Stones and Morris, 1972:7 in Wallace, 1991) and was shortly revived in the mid 1970s (Stenhouse, L., 1975:75, cited in Wallace, 1991). It was exclusively *'practice'* and student teachers were trained in schools as *'apprentices'* imitating a *'master teacher'* who instructed and advised them on what and how to teach (Beyer, 2001). Though 'training' or 'practice' is still a major component of teacher preparation programs, teacher educators decided that the *'master-apprentice'* concept, which was only effective in a static society (Stone and Morris, 1972 in Wallace, 1991) could not be sustained in a dynamic educational context. It limits the student teachers' scope of learning to viewing only the possible peripheral limits of a set curriculum and methods (Mouton & Blake, 1984; and Tinning, 1985 in Donoghue & Brooker, 1996) and a shallow perception of structures and habits, which

cannot promote their continuous professional growth. With the advent of scientific knowledge and the developments of teaching and learning theory and practice the *'master-apprentice'* model, was deemed insufficient for teacher education (Wallace, 1991; Ben-Peretz, 2001).

Unlike the imitative nature of the craft model, the applied science model is based on scientific knowledge, as it came about with the explosion of scientific knowledge and revolutions in the field of scientific studies in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. It was traditionally believed to be effective and is still used in some training and education programmes for teaching. In this model, empirical research findings are conveyed by experts to *"passive"* student teachers and practitioners who implement them in their classrooms, without the power to make any changes (Wallace, 1991). This approach has a few limitations (Schon, 1983; Beyer 2001). Firstly, teacher educators authoritatively prescribe what teachers should do to be effective practitioners to the resentment of experienced teachers. Secondly, not much evidence is available that any one teaching method is better than another in all settings. To make matters worse, teacher educators make decisions and this is not effective in educating student teachers to take classroom responsibilities. Another setback of this model is that researchers are not aware of classroom phenomena, which are only familiar to practising teachers, as they are not involved in the day-to-day classroom teaching. As a result, theory and practice are separated making the implementation of scientific knowledge (e.g. Chomsky's Transformational Grammar) in classrooms unsuccessful (Wallace, 1991).

Besides the change from the craft model to the applied science model, the term *'training'* has been replaced with a more encompassing term *'education' as* researchers found that it was essential to integrate theory and practice to develop effective teachers. The argument was that the notion *'training'* has the connotation of drill, practice and exercise whilst the notion *'education'* encompasses not only theoretical knowledge and

practical skills, but also the cognitive skills of reasoning, judgement and decision making (Widdowson, 1984 in Loughran, 2002). However, training is still necessary for developing certain practical skills though it is not the mechanical application of these skills in accordance to a set of rules. It is rather the manipulation of these skills in particular situations through reasoned judgements and decisions (Richards, 1990).

Currently the term *'development'* is widely used in teacher preparation as it was found that teachers needed more than just pedagogical knowledge and skills to meet the dynamic demands of teaching and learning. Teachers today not only need to constantly upgrade themselves to keep up with changing trends, but also need to adopt new roles and responsibilities. Teacher preparation programmes thus are expected to provide opportunities for student teachers to become intuitive, retrospective and reflective so that they can become independent thinkers who can manage their own professional development and not expect a ready-made solution for the problems they encounter (Beyer, 2001; Ben-Peretz, 2001). Consequently the reflective model (Wallace, 1991; Beyer, 2001; Ben-Peretz, 2001) of teacher preparation emerged.

Schon (1983) cites two types of knowledge: 'received knowledge' and 'experiential knowledge', in this approach of teacher development, which student teachers integrate through practice and reflection leading them towards professional competence. Received knowledge comprises research-based theories and techniques and those that are not research-based (e.g. Communicative Methodology). It is thus referred as it is knowledge conveyed by teacher educators to student teachers (received wisdom) without *"...proof or question"* and is not experienced by them. Experiential knowledge on the other hand is derived via two phenomena: *'knowing-in-action'* and *'reflection'* (Schon, 1983).

'Knowing-in-action' refers to personal experience, feelings, intentions and observations in the classroom, which is only familiar to practising teachers. Reflection

refers to consciously thinking of and about these observations and experience, which lead to the development of insights into knowing-in-action. In the reflective model student teachers observe experienced teachers and practices, as well as apply received knowledge of theories, methodologies and techniques in their own practice. They then make their own logical judgements and decisions through well thought-out reflection (Schon, 1983) leading to their professional development.

To conclude, the three models of teacher preparation differ in the manner and extent to which professional and pedagogic knowledge and skills are transferred to student teachers, as well as the degree of independent professional growth fostered. The craft model focuses on the experiential aspect of professional development producing narrowly skilled teachers (Bartlett, Knight, & Lingard 1991: 94 in Donoghue and Brooker, 1996). It does not allow reflective thinking and self-development (Ruddock, 1991: 330, 331 in Donoghue and Brooker, 1996) and cannot handle scientific knowledge and pedagogical developments (Stones, 1972 in Wallace, 1991). The applied science model creates a split between research and professional practice and downgrades the expertise of practising teachers, and gives false hope of being able to solve complex problems teachers face in the classroom (Wallace, 1991). The reflective model, on the other hand, encompasses both *'training'* and *'professional development'* of teachers (Beyer, 2001; Ben-Peretz, 2001) fostering their cognitive, technical and social growth (Zimpher, 1988 in Kauffman, 1992).

2.2 Teaching Practice and Supervision

2.2.1 The supervisory Triad and the Need for Collaboration

Teaching practice or *'field experience'* is an important component of teacher preparation and is regarded as a *'highly valued experience'*, in which supervision plays an important role (Zahorik, 1988 in Kauffman, 1992). The incorporation of actual

classroom teaching in teacher preparation programs is very useful and intellectually demanding (Goodlad, 1990, 1991; Holmes Group, 1990; Meade, 1991 in McDermott, Gormeley, Rothernberg, and Hammer, 1995). Generally, student teachers regard teaching practice as an invaluable part of teacher preparation (Johnston, 1994; Cochran-Smith, 1991; Evertson, 1990), which is crucial to the development of their pedagogical skills (Richardson-Koehler 1988: 22, in Weaver and Stanulis, 1996).

In teaching practice the supervisor (teacher educator from a university or college), the co-operative teacher (mentor in school) and the student teachers, together form a supervisory triad influencing the student teachers' teaching experience (Feiman-Nemser and Buchmann, 1987 in Slick, 1998). In theory and practice, supervisors and mentors are instrumental in preparing students to become effective teachers, but they differ in their perspectives on the learning processes that take place. Most supervisors feel that students are adequately prepared for teaching at the university (AACCTE 1991 in Kauffman, 1992) whilst most mentors stressed the importance of teaching practice in the professional growth of teachers. Zapeda and Ponticell (1998: 68, 69) in their research on clinical supervision claimed that supervisors were inconsistent on their focus as it depended on the model of teacher preparation adopted. No comments were made on mentors in this respect.

Studies also show that generally mentors are more influential and exert the greatest impact on the learning of student teachers. This is because of their close interaction and longer period of contact with student teachers during teaching practice (Koehler, 1986; Evertson, 1990; Koerner, 1992; Stanulis, 1995 in Weaver, and Stanulis, 1996). Student teachers on the other hand often devalue or forget the knowledge acquired at the university once they go for teaching practice (Zeichner and Tabachnick, 1982 in Slick, 1998) and often model the style and personality of the mentors (Freibus, 1997; Stanulis, 1996 in Weaver and Stanulis, 1996). In addition, supervisors are seen to

be more of evaluators (Reitzug, 1997; Zapeda and Judith, 1998 in Zepeda and Pontecell, 1998), which make them seem less concerned with the aspect of teacher development.

Clearly (1988 in Kauffman, 1992) stressed the need for supervisors to provide better supervision of student teachers during teaching practice in order to change the above perceptions. Rosaen (1992, in Weaver, and Stanulis, 1996) in support, emphasised that the student teaching experience is a developmental process and urged supervisors to view it as such and not as a time to *"show what you know"*. Pajak (2001) felt that it was necessary for supervisors to fully understand the student teachers' perception of supervision, which Peterson and Comeaux (1990, in Zapeda and Ponticell, 1998) later discovered to be influenced by context.

The above views and suggestions might increase the effectiveness of supervisors in helping student teachers' develop teaching competence, especially if they work hand-in-hand with the mentors. Researchers feel that collaboration between the two is essential to make teaching practice more fruitful. A true collaboration between them, respecting each other's knowledge and skills (Carriuolo, 1991, and Stanulis and Graham, 1995 in Weaver and Stanulis, 1996), can create a conducive environment for student teachers to acquire new ways of thinking (Short and Burke, 1991: 15 in Weaver and Stanulis, 1996). Furthermore, student teachers need not submissively accept the existing norms and strategies of classroom teaching. However, in reality, university supervisors and mentors seldom work as a team due to their dissimilar role expectations (Bhagat, Clark, and Combs, 1989; Hoover, O'Shea, and Carrol, 1988; Williams, Butt and Soares, 1992 in Hawkey, 1995). Such lack of collaboration and the conventional technique of teaching and supervision (Moon Niemeyer, and Simmoms, 1988 in Kauffman, 1992) impede the process of developing the professionalism of student teachers.

In order for collaboration to take place, supervisors should be trained to *'reconceptualize'* their roles (Boydell, 1986 in Kauffman, 1992), and mentors should be trained to analyse their own teaching and supervisory techniques (Richardson-Koehler, 1988 in Weaver and Stanulis, 1998). In addition, according to Zimpher, 1988 and Kirchhof, 1989 (in Kauffman, 1992), supervisors and mentors need to meet regularly working as a team, and communicating consistently to help students link theory and practice. This collaborative student teacher preparation (Kirchhoff, 1989 in Kauffman, 1992) provides *"...powerful learning opportunities"* (Firestone and Pennell, 1993 in Weaver and Stanulis, 1998), which the school or university cannot provide independently (Cochran-Smith, 1991). Commenting on this collaborative exercise, Dohrer, (1995: 127 in Weaver and Stanulis, 1996) stated *"... student teachers will get university and school experiences in which theory informs practice and practice informs theory"*

These perspectives are on university pre-service and in-service teachers in the west and as such, it might not apply to the supervision of college trained pre-service teachers, especially in Malaysia where the cultural and English Language context is different.

2.3 Clinical Supervision

2.3.1 - Theoretical Perspectives and Models

The ultimate goal of most English as a Second Language (ESL) teacher preparation programs is effective language teaching in the classroom and developing autonomous teachers. Kauffman (1992) assert that clinical supervision if properly administered can produce positive results, which in turn can lead to the achievement of this goal.

Clinical Supervision is the face-to-face interaction between supervisors and student teachers on their classroom teaching (Wallace, 1991), which is intended to improve teaching and student teachers' professional growth (Sergiovanni and Starratt 1983). In other words, it is the "*teaching-helping relationship*" between the teacher educator and the student teacher during teaching practice, which is aimed at developing the latter's teaching competence and autonomous decision making capacity (Freeman, 1990). Through the interventions of and interactions with the teacher educator in clinical supervision the student teachers become aware of what, how and why they teach in a particular way in the classroom (Wallace, 1991).

There are a few proponents of clinical supervision and they have their own perspectives and models. Pajak (2002) has classified these models chronologically into four *'families'* according to shared qualities:

1. *Original Clinical Models (late 1960s and early 1970s)*
   Goldhammer, Mosher and Purpel, and Cogan proposed these models. They offer an eclectical blending of empirical, phenomenological, behavioural, and developmental perspectives. They emphasize the importance of collegial relations between supervisors and teachers, co-operative discovery of meaning, and development in individually unique teaching styles.
2. *Humanist/Artistic Models (mid-to-late 1970s)*
   The perspectives of Blumberg and Eisner are based on existential and aesthetic principles. These models forsake step-by-step procedures and emphasize open interpersonal relations and personal; intuition, artistry, and idiosyncrasy. Supervisors are encouraged to help teachers understand the expressive and artistic richness of teaching.
3. *Technical.Didactic Models (early -to-mid 1980s)*
   The work of Acheson and Gall, Hunter, and Joyce and Showers draws on process-product and effective teaching research. These models emphasise techniques of observation and feedback that reinforce certain "effective" behaviours or predetermined models of teaching to which teachers attempt to conform.
4. *Developmental Reflective Models (mid 1980s-to-the 1990s)*
   The models of Glickman, Costa and Garmston, Schon, Zeichner and Liston, Garman, Smyth and Retallick, Bowers and Flinders, and Waite are sensitive to individual differences and the organisational, social, political, and cultural contexts of teaching. These models call for supervisors to encourage reflection among teachers, foster professional growth, discover context specific principles of practice, and promote justice and equity.

Four Families of Clinical Supervision (in Pajak 2002:190)

Pajak's comparison of the four families of clinical supervision and the models they comprise indicates that they differ in aspects such as purpose, data collection techniques, recording procedures, number of steps, degree of teacher educator-student teacher control and nature of the pre-and post observation conferences. To enable teacher educators to choose a suitable version for their own contexts, they can adopt the concepts of Carl Jung's psychological functions (intuition, sensing, thinking and feeling) (Pajak, 2002).

2.3.2 Interventions

Just like the varied perspectives and models, the style and approach adopted for effective intervention in clinical supervision could also differ. The main purpose of clinical supervision is to provide an avenue for student teachers to develop their competence in teaching through a relationship with the teacher educator (Freeman, 1982 in Wallace, 1991) who intervenes appropriately. In general, the approach to these interventions differs based on the *'teacher training'* and *'teacher development'* perspectives discussed under 2.1.1 (p.23 – 26). Freeman (1982 in Wallace, 1991 and Randall and Thornton, 2001) noted three approaches, namely the directive approach, the alternative approach and non-directive approach that are based on Carl Roger's model of person-centred counselling (Rogers, 1969 in Randall and Thornton, 2001). Gebhard (1990) presented six approaches.

- ***Directive supervision**: where the role of the supervisor is to direct and inform the teacher, model appropriate teaching behaviours and act as evaluator.*
- ***Alternative supervision**, where the supervisor suggests a number of limited alternative actions to the teacher from where they are free to choose.*
- ***Collaborative supervision**, where the teacher and the supervisor work together to solve problems encountered in the classroom.*
- ***Non-directive supervision**, where the supervisor acts as understander and allows the teacher to come up with their own solution to classroom dilemmas.*
- ***Creative supervision.***
- ***Self-explorative supervision.***

(Gebhard, 1984: 156-166)

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Retallick (1986, in Richards and Nunan, 1990) suggested three field divisions, which correspond in many ways with the above. To simplify these, Wallace, (1991) categorised clinical supervision into two distinctive supervisory behaviours: the *classical prescriptive approach* and the *classical collaborative approach* :

Classical Prescriptive Approach	***Classical Collaborative Approach***
1 Supervisor as authority figure	*1. Supervisor as colleague*
2 Supervisor as only source of as co-expertise	*2. Supervisor and trainee or teacher sharer of expertise*
3. Supervisor judges	*3. Supervisor understands*
4. Supervisor applies a 'blueprint' accepts of how lesson ought to lesson in terms of what be taught	*4. Supervisor has no blueprint trainee or teacher is attempting to do*
5. Supervisor talks; trainee listens	*5. Supervisor considers listening as important as talking*
6. Supervisor attempts to preserve authority and mystique	*6. Supervisor attempts to help trainee or teacher develop autonomy, through practice in reflection and self-evaluation*

FIGURE 4 Approaches to Clinical Supervision (in Wallace, 1991:110)

According to Wallace, in the prescriptive approach the supervisor is the expert and an authoritative figure. He knows the best action to be taken for a given situation, points out the mistakes committed by student teachers and instructs them on how to remedy the mistakes. Though many educationalists reject this approach some feel that there is a need for it. Freeman (1982:22) postulated that supervisors and student teachers feel a sense of security when they know what to expect and perform according to it. Copeland (1982) found that some student teachers initially feel insecure facing their learners without the skills to handle the situation and needed directions. Zepeda and Ponticell (1998) discovered that student teachers readily accepted suggestions and advice from supervisors thinking that they are based on their good performance. In another note, in some countries, supervisors who do not give directions are considered unqualified. Bowers (1987:138) takes a middle path stressing the importance both the

prescriptive and collaborative approaches. In advocating the prescriptive approach he asserted that teacher training being process-oriented and prospective is concerned with inculcating skills and habits based on prescribed curriculum and materials. Counselling he claims is *"person-oriented"* and incTurnd to the collaborative approach. On the contrary, Gebhard (1990) criticises the prescriptive approach of being obstructive relating his own horrific experience of being observed as a teacher.

Other researchers like McGarvey and Swallow (1986) observed the use of both approaches in their study on supervisory styles adopted by microteaching tutors at the University of Ulster. The tutors adopted the prescriptive approach for their *'Practice for Classroom Teaching'* (PCT) as it was a short-term exercise and more focused on classroom issues. Besides, the participants were inexperienced teachers who had to be pointed out the shortcomings in their lessons and shown how to remedy them. Their rationale for using the non-directive, more collaborative approach for their *'Teaching Concept Development'* (TCD) was that they were concerned with *'supportive interpersonal relations'* as it was a long-term concern.

Their findings revealed that the student learners were aware of the different approaches used and responded differently to them. Tutors using the prescriptive approach were seen to be rigid and uncompromising and seemed distant and unapproachable discouraging the student teachers from sharing their concerns with them. Tutors using the other approach were regarded highly by student teachers for being flexible and sensitive towards their individuality. The persistent probing was considered as valuable in improving their pedagogic skills rather than intimidating. Though these findings support the collaborative approach, the prescriptive approach has some advantages too. Studies done by Perlberg and Theodre (1975, in Wallace, 1991) indicated student teachers' lack of interest in intellectual independence, autonomous inquiry, analysis, planning and self-evaluation. This however, could be because their

supervisors were advocates of the prescriptive approach and they did not get the chance to experience the positive qualities of the other approach, thus invalidating the comparison (Wallace, 1991).

Studies specifically on the other modes of supervision: directive, non-directive, creative and self-help exploratory provide some interesting insights (Gebhard, 1990). Commenting on directive supervision, Gebhard relates her fear of being observed by her conservative supervisor citing that the numerous process-product research have been unsuccessful in linking teaching behaviours to learning outcomes, which supports Allwright's (1983: 199 in Gebhard, 1990) assertion that the ultimate goal of research is to convey something to teacher educators and teachers. They both seem to be against the prescriptive approach as the search for effective teaching is endless.

Findings on the use of non-directive approach (Curran, 1978 in Gebhard, 1990; Zepeda and Ponticell, 1998) showed students receiving it favourably. Some students claimed that their supervisors were patient, giving and caring, and helped them come out with their own solutions to teaching problems. These made them more aware of the way they teach and their feelings about what they did with learners. Advocates of this approach (Curran, 1976, 1978; Rardin, 1977; Taylor 1979; Stevick, 1980 in Gebhard, 1990) stressed the importance of working with the *'whole person'* of the student to be able to build confidence, trust, and security in them. Only then will they open up to their supervisors for guidance in search of solutions to their teaching problems. However, if the assumption that students teachers benefit from what they think they need (Copeland, 1982) is true, then the non-directive approach might not be appropriate.

As for creative supervision, Freeman (1982) based his selection of supervisory approach on the type of information the student teachers sought. If they wanted to know what to teach, he used the directive approach. And if they wanted to know how to teach, he used the alternative approach. Another example of creative supervision is the

successful use of a combination of approaches by Gebhard's colleagues with their students (Gebhard, 1990).

Fanselow's (1977a, 1981, 1987b in Gebhard, 1990) self-help-explorative model of supervision is an extension of creative supervision, which places the supervisor as an experienced co-teacher. In this approach, the student teachers observe and explore their own and others' teaching together with their supervisor to gain insights of their teaching. Zepeda and Ponticell (1998) found that in using this approach teachers explored their own teaching and took control of their own improvement and change, raising their awareness of their own knowledge, skills and ability to improve.

Other teacher educators like McGarvey and Swallow, (1986) felt that the best approach for clinical supervision is one that is more *'collaborative'* as suggested by Cogan (1973, in Wallace, 1991). Others like Freeman (1982) and Perlberg and Theodre (1975 in Wallace, 1991) found that some student teachers preferred models to collaboration. Freeman also noticed that many student teachers found the most valuable part of teaching practice was seeing other teachers teach, which they claimed is not the same as being told what to do or being helped by someone. Wallace (1991) stressed that prescription should always be given cordially, treating the students as professionals and presenting views clearly in an organised manner, with due recognition to the students' strengths and weaknesses. Perlberg and Theodre (1975 in Wallace 1991) felt that criticism should be given when it is due and flattery should not be excessive. Otherwise, these could be construed as ineffectiveness, which could offend the principle of mutual professional respect. Fanselow (1990) claimed that self-exploration is the best way as it is not prescriptive, giving teachers more authority and responsibility. Abramson, Seligman, and Teasdale (1978 in Fanselow, 1990) asserted that, besides leading to resentment, help could also lead to *"learned helplessness"*. Yet other scholars like Gebhard (1990) Freeman (1982), and Zigarmi (1979 in Wallace 1991) suggest a

combination of approaches in accordance to the needs of the student teachers. It was found that the frequency of observations and feedback and the supervisor's familiarity with teacher's classroom and students were important growth facilitators (Stiggins and Duke 1988 in Zepeda and Ponticell).

All these views on supervision point to the fact that the way in which the teacher educator intervenes during clinical supervision will determine the type of teacher he moulds along the continuum of training and teacher development. During these interventions the main element involved is the interaction between the teacher educator and the student teacher.

2.3.3 Interactions

Gebhard (1990) in his study on the interactions between seven M.A. ESL student teachers and teacher educators attempted to prove that it is interactions between teacher educators and student teachers that bring about a change in their teaching behaviours. As a participant-observer he noticed changes in the teaching behaviours of five of the seven student teachers, as described by other ethnographers, ethno methodologists, conversational analysts and interaction analyst of interactions. Zepeda and Ponticell (1998) on the other hand, discovered in their research that interaction between supervisors and student teachers could bring both positive and negative results depending on the supervisors' perspective and attitude towards supervision. Some of their findings are as follows:

- *Supervisors who cite examples of good teaching in lessons they observed made student teachers more secure.*
- *When student teachers are made more aware of their own teaching, they perceived a need to change.*
- *Supervisory coaching, guidance and support provided to teachers, as they work towards their own improvement, are helpful.*
- *Teachers viewed as professionals by allowing them to reflect, learn, think and do collaborative work is much enriching.*

- *Interaction can be counterproductive when supervision is considered as the traditional teacher evaluation and feedback given in terms of gradation and comments, which intimidate, manipulate, and control teachers.*
- *Little or no discussion with teachers can also have adverse affects*

(Zepeda and Ponticell, 1998: 73 – 85).

Interaction between supervisors and student teachers can differ based on Pajak's (2000 in Pajak 2002) description of Carl Jung's revised and translated psychological functions. From the *'intuitive-thinking'* perspective inexperienced teachers become dependent on supervisors and are unable to develop their own teaching style when supervisors are overly direct in giving advice (Goldhammer, 1969 in Pajak, 2002). On the contrary, from a *'sensing-thinking'* perspective, inexperienced teachers badly need the overly direct advice from their supervisors to be induced into the teaching profession (Hunter, 1984). From a *'developmental reflective perspective'*, the supervisors' interaction with student teachers depend on the objective, that is whether it is to improve their pedagogical skills, theoretical understanding or sensitivity to ethical issues (Grimmett, 1989; Zeichner, and Liston, 1996).

Based on Carl Jung's psychological functions Pajak (2002) suggests that interaction between supervisors and student teachers should be in the way it is best learned by them. He adds that supervisors should guide student teachers to develop professional independence and ability by building on their strengths and teaching styles and not picking on their shortcomings. In having dialogues with student teachers, supervisors should put aside their own perspectives and preferred tendencies of judgement and accept them as professionals with unique styles seeking the realities of their teaching experience for their professional growth. In short, supervisors should work with teachers the way they want the students teachers to work with their students (Pajak, 2002).

According to Edge (1992) there are nine ways of interacting, which he claimed are essential for promoting collaborative development of interpersonal skills, which foster emphatic and supportive attitudes. They are 'attending', 'reflecting', 'focussing', 'thematising', 'challenging', 'disclosing', 'goal-setting', 'trialling' and 'planning'.

2.3.4 Counselling

The goal of counselling is to develop good classroom behaviour and cognitive understanding in the classroom by linking theory and behaviour (Randall and Thornton, 2001). The advisors' role is to concentrate on areas for enhancement (Edge, 1992) and supporting learning through counselling dialogues (Vygotsky, 1978 in Randall and Thornton, 2001). Based on counselling theories, the basic belief is that individuals are able to solve their own problems. However, the counselling process itself involves the meeting of the client with a helper to discuss the problem, looking at it in another light and deciding on an action plan (Randall and Thornton, 2001).

There are a few approaches to counselling student teachers, which are helping in nature and student-centred. Egan (1994) emphasises through his eclectic approach that helping is like solving a problem and that the student teacher is the focus of the helping process. He puts these into practice through his three stages model, *'Exploration'*: identifying students' problem based on their present state, *'New Understanding'* : helping them explore alternatives and aims, and *'Action'*: planning an action strategy to achieve the aims.

For effective counselling, Schon (1983), suggests that supervisors should observe the four constants: *'repertoires'* (skills, techniques, strategies), *'media'* (speech and tools), *'languages'* (technical language); *'overarching theories'* (theoretical understanding); *'appreciative systems'* (shared values); and *'role frames'* (of educators and students) that the students bring to the counselling sessions.

Bowers (1987) on the other hand, suggested the six-phase pattern HORACE: *'Hear', 'Observe', 'Record', 'Analyse', 'Consider' and 'Evaluate'* for effective counselling. Hearing and observing allows the educator to observe and place it in the context of the students comprehension, and become aware of the importance of the student's thinking. Record and analyse refers to the mutually agreed aspects of the students teaching to be observed. And, consider and evaluate is the gradual non-judgmental exploration of the students' teaching using unthreatening probing questions, allowing the students to evaluate themselves.

Heron (1990), based on his Six Category Intervention Analyses (SCIA) stressed the importance of honesty and truthfulness in giving feedback. This feedback he adds, should not be punitive as it is not the teacher but the lesson taught which is being examined, and the teacher should be made aware that problems arising in the lesson are not his fault.

Effective counselling according to Thompson (2000, in Pajak 2002), is the minimising or avoidance of problems related to the differences between the supervisors and student teachers in terms of psychological functions. Randall and Thornton (2001) emphasised the need for a positive and emphatic atmosphere of 'trust' between the advisor and the teacher for effective counselling, which can be influenced by *'individual differences'* (learning styles and personality types) and *'cultural influences'* (language and socio-pragmatics as well as cultural expectations) (Randall and Thornton, 2001: 133-140). In establishing a relationship of trust the advisors should practice supportive interventions through *'effective attending', 'active listening' 'creative empathy'* and *'probing'* (Randall and Thornton 2001: 87)

Heron (1990) posit that *'agendas'* such as *'technical'* (student teachers lacking the teaching skills), *'interpersonal'* (relationship between advisors and student teachers), and *'feelings and anxieties'* as well as *'defensiveness'* caused by the teaching situation or

feedback session itself can affect the counselling. Besides these, *'degenerative interventions'* - the advisors' attempt to maintain a *'supportive and valuing'* atmosphere when giving negative feedback either by *'pussyfooting'* (refraining from giving negative feedback) or *'clobbering'* (going on the attack) results in misinterpretations by the student teachers (Randall and Thornton, 2001).

The end point of counselling is having an action plan to transfer the suggestions and ideas discovered during the counselling sessions to future actions. The ultimate goal of counselling is to allow the student teachers to take charge of the analysis and to become self-directed in both the counselling session and in their professional growth. For a counselling session to be considered successful, the suggestions and advice given should be able to solve a problem, be helpful and produce effective outcomes. If the advice is not used in future teaching then it is regarded unsuccessful (Randall and Thornton, 2001). Interventions that do not allow the students to have control of their own learning and development, and arriving at their own solutions, are also deemed unsuccessful.

In addition, Randall and Thornton (2001: 116-117) stressed that action plans need to be *"specific, measurable, achievable, realistic and time-bound"* for them to be effective. One way of ensuring this is to record them in writing. This written feedback has to be supportive and empathetic in order to bring positive effects. It should contain observation outcomes, comments, suggestions and a mutually negotiated action plan.

2.3.5 Implementing Clinical Supervision

Unlike Cogan's (1973 in Wallace 1991:117) uneconomical and demanding eight phase collaborative approach, the normal clinical supervision has three stages: pre-observation conference, observation and post-observation conference.

In the pre-observation conference stage the teacher educator and student teachers discuss the general and specific goals of the observation and decide on a specific aspect of the teaching to focus on.

During the actual observation the teacher educator, while jotting notes on the overall teaching process, pays special attention to the pre-determined aspect of teaching. The lesson can also be audio or video recorded for later reflection and discussion.

The post-observation conference involves the analysis and discussion on the strengths and weaknesses examined by the teacher educator and reflected upon by the student teacher, following which proposals are made to improve classroom performance (Bowers and Gaies, 1990).

The interaction during the post observation conference can be approached in a *'prescriptive or collaborative'* (Gebhard, 1990), or *'authoritative or facilitative'* (Heron, 1990) way, which determine the level of autonomy given to the student teachers for their professional self-development.

In implementing the cyclical process Randall and Thornton stressed the importance of valuing the views of the students and refraining from being judgmental in interpreting what is observed. They viewed the process as a *"helping cycle"* and the diagram in Figure 5 summarises this.

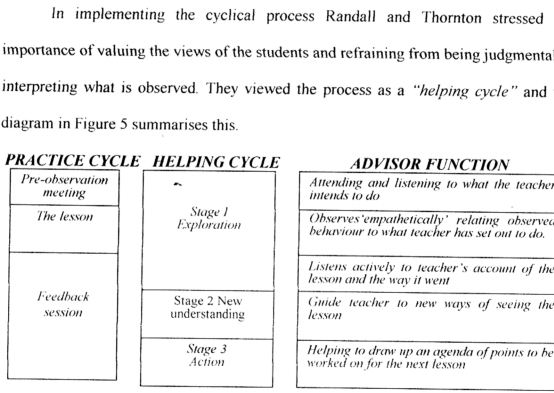


FIGURE 5 The Cyclical Process Viewed as a Helping Cycle
(Randall and Thornton, 2001: 72)

Costa, 1995; Lampert and Clark, 1990 in Pultorak, 1996) and reflective practice enhances the ability of teachers to do so (Cruickshank and Metcalf, 1993; Dewey, 1933; Glen, 1935 in Pultorak, 1996).

According to Gore (1987 in Thomas and Montomer, 1998), there are quite a number of proponents of ideas of reflective practice in teacher preparation, and in the past couple of decades, some of them and a few others popularised this idea of reflective practice among teachers. Among the popular names are Dewey (1904, 1933), Schafer (1967) Archmuty (1980), Zeichner (1981 – 1983), Schon (1983, 1987), Grimmet and Erickson (1988), Smyth (1989) and Valli (1992) (cited in Thomas and Montomer, 1998).

It is a general view that student teachers and practising teachers, especially those who are incTurnd to skilled-based teaching and rely on a prescribed curriculum, can benefit from the body of literature that resulted from their work. Research also shows that student teachers and experienced practitioners have actually used reflectivity in their teaching and consequently reconstructed their practice (Beyer, 1989; Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 1993; Haggerson & Bowman, 1992; Hollingsworth & Sockett, 1994; Noffke & Brennan, 1991; Tabachnick & Zeichner, 1991; Wells, 1994 in Beyer, 2002)

Reflective teaching is a form of inquiry, which came into practice with the intention of helping teachers improve their practice and was popularised by Cruickshank (Cruickshank and Applegate 1981), and Zeichner (Zeichner 1981, 1982 1983; Zeichner and Teitlebaum 1982 cited in Bartlett, 1990). Reflective teaching according to Cruickshank (Cruickshank and Applegate 1981) is thinking analytically and objectively about classroom practice with the aim of seeking alternative means of achieving goals. In other words reflection is a highly intellectual thinking process whereby the teacher thinks deeply about his behaviours and actions in the classroom in

relation to his plans of action, the responses of the learners and the outcomes. Based on this he makes changes to his teaching techniques and improves his practice.

Zeichner (Zeichner and Liston, 1985 in Plutorak, 1996) on the other hand, states that reflective teaching involves three different levels of reflectivity as emphasised by Van Manen (1977 in Collier, 1999). He stresses the practical and critical level of reflectivity (Carr and Kemmis, 1986), which requires the teacher to reflect within and beyond classroom practice (school and society). He is not only to seek total professional development in terms of pedagogical skills and habits, but also to develop adaptability to his school and social environment as well as to participate in making educational policies.

In teacher preparation, researchers have proposed several processes of reflective practice based on their own theoretical underpinnings. However, most follow Dewey's (1933:174) perception of how one should think:

> *First that the pupil should have a genuine situation of experience - that there be a continuous activity in which he is interested for its own sake; secondly, that a genuine problem develop with this situation as a stimulus to thought; third, that he possesses the information and makes the observation needed to deal with it; fourth, that suggested solutions occur to him which he shall be responsible for developing in an orderly way; fifth that he has opportunity and occasion to test his ideas by application to make the meaning clear and to discover for himself their validity,*
>
> (Dewey,1933 in Bartlett, 1990: 207)

With reference to Sergiovanni's (1986 in Pultorak, 1996:290) view that *"Educational settings have great uncertainty, instability, complexity, and variety"*, Pultorak (1996) suggested that teacher educators should find effective and nurturing

ways to prepare student teachers to face these anomalies. He adds that, one way in which teacher educators can become aware of how student teachers transform from a novice thinker to an expert analyst is through teacher reflectivity. In his study of reflective practice in teacher preparation based on Van Manen's conception of levels of reflectivity (1977) and parallel levels (Zeichner and Liston, 1987 in Plutorak, 1996), Pultorak discovered three phenomena:

1. *Teacher reflectivity is a developmental process and all procedures revealed an increase of reflections. Development however, varied with each procedure.*
2. *A comparative analysis between procedures implies that the presence and character of reflection did vary with each procedure.*
3. *Although different methods of reporting data were employed for each construct, reflective growth appeared more evident during the construct of clinical interviews than written products.*

(Plutorak, 1996: 289 - 291)

From his findings Pultorak, recommends Van Manen's conception of teacher reflectivity for promoting the growth and development of student teachers.

2.4.2 The Notion 'Problem' in Reflective Practice

The term 'reflective practice' has varied meanings (Grimmett & Erickson, 1988; Richardson. 1992 in Loughran, 2002). It could mean just thinking about something for some, whilst others may consider it to be a "*... well-defined and crafted practice that carries very specific meaning and associated action*" Loughran, 2002: 33). Collier (1999) with reference to Dewey (1933:17) believed reflective thinking is

... thought that requires turning an idea over in the mind and giving it serious consideration. Reflection commences when one inquires into his or her experience and relevant knowledge to find meaning in his or her beliefs. It has a potential to enable teachers to direct their activities with foresight and to plan according to ends-in-view.

(Dewey 1933 in Collier, 1999:173)

No matter how one defines it, there is one element of reflective practice that is common to all perceptions of it, that is the notion 'problem' According to Loughran, (2002) problem refers to a difficult and baffling situation in classroom teaching. To become competent teachers, student teachers should be able to identify the problem they face in class, reflect on it by various means (e.g. discussion with peers or teacher educators) and come out with a solution and a variety of ways to view the problem.

2.4.3 The Importance of Reflective practice

Reflection on practice is learning through questioning and investigation, which lead to a development of understanding (Canning, 1991; Smyth, 1992 in Loughran, 2002). In professions like nursing, medicine and law reflective practice has helped practitioners to improve on their knowledge and skills. Schon's (1983, 1987) constant reminders of the important link between reflection and practice, have prompted teacher educators to adopt it in teacher preparation programs (Loughran, 2002). It is believed that by reflecting on his practice, a teacher can sustain his professional stature and expertise and further develop his skills of making informed professional judgement (Day, 1999). Quite a number of education researchers have deliberated a variety of approaches to, and applications of reflection in their books. As a result, reflective practice took centre stage in terms of good practice for a period of time (Calderhead &

Gates, 1993; Clift, Houston & Pugach, 1990; Grimmett & Erickson, 1988; LaBoskey, 1994; Loughran, 1996; Osterman & Kottkamp, 1993 in Loughran, 2002).

Brookfield (1995) cites two reasons for the importance of this literature. Firstly, they offer a variety of approaches to examine practice, which paves the path for discovery, and research of some of the normal assumptions that influence teaching behaviour. Secondly, they give us insights of accounts of how teachers live through reflective practice, which can be related to our own experiences.

2.4.4 Effective Reflective Practice

To become effective reflective practitioners, student teachers need to be helped to develop the ability to view a problem in different ways or the ability to frame and reframe (Schon, 1983, 1987). They should also be able to distinguish between *'rationalization'*, which is to view a problem from only one existing perspective, and *'reflection'*, which entails making meaning and enhancing one's comprehension of problems in practice settings, consequently developing the ability to view them in different ways (Loughran, 2002). In acquiring the skills of reflective practice student teachers' attitude will change (Dewey, 1933 in Loughran, 2002) and they will look at their practice with an open mind, wholeheartedly and with full responsibility (Loughran, 2002). By doing so they will develop *'wisdom in practice'*, which is *'recognizable'* and *'articulative'* (Loughran, 2002:36).

Student teachers should realise that experience alone is not enough and learning actually occurs when experience is reflected on. Another important element of effective reflective practice is the time of reflection. Anticipatory, retrospective, and contemporaneous reflections require different skills and abilities and they interact with experience in a variety of ways. This links to the time of reflection and can influence student teachers experiential learning (Loughran, 2002). Two phrases used by Schon

(1987) to describe the time of reflection are *'reflection on action'* (the thinking back of what has been done) and *'reflection in action'* (reflection in the midst of an action).

2.4.5 Developing Effective Reflective Practice

Studies suggest that student teachers can reflect and be helped to learn the value of reflection in teaching and learning (Wildman and Niles, 1987; Rudney and Guillaume, 1990; Pultorak, 1993, 1996). Specific methods for encouraging reflective practice are reflective journals (Zeichner, 1983; Colton and Sparks-Langer, 1993), reflective interviews (Trumball and Slack, 1991 in Collier 1999), peer observation conferences (Zeichner and Liston, 1985), and group seminars (Koskela, 1985 in Collier 1999; Rudney and Guillaume, 1990). Other methods are oral dialogues (Emery, 1996), writing anecdotes and making assertions (Loughran, 2002).

Reflective journals or reflective logs are very useful in clarifying and extending student teachers' thoughts and concerns (Emery, 1996). They also provide a means for supervisors to consistently support student teachers' reflections towards their development (Collier, 1999). Journal writing may also help student teachers to incorporate knowledge and action (Calderhead, 1991; Surbeck, 1991) and help them analyse what they are doing (Zeichner 1983; Colton and Sparks-Langer, 1993). The student teachers' writings in their journals provide the teacher educators with a rich insight of what goes on in their minds in the process of realising the realities of teaching (Collier, 1999). In order to give support and direction as well as to establish and maintain communication, supervisors should regularly respond to student teachers' comments (Wildman and Niles, 1987; Rudney and Guillaume, 1990).

Reflective interviews are usually conducted during post observation conference immediately after the classroom practice (Zeichner and Liston, 1985, 1987; Costa and Garmston, 1988 in Collier, 1999). It is best conducted collaboratively with the school

mentor for quality and effective mentoring (Killen, 1989; Livingston and Borko, 1989). A follow up to the interview is a reflective journal entry of the conference (Collier, 1999).

For peer observation conferences, student teachers observe their peer intern teaching and write narrative comments for a follow up with that teacher. They make note of the purpose of the observation and write comments on specific aims, methods used, pupil participation and relationships to the teacher and classroom management (Collier, 1999). The peer conference is an avenue for the student teachers to learn from each other aspects of teaching, observation and support in a safe, equal and friendly environment (Robins, 1989). If the conference is successful both the student teachers will develop reflective and pedagogic skills (Collier, 1999).

Group seminars are a collaborative way for student teachers to support each other's reflection (Collier, 1999). They also provide encouragement and expose the student teachers to new forms and perspectives (Rudney and Guillaume, 1990). A theme should be chosen for each seminar (Collier, 1999) to avoid the discussion centring on immediate classroom demands (Goodman, 1983).

Writing anecdotes (Van Manen, 1995; 1999 in Loughran, 2002) is very useful for student teachers to develop the ability to view a situation in different ways. By writing anecdotes student teachers can enhance their ability to make meaning of particular actions and situations and unsettle some of the taken-for- granted assumptions about teaching that they have developed or are developing, thus developing the ability to see things in other ways (Loughran, 2002).

Discussing teaching practice experience in peers is useful in getting acknowledgement and support from each other, but to make it more beneficial, Loughran (2002) encourages student teachers to make assertions about their practice, document these assertions (declarations) and share them among themselves. To go a

step further, these assertions can be written in their journals and reviewed from time to time comparing with the teacher educator's comments on their teaching practice. In making assertions, documenting them and talking about them student teachers can obtain *"ownership of the direct link"* of the documentation to their experiences as it is meaningful to them (Loughran, 2002:38). Through the reframing associated with creating assertions, they are encouraged to act on the attitude of open-mindedness, thus not rationalising the situation according to their taken-for-granted assumptions. This is effective reflective practice. According to Loughran (2002), this is the starting point in the development of professional knowledge about pedagogical skills. This ability to identify, develop and discuss problematic areas in teaching is critical as it gives meaning, purpose and value to effective reflective practice (Loughran, 2002),.

Oral dialogue is suitable for people who consider themselves knowledgeable Emery (1996). He incorporated Smyth's (1989) four forms of actions (describing, informing, confronting and reconstructing) in his model of oral dialogue approach to reflection. He discovered that it is effective in promoting explorations of teacher's knowledge and self-confidence to generate knowledge about teaching. It is also less time consuming as compared to journal, log or diary writing. Emery feels that more objective peer critique can produce better reflections than introspection or supervisor intervention. Through oral dialogues, student teachers can scrutinise taken-for-granted classroom practices, form hypotheses about them and come out with alternative techniques, which they can try out in their classrooms (Smyth, 1989).

Effective reflective practices help teacher preparation to integrate theory and practice in meaningful ways (Korthagen, 2001; Korthagen and Kessels, 1999 in Loughran 2002). Other studies show that some student teachers do not value reflection in teaching (Sebran, 1989 in Collier, 1999; Flickenger and Ruddy, 1992) thereby making it difficult for teacher educators to facilitate its development.

2.4.6 Phases of Reflection

Reflective practice is a cyclic process and according to Bartlett (1990) the cycle comprises five elements: mapping, informing, contesting, appraising and acting. When a teacher reflects on her teaching she may go through the five elements a few times and any one of the elements can be omitted during the process. The diagram in Figure 7 shows the five phases and what occurs during these phases:

This cycle basically entails first the mapping of what we do in class followed by the search for reasons and assumptions for our action. The next phase is to scrutinise the reasons and assumptions and then the appraisal of alternative courses of action. Eventually the acting offers systematic approach to the process of making committed choices as the basis of *'good'* teaching (Bartlett 1990). Roth (1989) describes reflective practice as a spiral rather than a cycle so that a teacher who practices effective reflections *"is always becoming"* (Macpherson, 1994: 17).

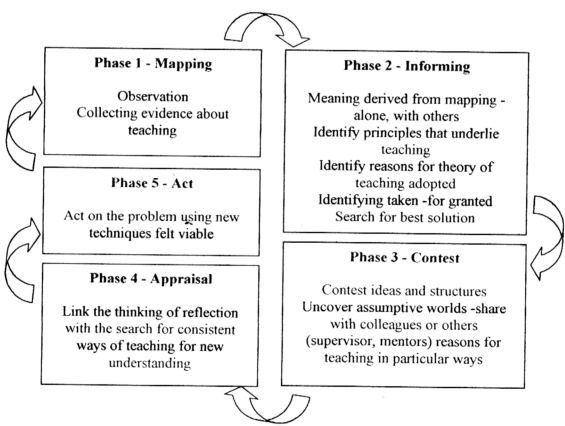


FIGURE 7 The Phases of Reflective Cycle (Bartlett, 1990: 209 - 213)

2.5 Methods used in the Studies

In investigating the subject supervision and reflective practice in teacher preparation, some researchers have used both the qualitative and quantitative methods of research whilst others used either one. Quite a number of the investigations were case studies of student teachers and also learners. For data collection, the methods used include observations, interviews, questionnaires, field notes, audio and video recordings and written materials (journals, essays).

In case studies, the methods used were usually observations, interviews and audio recordings, which included field notes (Gratch, 1998, Feimen-Nemser, 2001, Collier, 1999). In most of the case studies, the researcher took the role of a non-participant observer while in a few the researchers were participant observers. In one of the studies the researcher participated as a student teacher taking part in all the activities the other students did (Gebhard, 1990). Once the students realised the purpose of the researcher, they co-operated well and the researcher managed to collect valid data. The advantage of being a participant observer is that the researcher can actually get the feel of what the participants go through and experience, but it takes a lot of patience and is time consuming. The same goes for interviews.

In one case study the researchers used observations, interviews, personal journals, field notes and reflective notes to gauge the perceptions of young children about teacher preparation (Thomas and Montemory, 1998). The problem was to get parents, teachers and principals who would allow access to children. The children were very willing to participate and the researchers managed to collect a lot of valid data.

For the analysis of the developmental process of reflection in student teachers, researchers collected their data from written products and clinical interviews (Donoghue and Brooker, 1996, Pultorak, 1996). The researchers usually had to spend a long period

of time to collect their data and had to travel a lot. However, the data collected was comprehensive and gave the researchers a lot to work on.

For the purpose of getting the perceptions of student teachers, teacher educators and school mentors, text from transcripts, personal journals, field notes and interviews were used for collecting data (McGarvey and Swallow, 1986; Weaver and Stanulis, 1996).

From the review of the methods used by other researchers investigating the researcher's field of interest, he (the researcher) feels it would be sufficient for him to use interviews, written materials, audio-taping and questionnaires to collect data from teacher educators, student teachers and school mentors for his research.

2.6 Conclusion

In this review of literature, the researcher finds gaps in the field of clinical supervision and reflective practice during teaching practice of college pre-service teachers. Many researchers have investigated the roles of university supervisors and school mentors, but there is limited information available on clinical supervision involving student teachers and college teacher educators. The numerous studies on reflective practice in teaching, has neglected the reflective practice of student teachers during teaching practice. In the local scenario, there have been studies on the role of school mentors and visiting school supervisors, but none on clinical supervision and reflectivity of ESL student teachers during teaching practice. To fill these gaps the researcher has taken up this study on the communication between college supervisors and student teachers in promoting teaching competence and developing autonomous thinkers.